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ERRATA.

Page 56, col. ii., line 23 from bottom. For "of" read "by."
Page 72, col. i., line 34 from bottom. For "Geographical" read "Historical."
Page 189, col. iii., line 34 from bottom. For "Longmans" read "Oxford University Press (H. Frowde)."
Page 196, col. iii., line 19. After other, insert "than shall be levied upon citizens of the."
Page 466, col. i., line 6 from bottom. For "Indiana" read "North Dakota."

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 1, 1897.

The Week.

The temperate statement of the Japanese position respecting our Hawaiian treaty sets out forcibly the rough over-riding of Japanese rights which President McKinley proposes, and contains, in addition, one assertion which ought to bring a blush to every American cheek still capable of blushing. It is that the Japanese Minister in Washington was deceived by our Government. He had inquired at the State Department as to the intention of the Administration in regard to Hawaii, and had been informed that no treaty was in preparation or even in contemplation. Judge, then, of the sensations of this heathen when the rulers of a Christian nation, in the face of their promise, suddenly produced a treaty as absolutely ignoring the interests of 24,000 of his fellow-countrymen as if they had been simply so many wild beasts infesting the islands. The explanation is simple, though we fear it will not seem so to the untutored heathen or to the trained diplomat. When Mr. McKinley assured the Japanese Minister, as he had assured others, that he would have nothing to do with Hawaiian annexation, he did not dream that the Senate would pull him about so quickly. If he had foreseen how annexation would get tangled up with the sugar schedule, he would have been more guarded. Of course, no promise, no international understanding can hold good for a day as against a tariff exigency. Our Government had not the slightest intention of tricking the Japanese; there is nothing Machiavellian about Mr. McKinley—he was not trying to lull the Japanese Minister to sleep with false pretences. He simply forgot that the tariff and the Senate might compel him to break his promises. It will be a useful lesson to foreign ministers in Washington. They will understand hereafter that all agreements with this country are binding on us only so long as some unexpected hitch in the tariff does not force us to violate them.

Mr. Morgan has introduced in the Senate a bill to annex Hawaii, which is designed to bring the Sandwich Islands under the dominion of the United States, treaty or no treaty, by March 4, 1898, or earlier if Congress so decides. Mr. Morgan says that his bill is intended to carry the annexation treaty into execution in case it shall be ratified by the Senate, or to provide for its ratification by the joint action of the two houses in case the Senate shall refuse to act. "The treaty," he says, "can be ratified in this form, by a majority vote in each of the two houses, thus avoiding the necessity for securing two-thirds of the Senate, as would be required if the matter should be passed upon by that body alone." So far as procedure goes, Mr. Morgan would seem quite justified in his attempt. There is nothing in the Constitution which says that countries must be annexed by treaty. They may be annexed by law just as well; in fact, so far as the mere act of taking and holding goes, the President might annex by means of a few battle-ships. The difficulty with Mr. Morgan's bill is that it "antagonizes" the President's treaty, and puts Mr. Morgan instead of the President in the position of the great annexer. There is no doubt that Mr. Morgan can give Mr. McKinley "points" on a vigorous foreign policy.

The Republican State convention in Ohio opened most discouragingly with a ranting speech by Congressman Grosvenor, admirably calculated to drive away the whole body of independent voters—if there were any place for them to go. It was only through their support last fall that McKinley carried his own State by the relatively small plurality of 48,494, as against 268,469 in New York, and 142,607 in Illinois. Yet Mr. Grosvenor took especial pains to sneer at this body of voters who were so indispensable last fall, and who are so necessary to success again this year, talking about "the howl of the Mugwumps." Not content with abuse of the Independents as a force in politics, he sought to show that they had gained nothing, and could expect to gain nothing, in the way of financial reform from giving the Republicans control of the national administration. He condemned the Democrats for "taking their stand firmly upon the foundation of a 50-cent dollar and the depreciation and degradation of the coinage of the country," but the only evidence which he had to present that the Republicans had taken a firm stand for a 100-cent dollar was his "pointing with pride" to the sending abroad of a ridiculous commission in what everybody knows to be a hopeless search after an international agreement on bimetallism.

No gathering of Republican leaders in Ohio is ever complete without a factional controversy and well-sustained charges of treachery. The usual performance was again enacted when the delegates assembled in Toledo on June 23. Gov. Bushnell is to run for re-election, and Mr. Hanna is the Republican candidate for the Senate. Each distrusts the other, and each is afraid to leave the conduct of the campaign as chairman of the State committee to a representative of the other, for fear of being "knifed." Bushnell's man for chairman was Kurtz, and Hanna's was Dick. Each vowed that he would not surrender, but the Governor finally had to yield. Hanna not only got away a majority of the State committee, but he had come into possession of several letters that Kurtz had written, in which the Senator was arraigned severely, and he declared that no personal enemy, such as Kurtz had proved himself to be, should be placed in a position of such power and responsibility. Bushnell could not offer in rebuttal any letters of Dick arraigning the Governor severely, and there was nothing for him to do but to "take his medicine" and let the Senator run the campaign.

Senator Hanna's "dodge" of evading all expressions of opinion on the currency question in 1897 by "reaffirming allegiance" to the national platform of last year is undoubtedly very ingenious. But when he had the Ohio convention resolve that the national platform of last year "declares the true principles and policy of the Republican party," and that "to all the declarations of that platform we pledge anew our allegiance," he apparently forgot one of those declarations. The St. Louis platform contained this plank:

> "The civil-service law was placed on the statute-book by the Republican party, which has always sustained it, and we renew our repeated declarations that it shall be thoroughly and honestly enforced and extended wherever practicable."

The extensions of the reform system made by President Cleveland during the last year of his term came almost simultaneously with this declaration, and were in consonance with its spirit. Yet the Republican platform adopted at Toledo contains a resolution that "we denounce the vitiation of the spirit of the civil-service act by President Cleveland in those orders which extended its operation beyond its purpose and intent, and demand such revocation of orders or modification of the law as will accomplish its manifest purpose." A more cynical repudiation of pledges could not be conceived.

The wool schedule adopted by the Senate last week marks the almost complete triumph of the "Rocky Mountain sheep" and the almost complete defeat of the woollen manufacturers. Nobody can seriously regret the latter. It is the result of sitting down to supper with the devil while not having a long enough ladle. There is still talk of giv-

ing the manufacturers "compensatory" duties, but what can compensate them for not being able to get the wool they need? This kind of protection is a perfect illustration of Cecil Rhodes's cynical definition, that it is the fiscal system which makes goods dear and nasty. If the manufacturers had made a square and open fight, they might, at least, have won sympathy in their misfortunes; but they have trusted to intrigue and dickering, and the dickering has gone against them. The spectacle of Senators Quay and Penrose trying in vain to save the high-protection Philadelphia carpet-manufacturers from being hoist with their own petard, must have rejoiced the souls of the wool-growers. They are at last commending the Pennsylvania chalice to the lips of Pennsylvania. As for Mr. Dingley, he will now have to come out of the brush. He had the effrontery to defend in public the rates which the Western Republicans wrote in his bill, and which he, as a woollen manufacturer, knew would be disastrous, while privately begging fellow-manufacturers to come to Washington and make the Senate undo the outrage. Well, the Senate has finally made the outrage several degrees more outrageous, and what is Mr. Dingley going to do about it? Probably nothing, except join Senator Quay in seeing what "strategy" can do in conference committee.

Senator Platt of Connecticut made on Thursday a much-needed "explanation" of the huge anticipatory importations of wool. He admitted that a year's supply was now in hand, but, when Senator Jones moved to put the duties in effect only after a year, said that it was "in the main held by speculators," not manufacturers, and that the latter ought not to be punished for the action of speculators. But will not the speculators do the punishing of the manufacturers, if what Mr. Platt says is true? They have the wool; the new duties are designed to increase its price 6 to 10 cents a pound; and they will at once exact this of the manufacturers, whereas, a suspension of the duties for twelve months would punish the speculators, and give the manufacturers a chance to get the wool on their own terms. But the real reason why Senator Platt shrinks from punishing the speculators lest he punish the manufacturers is, of course, that they are one and the same. They are manufacturers so far as relates to "compensatory" duties on the wool that is going to cost them so much, and are speculators in respect to the wool which they have imported free. Senator Platt knows this as well as anybody, and his explanation is only a ludicrous attempt to deceive.

Senator Aldrich is taking no part in the Senate debates. This is not to be wondered at, quite apart from his poor health. His treatment by the Senate has been enough to make him ill, as he has been overruled and repudiated in almost every part of the tariff bill which he got up. His revenue duties have been contemptuously dismissed. His sugar schedule was disowned and thrown away. But most significant of all has been the way in which his attempts to make the tariff reasonable and "conservative" have come to grief. Almost all his low rates have been put back to the Dingley level, or higher. The finance committee have, in fact, made an almost complete surrender. What they are ordered to do they do without a murmur. Their first talk about a conservative tariff, such as the country had been led to expect, was utterly disgusting to the men who had paid for a 700 per cent. tariff and were bound to have it. The first feeble protests against an extreme tariff are now no more heard, and the Senate goes on meekly writing into the bill what the manufacturers have first written on their own letter-heads. Revenue and moderation are thrown to the winds; and the dizziest tariff rates ever heard of in this country are voted without explanation or defence.

It is perplexing to see that the *Tribune* condemns the statute lately passed in Pennsylvania taxing alien laborers three cents a day. It says that no doubt the native laborer has felt seriously the competition of Huns, Poles, and Italians, but that it is better for individuals to suffer than that the State should adopt a policy which violates at once economic laws and ordinary justice. The *Tribune* should explain to its readers why this doctrine does not hold good in the case of a protective tariff. That violates economic laws and ordinary justice in precisely the same way as a tax on wages. The McKinley tariff on pearl buttons ruined the industry of making them in Austria, so that the wages of the poor people employed were reduced much more than three cents a day. Some of them were doubtless Huns and Poles, and the circumstance that they are on one side of the Atlantic rather than the other does not seem to be relevant to the question of humanity or justice. If it is desired to prevent foreign laborers from competing with Americans, no more effective plan can be adopted than that of taxing their wages, and the only complaint that a protectionist can consistently make of the Pennsylvania statute is that the tax is not high enough.

Republican newspapers in Pennsylvania agree that the present Legislature of that State is the worst that has ever been known. The Philadelphia *Press* characterizes the majority as "reckless and servile," and speaks of one measure which it has passed as "without justification or decent excuse, and the most brazen and audacious scheme of arrogant usurpation which even these days of jobbery, peculation, and profligacy have developed." The *Ledger* declares that "Pennsylvania has never had quite such a bad Legislature as that which is now in session." Corruption seems to pervade everything, and petty thievery accompanies highway robbery. For example, appropriation bills have been presented containing items of charges for railroad fares, cab hire, and similar expenses for members of investigating committees who declare, in the rare cases of a few honest men, that such expenses were never incurred, and that these are attempts at pure "steals." In the case of the visit of a legislative committee to New York city at the dedication of the Grant monument the cost was put down at a sum two or three times as great as could possibly have been expended. Naturally enough, fraud is employed to get such jobs through the Legislature, and four of the bills making appropriations for the expenses of legislative committees were found to have been fraudulently put upon the calendar. It is estimated that an exposure of the corrupt practices attempted will save the State $100,000.

The latest revelation about the Pennsylvania Legislature is the exposure of wholesale padding of the pay-rolls in both the Senate and the House. An honest Representative observed that the roll for the lower branch called for $75,404, while a computation of the proper total, counting every man who can draw pay under authority of the law, amounted to only $55,980. The inquisitive member prosecuted further investigations, and found acting as doorkeeper a man whose name did not appear on the employees' list. Asked how he got there, the man said that Senator Quay had sent him down with orders that he was to be taken care of. The pay-roll of the House had been padded by putting on political bummers from all parts of the State. A similar investigation as to the Senate pay-roll showed that $54,948 was asked for employees of that branch, when $39,480 was the extreme limit which could be reached honestly. The Representative who had made these discoveries offered a motion on Monday evening that the House go into committee of the whole for the purpose of correcting the rolls, but it was, of course, voted down, 109 to 66. These swindlers are merely the creatures of Senator Quay. They see that their creator never conceals his contempt for the people. Why should they affect to care anything for public sentiment?

The fact that a decision made unanimously by the Appellate Division should be reversed by a unanimous Court of Appeals in the State of New York is rather startling. This has just occurred in the case of a trust to pay the interest of a certain fund to the creator of the trust during life, the principal at her death to go to certain remaindermen in fee. It has been generally supposed that the inheritance or transfer tax applied only to property administered through the Surrogate's court, and the tax has been justified as a compensation for the supposed services of the State in allowing legatees and next of kin to take the property of decedents. In such a case as the one just decided it has been thought that the gift made was *inter vivos*, and that the interests of the remaindermen were vested, the death of the creator of the trust serving merely to fix the period of possession. It now seems that it makes no difference whether property passes through the Surrogate's court or not, and that the transfer tax will be applied whenever a donor refers in any instrument to the time of his death as determining the beginning of any estate. It is difficult to believe that the line of decision taken by the Court of Appeals concerning this tax will not soon convince people of moderate as well as large wealth that their estates will be more justly administered under other jurisdictions than that of New York.

If ever there was a simple object lesson on the best method of building up trade, it is to be found in the record of our commercial dealings with Argentina under the Wilson tariff. With imports rising from $5,343,798 in 1892 to $9,313,385 in 1896, our exports to that country have increased from $2,643,325 to $5,491,216 in the same period. It has been in our manufactures—cotton cloth, cordage, machinery, and wood products—that the heaviest increase has occurred. Taking Argentina's exports has opened its markets to our manufactures. The maker finds a taker, as Mr. McKinley would say, but only because the maker invites the taker to exchange. Europe should have proved this axiom—for in commerce our legislators must learn even axioms—and the greater hold of England, Belgium, and France on the exports from Argentina is due only to the free access accorded to those exports in their respective markets.

A market that is expanding like that of Argentina, where there are commodities to be given for commodities, is one to be cultivated. Yet the pending tariff measures deliberately affront the Argentine exporter. A duty on cattle hides will more nearly touch the exports of Argentina than those of any other country. The duties on raw wools will more directly affect the export of Argentine wools than those of any other country. For these wools are low-priced wools, being worth a little more than 14 cents a pound, against 18 cents for the similar wools of Australia. A duty of 10 cents a pound will fall more heavily on a lower-priced wool, and the import will shrink to its former proportions. No reciprocity favors can be granted to lighten the effect of this direct discrimination against Argentine exports, for the sole object of the duties is to cut off trade. The Western Senators who are loudest in demanding high and prohibitive duties on wools come from communities where there has been an actual increase in the sheep flocks since 1893; for there has been such increase in Montana, Oregon, Wyoming, Colorado, and Idaho. Their object is to monopolize the home market, and it is not likely that they or the slaughter-houses of Chicago will permit any concession to Argentine wool or hides.

We are, perhaps, inclined in this country to look on the Dominion of Canada as somewhat of a laggard in material progress, at least according to our own standards. The Queen's Jubilee, however, has caused the *Canadian Magazine* to present some statistics of its growth in trade and population which are sufficiently impressive. Sixty years ago the total foreign trade of all the colonies now constituting the Dominion of Canada amounted to about $29,000,000. In 1895 the value of this trade was returned as $224,420,000, an increase of about 671 per cent. There have been no very sudden advances, but a gradual, steady growth that indicates the existence of sound conditions. In 1850 there were scarce 50 miles of railroad in the country; in 1860 there were but 1,880; but in 1895 there were about 16,000. Population has increased from 1,100,000 in 1831 to about 5,000,000 at the present time. If the policy of the Government has been frequently short-sighted and extravagant, it must be remembered that a sound system of banking and currency confers advantages on a country that offset many abuses. Now that some of the hindrances to commerce are in a way to be removed, we may be prepared to behold advances in Canadian prosperity that will cause our own people to insist on similar reforms.

Mr. Laurier was not the only colonial Premier at the Jubilee who spoke out for free trade and against Mr. Chamberlain's Zollverein. The Prime Minister of New South Wales, Mr. G. H. Reid, was equally outspoken and emphatic. "The moment you are thrown into schemes of what is called protection," he said, "you admit that the battle is going against you, and you are practically beaten." The way to meet competition is by superior competition. That had been the maxim of British industrial development up to the present time; and "the new method of meeting competition by strategy and by barricades seems practically an admission that the time has come for the decadence of Great Britain." With two such vigorous advocates of freedom of trade as Messrs. Reid and Laurier in his colonial conferences, Mr. Chamberlain will have hard work to smuggle through a scheme of protectionism under the disguise of "fair trade," "preferential trade," "imperial trade," or Zollverein.

The Spanish Government took advantage of the recent abstention of the Opposition to secure the speedy passage of its budget. So far as legal authority to raise revenue is concerned, therefore, no difficulty will be encountered for a twelvemonth. But the particulars of the budget show the financial straits to which Spain has been reduced. The expenditure for the coming year is estimated at $175,000,000, whereas that for the closing year was but about $152,000,000. The ordinary expenditure increases over $3,000,000; the charge for the debt nearly $19,000,000. The revenue for the next year is estimated to exceed the expenditure, but this result is attained only by assuming that certain measures will bring in something like $18,000,000. These measures confer power on the Government to increase all taxes except those on land by 10 per cent.; to create a monopoly of the manufacture, import, and sale of petroleum, and another monopoly of explosives, and to issue Treasury bonds to meet deficiencies. Even before the revolt the Cuban budget showed an annual deficiency of $4,000,000, and the debt has increased by $200,000,000, while the revenue has, of course, greatly fallen off. The Finance Minister states that the charges of the military operations in Cuba and the Philippine Islands will be borne by those colonies, a proposition which contains a deplorable amount of both truth and falsehood. The Cuban people are no doubt paying the cost of war in the destruction of their wealth, but whether they can be made to pay the debt incurred for carrying on the war is very doubtful. It seems even doubtful if Spain can remain solvent for another year, for most of her sources of revenue are already pledged as collateral security for loans. The new monopolies will produce little revenue, and will only increase the burdens of the common people. Nevertheless it is a little surprising that some of our Senators do not urge us to adopt the fiscal expedients of Spain. The fabulous profits of the Standard Oil Company should be sufficient to pay nearly all our pensions if the petroleum business were monopolized by Government.

PARTY DEMORALIZATION.

Nominations were made and platforms were adopted for the November elections in Ohio and Iowa on Wednesday of last week. Both States are generally Republican, and yet each is so doubtful that the Democrats have repeatedly carried it during the last twenty years. As it was the Republicans who opened the campaign in Ohio and the opposition in Iowa, the country is given simultaneously an insight into the condition of each party in that Middle West section which decided the last Presidential election.

As Ohio is McKinley's own State, and the convention was absolutely controlled by his next friend Hanna, that body's action represents Republicanism as it is understood by the Administration today. McKinley owed his election to the support of independent voters, in Ohio and other States, who regarded him as representing the cause of sound money. The platform adopted in Toledo contained no plank on the financial question—not a word to indicate that currency reform is regarded as necessary, or even desirable. The burning issue of our politics was entirely ignored in the platform, and also in the speeches of Senator Hanna and Gov. Bushnell, who were renominated for their present positions. Congressman Grosvenor, the presiding officer, was the only speaker who alluded to the subject, and he added insult to injury by treating the appointment of the bimetallic commission now roving through Europe as the complete redemption of the party's pledges regarding the currency.

What the platform and its framer, Senator Hanna, said on other questions was as significant and depressing as the silence on the chief issue. The resolution on the tariff is confined to an absurd "demand for the wool-growers of Ohio of such ample protection for wool as shall speedily increase American flocks sufficiently to supply all American needs." This declaration was fitly complemented by Mr. Hanna's preposterous characterization of the measure over which his Republican colleagues in the Senate chamber are daily wrangling, as "the most nicely balanced, the most scientific, and the best tariff law the country has ever had." For the rest, the platform offers "sympathy" to Cuba, endorses the annexation of Hawaii, commends reforms in the Pension Bureau, bids for the "labor vote" with a call for a national board of arbitration, and gives the Mugwumps, whom Mr. Grosvenor took pains to denounce, a "dose" by denouncing President Cleveland for extending the operation of the civil-service law, and demanding the revocation or modification of his action.

The guiding spirit of the convention was Senator Hanna, who left Cleveland for Toledo "with a retinue that any monarch might envy," in a special train "ablaze with color" and bearing 400 admirers, every one of whom "wore a beautiful badge in red and gold, in which was woven Hanna's picture." He was unanimously endorsed to succeed himself in the Senate, was thanked in the platform for unspecified "splendid efforts during the present session of Congress," was given entire charge of the campaign—in short, was practically crowned as the party king in his State.

Such is Republicanism in Ohio. Quite as gloomy is the condition of what was once the Democratic party in Iowa. That organization has now sunk its identity in a fusion with the Populists and the Silver Republicans, the three parties holding conventions at Des Moines on the same day and dividing the places on the ticket among them. A eulogy of Bryan is credited with having secured the gubernatorial nomination for the chairman of the so-called Democratic State convention, and the platform acepted by all three organizations endorsed the whole Bryan platform of 1896, with a special reiteration of the principle of free coinage at 16 to 1. As the ballot law of Iowa forbids the publication of a fusion ticket on the official ballot in more than one place, the list of candidates put forth is called "Democratic," but the name is all that is left of traditional Democracy in Iowa.

The developments in Ohio and Iowa are equally illuminating. They show that the demoralization of both the old parties is complete. Republicanism in Ohio never touched a lower level than was reached at Toledo in the abuse of the Independents to whom the party owes its possession of the Presidency, the praise of tariff spoliation as a display of science, the ignoring of the chief issue in our politics, and the elevation to supreme power in the party of a man who personifies the materialistic tendencies of our civilization. Democracy in Iowa can go no further in surrender of all the principles which it once represented than when it accepts Populism as its creed and puts a Populist on its ticket as a modern "Democrat."

Yet the very badness of the situation in both of the old parties has its hopeful aspect. It demonstrates to the nation that steps must be taken by those voters who believe in something, to have an organization by 1900 for which they can vote with the enthusiasm that characterized Republican support of Lincoln and Democratic support of Cleveland when either party was at its best. The demoralization of the old parties must compel a union of forces along new lines for a campaign which will inspire support based on neither purchase nor trade. The right-minded voters of the United States will not permanently be restricted to a choice between Republicanism as it is typified in Hanna, and Democracy as it is degraded to a mere "combine" for the capture of offices.

PROTECTION UNVEILED.

The falling out of rogues is the proverbial time for honest men to get their due; and the great protectionist falling out in the Senate on June 22 was no exception to the rule. The angry recriminations which flew back and forth across the chamber let in a stronger light upon the true nature of a protective tariff than the country has ever had before. This whole extra session, in fact, called for the express purpose of making protection more sacred than ever, has brought it, even in the eyes of its whilom friends, into deeper discredit than ever. There was, first, the appalling blunder of proposing a tax on books and art; this struck the scales from many eyes which had never before seen how inherently barbarian by nature the protective theory is. Then came the startling confession by Mr. Aldrich that protective taxes could no longer be counted upon to keep the Government in funds. Afterwards came the depressing revelation that the Sugar Trust was again dictating the sugar schedule. But last week's stroke was more deadly than any that had gone before.

It destroyed the last lingering illusion about the manner in which a protective tariff is framed. We all know what was the idyllic, pre-Adamite theory of the way the thing was done. Sage and disinterested men met in Washington, looked the country over, grasped by supernatural instinct the conditions and needs of every industry in the land, apportioned to each just the amount of protection required, sternly sending to the right-about every clamorous jobber and selfish interest, and made a tariff beautifully adapted to the good of each and all. This view of the procedure long since became grotesque to those who knew what the fact was; but many people with a talent for hugging delusions still thought something of the kind to be the truth. After the late affray in the Senate, however, the most credulous can no longer be bamboozled.

Instead of a company of statesmen, looking before and after and anxiously consulting the good of the whole country, the Republican Senators revealed themselves as little better than a band of brigands wrangling over the division of their booty. Charges of bad faith were freely flung about. All the talk was of two-o'clock-in-the-morning conferences, and secret agreements and "combines," and violated understandings and ultimata served, and threats of "you will hear from me again." It was openly charged, and not denied, that one amendment offered by the finance committee was actually written on a manufacturer's letter-head. Of course, manufacturers have written their own rates before, and publicly boasted of it, but

the Senate has, till the present, always had the decency to copy them off on official paper. Even that thin disguise it is no longer thought necessary to preserve. What the manufacturers thrust into the hands of Senators is now brazenly made law just as it stands. All this, we say, with the cynical Foraker's statement of the way the wool schedule was crammed down the throats of the finance committee, strips away the last rag of concealment from protection. As Senator Vest said, he and the whole country had the privilege, for the first time, of seeing a Republican caucus at work on the tariff. When Sir George Trevelyan was Chief Secretary for Ireland, he once refused permission for a Nationalist meeting at the same hour and in the same city with a Unionist meeting, previously arranged for. He told the Irishmen to hold their meeting later and confute the Unionists. "But how can we confute them," persisted the delegation, "unless we are there at the same time?" Well, the country was there at the same time with the Republican caucus, and will hereafter have no difficulty in confuting any man who pretends that a protective tariff is aught but an unblushing dividing of the spoil.

But we must look behind the furious Senators. Their rage at being tricked, their midnight bargaining, their fierce taking the committee by the throat, their open giving of the lie, are not mere personal acts of theirs. They do but move as they are made to move, and the question is, Who is thus able to control them? Who is it that holds their political future in the hollow of his hand—who that demands the stipulated pound of flesh—who that makes them mere puppets? The answer leads to the real unveiling of protection which the country is witnessing. The Senators are not free men. The Republican party has to make, not the kind of tariff it would like, but the kind of tariff that it has sold itself to make. The manufacturers who write their own rates on their own letterheads show the true state of the case. The Senate is their creature; the Republican caucus their servant. A protective tariff is a pure matter of bargain and sale; and the terms of it are openly referred to in the Senate, where the men who are held up to execration are not at all the men who have sold themselves, but the men who show some slight squeamishness about delivering the goods.

A sardonic feature of the whole business is that all this degradation is in vain; the Republicans, like the Georgia negro who thought he was listening to the preaching of Whitefield, have been "rolling in the dirt for nothing." Even their wool schedule, over which their shameful wrangle took place, is going to have no effect on business and their party fortunes except a bad effect. With a year's supply of free wool on hand, the farmer will get no appreciable advantage from the advanced rates. With a year's supply of manufactured woollens on hand, the mills are going to be no better off. Whatever changes or improvements come will be caused by the laws of trade, not by the futile meddling with them now going on at Washington. Thousands of Republicans now admit all this. They see and say that the country has outgrown protection; that tariff rates, no matter how high or how low, are a dead letter so far as the business of this country is concerned, except that they hurt it by irritating foreigners and inducing them to retaliate. In this respect, too, the discussions on the tariff and the progress of events have revealed to many eyes, hitherto blinded, the breaking down of the protective system. Perhaps it was best that it should expire in the house of its friends. Creeds have been said to die by the process of explaining them, and protection may by the process of defending it. It might not be dropped simply because it was a proved resultant of greed and the fierce scramble of private interests; but if it is going to turn out, as it is, a disappointment to the greedy and ashes in the mouth of the selfish, the protective tariff now enacting, with all the marks of purchase and corrupt intrigue upon it, may well be the last we shall ever see.

THE HOME MARKET OF HAWAII.

So much has been said of the commerce of the Hawaiian Islands, and of its importance both as a feeder and rival to the productions of the United States, that the sense of proportion has become dim, and both advocates and opponents of the reciprocity treaty seek to support their respective sides by exaggerated statements. Only by referring to the official returns can a true idea of the commercial relations between the two countries be formed.

It may be stated at the outset that without the reciprocity treaty the consumption of American products in Hawaii would have been less than the consumption of a few counties in any populous State in the Union. By conceding a free market to some products for the growth of which the soil and climate of the islands were admirably fitted, a more potent encouragement has been given than any system of protective duties could have afforded. The treaty placed the sugar of the islands on precisely the same dutiable basis as the sugars of Louisiana, and the rice of Hawaii on the same basis as the rice of South Carolina—with some advantages to boot. The distance of California and the extreme Western States from the Atlantic seaboard and even from the Mississippi valley, and the cost of transport across the continent, gave to the sugars and rice of Hawaii a natural monopoly of the Western market.

The result has been to stimulate the growth of these products in the islands to such an extent as to concentrate in them the export trade. In 1850 only a few hides and skins, less than $9,000 in value, were imported from the then Sandwich Islands, and the total trade, both import and export, was summed up in that article. In 1860 the United States were exporting to the islands more than importing, and this relation was not altered till 1866. In the latter year the production had already centred in sugar, rice, and coffee, and, as a rather curious result of the cotton famine, a small quantity of cotton. Sugar already contributed more than two-fifths of the total value of exports. Ten years later this centralization was favored by the reciprocity treaty, and since that time the commerce has been almost uniformly based upon sugar. The export of coffee almost ceased after 1882, but has again risen to its former figures, 180,000 pounds a year; the trade in hides and skins has steadily declined since 1887; the movement of rice is variable, but shows a marked tendency to fall away, and the only class of products outside of sugar that gives evidence of vitality is that of fruits and nuts. The export of sugar to the United States in 1879 was 41,696,674 pounds, and has increased to its highest figure of 352,175,269 pounds in 1896. Of the total exports to the United States in 1896, valued at $11,757,704, sugar represented $11,336,796—or more than 96 per cent. of the whole.

Monopolizing in a great degree, as we do, the export trade of the islands, the import trade is shared with other countries. The reciprocity treaty enumerated a long list of manufactured products to which free entry was to be accorded in Hawaiian ports against the similar products coming from any other country. This discrimination has enabled the manufacturers of the United States to enjoy the larger part of the Hawaiian import trade, but no great results have followed. The highest export in any year was made in 1891, when nearly $5,000,000 was attained. Since 1877 the exports have nearly doubled in value, but the annual average is still less than $4,000,000. Nor does an examination of the details of these exports lead to any conclusion in favor of this form of reciprocity; for the articles are such as the United States possesses so great an advantage in growing or manufacturing that they would, when supported by geographical position, be exported whether there was any treaty or not—iron and steel manufactures, of which a large part was sugar machinery, breadstuffs and provisions, tobacco, and manufactures of leather, cotton, and wood—in nearly

every instance articles which could not be supplied by any other country so cheaply and easily as by the United States. The treaty stipulated only for exports on the lines of least resistance, and it would not be far out of the way to assert that the export trade to Hawaii rather reflects the growth of the import trade from the islands than any stimulus afforded by the treaty. In other words, free trade in imports has led to an export trade, and this will be the effect wherever the trial is made.

The imports into Hawaii from countries other than the United States were in 1896 $1,700,354, of which the United Kingdom enjoys the larger part. While more than 99 per cent. of Hawaiian exports are sent to the United States, only 70 per cent. of the imports are derived from us. China and Japan combined send $570,000 to the islands, while Germany is able to send less than one-fifth the value derived from England. The shipping is American to the largest degree, and all English trade is carried in British bottoms. Germany is the only carrier for merchandise other than her own.

The character of the population of the islands is such as cannot lead to any notable increase in the market for our products. What is now supplied by other peoples will largely be obtained from us, but even if the entire Hawaiian demand be satisfied by our domestic products, the increase in volume of export trade will amount to only $2,000,000, or less than one-fifth of one per cent. on the total export movement of the United States. This is a pitiably small matter, and becomes insignificant in the face of little prospect of any increase in the immediate future. The Hawaiian exports now come to us; we enjoy as large a share in the Hawaiian markets as we deserve. The movement to annex cannot be in favor of commerce, and this emphasizes the local selfishness that has dictated the annexation against the warnings of experience and in disregard of political problems that threaten danger in every aspect.

CANADA'S RETALIATORY LABOR LAW.

Three months ago Prof. Dicey wrote an article in one of the English reviews advocating what he described as a common citizenship for all Englishmen and Americans. His idea was that an act of Parliament should be passed to make every citizen of the United States a British subject, and that simultaneously an act of Congress should be passed making every British subject a citizen of the United States. It is doubtful if Prof. Dicey would have been so enamoured of this Utopian proposal if he had known more of the United States, if he had been aware of the friction which has existed on the Ontario border for ten years, arising out of the American alien contract-labor law; and if he had been aware also that, at the time his article appeared in the *Contemporary Review*, there was pending in the Dominion Parliament a measure in retaliation for the American law. The alien contract-labor law which is about to come into operation in Canada is essentially un-British in its character. It was passed by the Dominion Parliament only because of the pressure brought to bear on the Laurier Government by the members from Ontario in the House of Commons at Ottawa.

The Canadian act is almost a duplicate of the American contract-labor law, and it is believed to be the first measure of the kind emanating from any Legislature in the British Empire. It makes it unlawful for any person to assist or encourage the importation or migration of alien laborers from the United States into Canada to work under contract in the Dominion, and provides for the deportation of such laborers. It applies only to people arriving in Canada from the United States. A Liberal member from one of the border counties of Ontario was sponsor for the bill in the House of Commons; and in drawing it up he took the American law as his model, altering the phraseology so as to make it apply to the case of Canada, and to apply only against contract laborers from the United States. There is an impression in this country that the Canadian bill owes its origin to the Lodge-Corliss immigration bill passed in the last Congress and vetoed by Mr. Cleveland. This is not so. The Canadian measure was conceived two years ago; and in the autumn session of the Parliament elected in June, 1896, months before the Lodge-Corliss bill took final shape, the promoters of the Canadian bill had received an assurance from Mr. Laurier that, in the session of 1897, a law in retaliation for the American acts of 1885 and 1887 should be passed. That the Lodge-Corliss bill was known to be pending may have made the people of Ontario more urgent in the pressure they brought to bear on the Ottawa Government last year; but the Canadian law is entirely due to the American acts and to the wantonly aggressive way in which they have been long administered in the neighborhoods of Buffalo and Detroit.

Some of the proceedings of the federal labor-law inspectors in New York and Michigan suggest that the Secretaries of the Treasury at Washington, in whose department the administration of these laws comes, cannot have been cognizant of the way in which they were being interpreted. The first movement of retaliation in Canada was made during the time of the Bowell administration, and resulted in an inquiry by a parliamentary committee. The inquiry established the fact that the people of Ontario had a real grievance, and it brought out the further remarkable fact that the friction in connection with the administration of the American labor laws had always been confined to the Ontario border. Thousands of Canadians pass every year into the New England States to seek work; but from Quebec and the Maritime Provinces there were no complaints to the Ottawa committee of treatment like that which Canadians seeking work in the United States had suffered at the hands of inspectors at Detroit and Buffalo. This unequal administration of the American laws accounts for the fact that the new Canadian law is not to operate at once over the whole length of the Canadian border. It is to be put into force where it may be deemed necessary, at the instance of the Dominion Attorney-General; and while it may add to the long-standing friction on the Ontario border, it is not likely to affect the status quo in Quebec and the Maritime Provinces.

Mr. Laurier has about as much sympathy with the new law as the late John Bright would have had. He at first tried to get out of the difficulty by suggesting that if one's neighbor behaved as a boor, it was not necessary to imitate his example. But this argument was of no avail with the Ontario members. There were demands for a retaliatory bill from both sides of the House of Commons. The leader of the Opposition, Sir Charles Tupper, supported these demands; and when the Parliament opened in March last, the Premier was so placed that he had no option but to accept a private member's bill brought forward on his own side of the House. Even then he was careful not to make it a Government measure, although he was pledged to use the forces of the Government, if necessary, to help the bill through its various stages. The slightest conciliatory movement from Washington made any time these last three months would have served Mr. Laurier as an excuse for postponing any action on the bill. Even yet it practically rests with the Treasury at Washington whether the Canadian bill shall go into effect.

LYNCH LAW.

Few things cause more pain to those who are concerned for the good name of their country than the evidence of the failure of our criminal law furnished by the prevalence of "lynching." Scarcely a day, certainly not a week, passes without a report of the taking of human life by a body of citizens whose systematic measures forbid us to call them a mob. Most of these occurrences take place in communities of comparatively imperfect civilization, but from time to time they are reported from States like Ohio or Maryland, concern-

ing which no such charge or excuse can be made. That the existence of such practices is a national disgrace no one denies; but it appears to us to reflect peculiar discredit upon the legal profession. The lawyers dominate most of our Legislatures, and the shaping of our jurisprudence is practically in their hands. They may assert that their responsibility is confined to making the laws, and that it is for the people to enforce them. Such a claim is more specious than substantial, if the view we take of the matter is correct.

For whatever may be the requirements of the theory of ethics, criminal jurisprudence is a practical affair. No matter what the views of philosophers, or philanthropists, or legislators may be, society requires to be provided with laws that will work. If the public opinion of a community fiercely condemns certain acts, the law must make those acts crimes and provide for them such punishment as is regarded as fitting by public opinion. Great emphasis is now laid, and very justly laid, on the importance of making punishment reformatory. But it is equally important that to the people at large the punishment should seem adequate, appropriate, and inevitable. Unless this condition is complied with, the law will fail to secure that moral support without which it becomes the mere despotic exercise of governmental power. It may be applied with much system and formality, but it will fail of its purpose when it ceases to be the expression of the moral sense of the people.

That our criminal law or its application is defective in some of these particulars does not admit of question, and it is equally evident that reform can be accomplished only through the legal profession. Unfortunately no signs appear that the profession is disposed to exert itself in the matter. There are associations of the bar in most of the States, if not in all. There is an association of the bar of the United States. These bodies consider many important questions—too many, perhaps, for practical results—but they can consider no question more important that that of restoring popular respect for the administration of criminal justice. The public interest requires that our lawyers should concentrate their minds on the inquiry whether suitable punishments are now provided for such crimes as occasion most of the summary popular executions; whether there is a reasonable certainty that the law will seize and confine criminals in general; whether the law enables those undoubtedly guilty to escape without punishment, or with inadequate punishment; whether there are unreasonable delays in bringing on trials, in appeals from convictions, and in the infliction of penalties; whether the pardoning power is not abused or is not itself an abuse.

Up to this century the English people may be said to have regarded those of its members who were criminally prosecuted as in danger of becoming the victims of despotic power. The fact that prisoners were allowed no counsel is enough of itself to explain that multiplication of technicalities which has enabled so many scoundrels to escape their just dues. We need to consider whether the changed relations of the people to the Government have been accompanied with proper modifications of the common-law procedure. The criminal law of England is no less severe than our own; but capital crimes and executions are far less frequent than with us. Yet in England there have been no criminal appeals. Conviction before the trial court has been final, while here there are appeals on appeals, with a final resort to a writ of habeas corpus to the Supreme Court of the United States. In the State of New Jersey the Court of Errors and Appeals may be compelled to examine all the proceedings in a capital case, including the evidence, even if no exception has been taken. It does not have the prisoner before it; it does not see the witnesses or hear them testify; but it must try the case with a view to discovering "manifest error," like a court of equity balancing affidavits.

Nothing is better established on psychological grounds than that punishment, to be efficacious as a deterrent, must be prompt. But in what State is this requirement complied with? Some Legislatures have gone so far as to provide that no one shall be hanged for a year after his conviction. In almost all of them a murderer may be sure of a year, perhaps several years, of life after his arrest. He knows, the friends and family of his victim know, the people at large know, that before that time has passed many chances of escape may present themselves. The prisoner may break jail. Material witnesses may die or disappear. Resentment may be softened by the lapse of time; sympathy for the victim who has passed out of this world gives place to sympathy for the prisoner who is struggling to save his life. The longer punishment can be postponed, the greater the possibility that it may be evaded altogether; the greater the certainty, we may say, that it will be mitigated and eventually remitted. Such delays are dangerous, for in cases of atrocious crime, particularly when violence is done to women, popular passions are always difficult to restrain, and if the penalty provided by law is uncertain or insufficient, the conservative element in the community finds itself deprived of its best argument for letting the law takes its course.

ART IN THE VICTORIAN ERA.

LONDON, June 11, 1897.

This has been in London a season of Victorian reminiscences. It was inevitable that the sixtieth anniversary of the Queen's accession should be the signal not only for Jubilee celebrations, but for a general summing up of the chief events that have given distinction to her reign. You cannot take up a paper or a magazine just now without coming upon memoirs and recollections, sketches and histories of the last sixty years. And while publishers, perhaps superfluously, groan over the dull times the Jubilee has brought with it, they could not but admit a large sale for the books that relate to the same period. We have had the personal story of the Queen, with all the familiar and domestic incidents dear to the heart of the sentimental Briton. We have had the story of her prime ministers and the great soldiers of her United Kingdom and her colonies. We have had the survey of Victorian literature and Victorian drama. And space has even been found for Victorian art, which might have been left out of the reckoning, and the public relied upon to accept the omission with equanimity.

But, really, the record of art should have proved the easiest of all to make. Here was a chance, not for statement of fact alone, but for actual display of accomplishment; where art is concerned, the walls of the exhibition gallery are always more eloquent than pages of printed description. The chance has not been overlooked. Among the innumerable other Victorian demonstrations, we are having the Victorian picture show, and, in two cases at least, it has been prepared with an apparent effort to represent seriously the entire period in question. One is at the Guildhall, the city corporation having of late busied itself with art and begun to give admirable loan exhibitions of earlier work, at a time when the Royal Academy seems to have wearied of the old masters it was once its pride to show in midwinter. The other is at Earl's Court, where the Gardens that have been, in turn, American and Italian and Indian and much else besides, have very naturally become Victorian in deference to the all-absorbing interest of the moment.

To be honest, nothing could be more disappointing than these two shows, each in its own way. The galleries at the Guildhall are small, but still, by careful selection of the pictures that best illustrate the important movements and tendencies of the last sixty years, much might have been done. It is hard to say, as it is, upon what principle the selection has been made, but the result is a collection that tells little except that there were a few painters of landscape and architecture at the beginning of the reign; a group calling themselves Pre-Raphaelites towards the middle; and, at the end, a handful of Royal Academicians of no special talent or distinction. At Earl's Court matters are worse; probably because there more pictures have been gathered together to as little purpose. Indeed, the very name Victorian, which has come to be a synonym for all that is meretricious or common, which is hopelessly associated with ugliness, has had a most disastrous effect upon the entire exhibition and its Gardens. I speak the more feelingly because in the new (the July) number of the *Century* I am rather lavish in my praise of the same scene of summer entertainment. However, last year and the year before it was nominally Indian and, therefore, according to Shandyan philosophy, not doomed to commonplace. But

the court, that was then very lovely, with its great white spaces and simple lines of light, is now as ornate and garish as the most ardent Victorian heart could desire; the illuminations, that then were so harmonious because of the simplicity of their scheme, are now all discord and clashing of many colors; while high above the Garden, triumphant tribute to the commercialism of the Victorian age, the great wheel throws out a flaming advertisement against the sky. What could be more appropriate?

It is hardly a surprise, after this, to find that the pictures in the gallery are chosen at haphazard. A faint effort seems to have been made to follow some sort of historical sequence, but with most indifferent success. Here you come upon a Turner, and there upon a few water-colors by Cotman, as a reminder of the artists who were at work when the Queen came to the throne. Here a few etchings by Mr. Whistler, a few prints by Turner's engravers, a few drawings by Charles Keene, or for Dalziel's Bible, serve as scanty proofs of the wonderful development in the art of black-and-white during the Victorian era. But the rest of the collection consists chiefly of many and awful portraits of the Queen, who, whatever her virtues, cannot count love or patronage of art among them; and of perhaps the most trivial and mediocre canvases which the modern Academician has ever hung upon the walls of Burlington House. Never elsewhere has the failure of the Academy to preserve a high standard or respect its own great traditions been more pitifully exposed.

And now, to realize the tremendous interest that might have been given to these two exhibitions, consider for a moment what the history of Victorian art has been. The very word, I know, suggests all the abomination of sham marble and horse-hair in house decoration, of the crinoline and chignon in costume, of anecdote and sentiment in painting. But these things mark a Victorian interval, not the whole Victorian period, and the revolt against them, affected as its main manifestation was thought at the time, has proved the healthiest movement in art of the second half of the century. It is true that, in 1837, the outlook was depressing enough. The days of the great portrait-painters, the direct descendants (it might be said) of Van Dyck and Rubens, were over; Sir Thomas Lawrence, the last, had died in 1830. The men who had brought landscape painting to a perfection never before dreamed of, men who, with Hogarth, were the most original painters England had yet produced, were disappearing one by one; Bonington and Crome had been already dead for a decade or more; Constable's career came to an end the very year that the Queen's began; Cotman was to follow in 1842; and Turner alone was to survive long enough to take his place for us among Victorian artists. But he was ever a man apart, no favorite with his contemporaries, no influence with the younger generation. Were I writing at greater length, I might add a few other names—Müller, Barker, David Roberts, Linnell. But the painters, in 1837, already or fast coming into evidence, fast winning popularity, were Mulready and Maclise and Wilkie and Etty and Landseer and Egg and Eastlake and Leslie. These were the heroes in the Academy and the studios, the painters approved by royalty and by that nobility which, as poor Haydon's pathetic memoirs and correspondence show, was still expected to play the munificent patron of art. Among them were a few not lacking in painter-like qualities. Etty had a good feeling for color. A suggestion of something like style gleams through the bituminous depths of an occasional canvas by Wilkie. Even Landseer, when he was content to sketch and willing to forswear sentiment, could paint for you a canvas not without merit. But there is no space here to enter into a critical study of schools and standards in the opening years of Victoria's reign. The prevailing degeneracy is realized at a glance when, in the National Gallery, you leave the rooms filled with Hogarths, Sir Joshuas, and Gainsboroughs—rooms still sacred to fine conventions—for those crowded with the little trivial anecdotes and trashy popular sentiment of the early Victorians.

As for sculpture, it is useless to speak of it, since hitherto there have been no sculptors in England, if I except Flaxman and Chantrey, and neither is to be ranked with the artists who were their successors. Some of the masters of water-color—Turner, Cotman, David Cox, Cattermole—were still at work, but this essentially British art was already stooping to the tedious detail and sentimentalities of William Hunt and his kind. Black-and-white, on the other hand, had not degenerated, chiefly because the influence of Bewick was only beginning to make itself felt, and the importance of Senefelder's invention only beginning, one might say, to be realized. The illustration of books was in the transition stage; Turner, Stanfield, David Roberts, and the others still working for the steel engraver. But Prout, Cattermole, Lane, Harding, Lewis were only now bringing the new art of lithography to a perfection unrivalled elsewhere, save in France, where the great lithographers had already published their best prints.

On the whole, however, it must be admitted that I am right in saying that the outlook was depressing. It was the all but universal lowering of standards, the vulgarizing of art, with full Academical authority, that was the most discouraging feature of the time, as we look back to it. The story of the sudden rise of Pre-Raphaelitism from the slough of commonplace seems all the more wonderful in its romance when one appreciates the full measure of this commonplaceness. I have no intention of repeating the story here—it has been repeated often enough quite recently; nor do I propose to discuss the creed of the Brotherhood. What is important in this very rapid sketch is to point out the part the Pre-Raphaelites played in the revolt against Victorian vulgarity. For theirs was a revolt as truly as the Romantic movement, some twenty years earlier, had been in France. Ruskin, the prophet, Madox Brown, the master, and Rossetti, Millais, and Holman Hunt, the brave crusaders, threw down the gauntlet no less boldly, no less uncompromisingly, than the young men of the *Cénacle* when they rallied around the red waistcoat of Gautier on that famous night at the Théâtre-Français. But reaction was in the air. The evil had gone too far not to be righted. The Pre-Raphaelites were the most conspicuous rebels simply because, by banding themselves together, they gained the strength of numbers. Mr. Watts, in his way, was proclaiming his belief in the Gospel of Individuality in preference to old outworn Academical dogma. Not so many years later, Mr. Whistler was producing the plates which were to make the England of the nineteenth century as classic ground for the etcher as the Holland of the seventeenth, and the pictures which, disdained and ridiculed then by critics and public, are now finding places in the world's national and municipal museums. Because he happened to live and work in England, Mr. Whistler, the American, has been the most distinguished figure, the strongest influence, in the art of the Victorian period. Pre-Raphaelitism, naturally, is fast dying out, but his power over the younger generation makes itself more and more felt with every day.

In other directions, too, the rebellion, the reaction found full expression. The art of sculpture for the first time in England had a great artist—Alfred Stevens—for its interpreter. House decoration was being modified, improved, almost revolutionized, thanks to the initiative taken by the Pre-Raphaelite firm of Morris, Marshall, Falkner & Co. By 1860 illustration had reached a perfection that, the chances are, will not be for many years surpassed. Whistler, again, the Pre-Raphaelites, Keene, Leighton, Walker, Pinwell, Boyd Houghton—these were a few of the men working for the wood-engraver. Altogether the second period of the Victorian era was as promising as the first had been discouraging.

The stimulus then given has had its effect in the work of the last thirty years. Some might think the conditions had changed but little. The Academy—the official representative of art—raises no higher standard in 1897 than it did in 1837. At the National Gallery to-day, as years ago when it was first exhibited at Burlington House, Mr. Frith's "Derby Day" is the picture that holds the crowd. But the change can be seen now in the work of individual men—of Fred. Walker, of Cecil Lawson, of Boyd Houghton, who died all too soon for their own fame; now in the aims and objects of new artistic organizations—the new English Art Club, the Glasgow school. There has been, I do not deny, too much talk of art, too determined an attempt to manufacture the artist. For one Ruskin, a score of cheap and ready writers, calling themselves critics, make no fair exchange. The multiplication of schools is fast sowing the seeds of new evils. Affectations flourish, increase of knowledge weighs like a burden upon the conscientious, self-conscious craftsman of the day. And for all the agitation, for all the talk, for all the study, the artist, the genius, is as rare as he ever was. But, on the whole, conditions are healthier than when the Eggs and the Landseers and the Eastlakes were accepted as masters. Then the English artist had forgotten what art means; now, at least, he understands. You can see it in his portraits, in which—though he may not always succeed—he endeavors to give you something more than a stupid likeness; in his landscapes, for, at last, he respects the teaching and example of Bonington and Constable, which long bore fruit only in the studios of Paris. For this improvement, to be sure, you need not look to the Academy, forced to open its doors to distinguished foreigners like Mr. Sargent and Mr. Abbey, forced to recognize

sculptors of the eminence of Mr. Gilbert and Mr. Ford. The Academy has never yet, until it could not help itself, extended its approbation or sympathy to the genuine movements, the vigorous pronouncements of the younger men. To its shame be it said, it has remained at a standstill, while the art of England has progressed. And since you cannot find the record of this progress within the Academy, it is the more to be regretted that the special exhibitions of Victorian art should prove no less unsuccessful. The record, rightly made, is one full of romance and interest and hope.

N. N.

A WOMAN STUDENT'S EXPERIENCE IN GERMAN UNIVERSITIES.

SCHLIERSEE, June 9, 1897.

Several years ago, just before my graduation from a small Western university, I was seized with a desire to make my doctor's degree in Germany. The advice of one of my professors, however, turned the scale in favor of at least one more year in America, and I accordingly went to a large Eastern university. Here I spent two years, made my doctor's examination, and, with a partially written dissertation whose completion required some research in the libraries of Germany, I sailed for Europe. During the past year my dissertation has been completed, so that my degree is conferred upon me this spring *in absentia*, and at the same time I have had the advantage of two semesters' study in the universities of Leipzig and Munich. For the benefit of woman students who may be meditating a similar course of study abroad, I relate some of the experiences of the past year.

From the articles which I had read from time to time in the *Nation*, as also in other periodicals, I judged that only persistent effort could secure an entrance into one of the universities less frequented by women. Knowing, however, the common report that a degree in Göttingen or Heidelberg is cheaper than in a first-rate American institution, I resolved rather to try one of the larger universities, which possessed an added charm for me in the shape of a most distinguished scholar in my own specialty. I came accordingly to Leipzig, where ladies are officially forbidden, sent my letter of introduction to the celebrated man at the head of the department in which I wished to study, and begged for an interview. A cordial note, inviting me to his office the next morning, came in reply.

I was received at the appointed time with great cordiality. After a brief conversation on neutral topics, I asked if I might hear his lectures. He answered smilingly in the affirmative. Emboldened by this, I begged permission to attend the Pro-seminar, which the German students likewise enter only by special permission. This was also granted. I had not ventured to apply for entrance to the Seminar, in which the most advanced work is done, but the professor introduced the subject himself. He said:

"I do not know whether you wish to enter the Seminar or not. You know that the manners of the students are rather informal in these meetings, and, if they chose, they could make it unpleasant for you. I will not myself take the responsibility of giving you permission to enter, but I will ask every member individually if he is willing that you should enter, and if all agree, then that is in a measure a pledge for their good behavior toward you."

I thanked him, and in a few days received word that the members were willing that I should enter. It was the first time that his Seminar had ever been visited by a lady. The manners were not those of a drawing-room, but never was there anything at which I could take offence.

But this was not all which the genial-hearted man did for me. There is a series of rooms in the university containing all reference-books for my especial subject, where the advanced students had each a seat and a drawer at the table, as well as a key for entrance. This institute, as it is called, the professor proposed without solicitation to open to me, a lady, for the first time in the history of the department. Here I studied the winter through, with all the books at my hand which I could wish, and which it would otherwise have cost me untold trouble and delay to procure. He also made it possible for me to draw books from the university and city libraries. In fact, his courtesy extended so far that he came under official displeasure. He was compelled to defend himself in the faculty meeting against the charge of undue partiality toward lady-students, and the institute was visited by a minister from the capital in order to see if it were true that ladies were studying in the institute. The minister came, fortunately, on Sunday, when I was absent. For three days I was in mortal terror of being driven out of my Eden, but then the storm passed, and I was peacefully allowed to continue. The trouble all came from an ill-advised article published in a semi-official organ. At Christmas three other ladies were also allowed to enter the institute; I remained, however, the only member of the Seminar.

All the other professors whom I heard were equally cordial, as far as I had any need to call upon them. For one course I was the only applicant, and yet the course was cheerfully given for me alone. One member of the teaching-body whom I grew to know quite well expressed himself frankly to me in regard to woman students:

"The first ones who came here were Russians," he said, "and they led such irregular lives that they have done inestimable damage to the cause of the woman student. The chief objection I have to urge against women now is that they are usually ill-prepared to do the work, and that they are irregular in attendance. No degree has ever been granted a woman here, but if one should present a good dissertation, she would undoubtedly be allowed to come up for her examination. They take dissertations which we would not accept to smaller universities and make their examination there."

I am ready to endorse everything in the above statement. Every girl who comes to the university out of mere curiosity injures the real woman student just so much. The other point which he emphasized, that they are often ill-prepared, is also true. It seems to me an advantage for every American student, man or woman, to make his doctor's examination in America. It is true that a doctor's degree from here is apt to weigh more in the eyes of the world than one from America; but from what I know of the work of students here, I judge that the requirements in a first-class American university are decidedly more stringent than here. When one knows exactly what he wants to study, and has his doctor's examination behind him, so that he is hampered by no required work in preparation for a degree, nothing can be more inspiring than the intercourse here with cultured men and the uninterrupted leisure for work in one's own field.

So much for Leipzig. At Christmas I made a flying trip to Munich to get help on some knotty points in my thesis, if possible, and here I took occasion to present a letter of introduction to one of the professors. He received me most kindly, gave me readily and largely of his time, hospitably opened his own home to me, and introduced me to every one who could possibly be of assistance to me. Before I left, he suggested that if I should care to study in Munich he would be pleased to assist me in entering. Early in the spring I wrote him begging his advice. He sent me an explicit reply, giving me all necessary directions as to how to address myself to the University, even suggesting that I use Latin script instead of German in my application, since I wrote Latin with a firmer hand! Had he not written so explicitly I confess that I should probably have made a botch of the whole matter. On my arrival I found myself the only lady student in the university, but there was nothing unpleasant in my position. The professors were evidently more afraid for me than I for myself. When I came into the room for my first lecture I was met by two students whom my principal professor had introduced to me at his own home, and found a seat reserved for me between them. At first one or the other of the professors quietly escorted me through the crowded halls after a lecture, but for the most part the students whom I met through the kindly interest of my professor formed my body-guard. Such precautions were, however, entirely unnecessary, for the German student is always courteous to an American or English girl. Through this same professor I received permission to study in the university library in the room devoted to the professors, so that I had all the advantages, as far as consulting and using books is concerned, of the professors themselves. The other professors were also as courteous as possible. In no case did I have to ask permission to take part in a Seminar, for, after a few questions as to my previous work, the permission was freely proffered to me. In two cases I gratefully accepted it.

As a significant evidence of the most distinguished courtesy with which I have been treated I offer the following: In one of the courses which I attend we are studying "King Lear," naturally, as the German method is, in an unexpurgated edition. In every case where a perilous passage was to be read I have been duly warned, and have quietly absented myself from the exercise. In Munich, as in Leipzig, no degree has ever been conferred upon a woman, but I am told that a good dissertation would undoubtedly be accepted here.

This is the plain, unvarnished tale of my experience in German universities. If it shall incite any really earnest and mature woman student, who comes not to flirt and not merely to learn the language, to visit the larger German institutions, the good wishes of the writer go with her. She will assuredly be met more than half-way by every German professor.

ANNA MAUDE BOWEN.

THE SCHOOLS OF ARCHÆOLOGY AT ATHENS.—I.

THE FRENCH SCHOOL OF ARCHÆOLOGY.*

The fiftieth anniversary of the founding of the French School of Archæology at Athens was to have been celebrated in April, 1897, with great pomp and circumstance. Arrangements had been made for the holding of an Archæological Congress to which the archæologists of the entire world were invited. The meetings of the congress were to extend over three days, during which the ways and means of promoting the interests of the science of classical archæology in the field and in the library were to be discussed by the most distinguished specialists. The invited guests and the Athenian world were to be entertained by the production of the "Oedipus Tyrannus" in the theatre of Dionysos, on the ground where it was first listened to by immortal men in those mighty days of Greece's distant past. The actors of the celebrated Théâtre Français, with Mounet-Sully in the rôle of *Oedipus*, were to be imported to Athens for the occasion, and those of us who were so fortunate as to be living in Athens this year were looking forward with eagerness to this unique festival as the soul's opportunity of a lifetime. But our hopes have been blasted, for the war troubles intervened, and the celebration of the festival has been postponed until next September, when, it is assumed, the war will be over. But who is Teiresias enough to see so far into the future through the fog and din of battle?

Perhaps few Americans have even heard of the French School at Athens, and fewer still have any conception of the great services which it has rendered to the science of archæology, to our knowledge of the history of the past, to belles-lettres and literature in general, and to the renaissance and development of Greek studies in France. And when I say France I mean the world; not that France is the world, but because the benefits arising from an epoch-making idea are never confined to the immediate country in which the idea was conceived. A great idea is never long-time endemic; it is so contagious, indeed, that in brief space the whole world is contaminated thereby for the good of mankind. The French have led the way at Athens, and other nations, awakened tardily to a sense of the far-reaching educational importance of the step, have gradually followed the guidance of France, until now we have four schools—French, German, American, and English—in successful operation at Athens. Besides this, Austria has a preliminary school at Athens—Archæological Mission it is called—and Italy, Belgium, and even Greece herself are endeavoring to follow suit.

On August 25, 1846, Sainte-Beuve wrote in the *Journal des Débats* of Salvandy's project of establishing a regular connection between the University of France and the recently born kingdom of Greece. On September 11, 1846, Louis-Philippe signed and Salvandy countersigned an order establishing at Athens "une école française de perfectionnement pour l'étude de la langue, de l'histoire et des antiquités grecques." Only graduates of the Normal School were to be admitted to membership in the School at Athens, where they were to pass at least two years. Upon their return to France the young men were allowed to give free public courses along the lines of their studies while on Greek soil. But in 1850 the School was thrown open to graduates of other schools, though in the main the students have come from the Normal School. The School was formally opened in 1847 with seven students in attendance. Daveluy, the first director, held the post for twenty years. In 1867 he was succeeded by Burnouf, who was followed by Dumont in 1874; in 1878 Foucart became the Director, to be succeeded in 1890 by Homolle, the present distinguished and efficient director.

The document creating the School at Athens gave no instructions with reference to its organization and equipment, nor was anything said about the work to be done by the members of the School. As yet it was but an embryo. The School as it exists to-day is the result of a gradual growth, and resembles but slightly the institution as planned by Salvandy, Sainte-Beuve, and their associates. They builded well, though they had in mind chiefly the pursuit of philological studies; their chief object was to make it possible for chosen young men of France to make a profound study of the Greek language in all its phases, both ancient and modern, for at that time the science of archæology was in its infancy and did not occupy the proud position which it does to-day among the peoples of two hemispheres. It does not surprise us, then, to know that at the outset a professorship of modern Greek was established and maintained for years, and in order to compel mastery and fluency in modern Greek, the students of the School gave courses in Latin and French, using modern Greek as the language of instruction. These courses in modern Greek, Latin, and French were continued for nearly thirty years, being abandoned only in the reorganization of the School in 1874.

At first neither director nor students had any adequate conception of the proper work to which to devote their energies, for since no similar institution existed anywhere, only time and experience could clear away the clouds of perplexity, reveal the School's proper field of action, and define the lines along which the institution was to achieve success and fame. Salvandy, indeed, created the School, but it was Parieu, in his capacity of minister, who gave it its first serious organization, for in 1850 he required the students to send home each year for publication a paper on some archæological, philological, or historical question, and above all he placed the School under the direction of the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-lettres. The Academy accepted the responsibility, and appointed from its members Raoul-Rochette, Hase, Lebas, Ch. Lenormant, Guigniaut, and Guizot to reorganize the School and to determine the lines along which it was to be conducted in the future. This committee proposed a plan of studies that were to cover two years. The first year was preparatory, in that it was devoted to the study of modern Greek, of the topography of Athens, of archæology, and to the reading of the ancient geographers and historians. The study of modern Greek was strongly insisted upon; special attention was to be devoted to provincial and local dialects, to the nomenclature of things belonging to the animal, vegetable, and mineral kingdoms, to the names of objects of industry, and to names of places; the study of the Albanian language was to be pursued, occasion for such study being offered by the numerous Albanian settlements throughout the kingdom of Greece. The second year was to be devoted to special investigations in the realms of history, literature, mythology, archæology, or topography. In case the students were appointed for a third year in Greece they were required to conduct special explorations. But while the Academy thus mapped out a course of study for the students, the course was not an obligatory regulation, but was intended rather as expert advice, and the students were exempted from pursuing it in case they had already fixed upon a plan of work more in accordance with their special gifts and attainments. The greatest latitude was thus given for the development of individual genius. The committee suggested for the first labors of the School the exploration of the islands of Patmos and Eubœa, a study of the Acropolis of Athens, and one on the myth of Trophonius.

In 1850 Napoleon, Prince-President, signed a degree giving the School the organization suggested by the committee of the Academy, and requiring that appointments to membership in the School be made only after the candidates had shown themselves able to stand a special examination which, it would seem, had precious little to do with archæology. Up to this time the School had been supported from the resources of the Missions Scientifiques, but from 1851 onwards it has occupied a regular place in the budget of France. In 1852 the excavation by Beulé—one of the earliest graduates of the School—of the gateway leading to the Acropolis attracted the attention of the world, and rightly too, for, in spite of Beulé's errors, the excavations marked an epoch in the history of archæology, and gave a deserved and lasting reputation to the French School.

In 1859 the School was reorganized again, at least in so far that it was divided into three sections: that of letters, that of the sciences, and that of the fine arts. The scientific section was to devote itself to a study of the natural resources of Greece. In this reorganization the students were required to spend three months in Italy before proceeding to Greece—a regulation intended to serve as an introduction to the great world of antiquity and its treasures of art. This regulation continued in force until 1873, when the period of sojourn in Italy was changed from three months to one whole year. In 1873, also, a school of archæology, preparatory to the School at Athens, was organized in Rome; this was the forerunner of the present French School at Rome, which was established in 1875. As time went on, the committee of the Academy took note of various defects and of possible improvements in the working of the school at Athens, and in 1874 M. de Cumont, then Minister, ordered a complete reorganization, which has proved satisfactory under the test of experience, for it continues in full force to this day. As before, the School was placed under the direction of the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-lettres, which appointed from its membership a committee empowered to report annually on the work done by the students, to note the progress made, to suggest im-

*I am indebted to the pamphlet "L'Ecole Française d'Athènes," by Adolf de Ceuleneer, Ghent, 1880, for most of the facts contained in this article.

provements, and to fix upon the work of investigation or exploration to be undertaken by members of the School. In this reorganization the director was required to make frequent reports to the Academy; so frequent, indeed, that, at the weekly meetings of the Academy, a report from either the Athenian or Roman director is read, perhaps from both. In these reports the most recent discoveries in the various fields of archæology are announced in rough outline. The director is appointed by the President of France, to whom the Academy and the Ministry of Public Instruction present each a list of names, from which choice must be made. The director's term of office is for six years, but he may be reappointed, as has just happened in the case of M. Homolle. He directs the work of the students, and, because of his local knowledge, gives them all kinds of suggestions as to the ways and means of pursuing their work in such a manner as to lose the least possible time in floundering helplessly and aimlessly.

The work done in the School is similar in method to that done in the Seminar of a German university, although in quality and value it is greatly superior to that of the German Seminar. The candidates for membership in the School must be under thirty years of age, they must be holders of diplomas of Docteur ès lettres or Agrégé de lettres, and they must stand successfully an examination set by a committee of seven appointed by the Minister of Instruction. This examination includes ancient and modern Greek, the elements of epigraphy, palæography, and archæology, and the history and geography of ancient Greece and Italy. Singularly enough, philology and Greek antiquities are excluded from this examination. On the basis of the report of the committee of seven, the Minister annually appoints six members to the School. The successful candidates are required to spend one year in Italy and two in Greece. During the entire three years they are allowed but one leave of absence, of two months, a brief period which may be spent in France or outside of Greek lands. The students receive a salary of 3,600 francs, or $720 a year; besides this, their travelling expenses are paid both ways, as well as all expenses incurred on journeys undertaken in behalf of the School in Greece, Asia Minor, or the Islands. They are lodged free of all expense in the School building, but have to pay the expenses of their own cuisine. Each student chooses the line of work for which he conceives himself best equipped, whether epigraphy, general archæology, or the dialects of modern Greek.

Until 1872 the French Government rented for the use of the School the large building which has since become well known to all travellers as the Hôtel de la Grande Bretagne. In this year began the construction of the School's own palace on ground given by the Greek Government. This building consists of two separate houses connected by the library, which not only is stocked with everything that relates to classical archæology and history, but also includes much that belongs in the domain of pure literature. This is a wise measure, and goes far to prevent too much development along the lines approved by the fiddler-crab. Strangers approved by the Director have access to the library. For a portion of the winter, fortnightly meetings are held in the library for the reading of papers by the Director and members of the School. These meetings were private until the advent of M. Homolle as Director, when they were thrown open to the public. The students must remain in Athens or its vicinity during the winter, engaged in working up for publication the results of former undertakings, or else in preparing themselves for the work of the coming summer, when expeditions of exploration in Greece and Asia Minor are made by the students in groups of two each, on the principle that two pair of eyes are better than one. These expeditions have been most fruitful of results, as the many monographs of the School and the numerous articles in the *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique* will show conclusively even to the layman, although, as might be expected from inexperienced travellers, some of the work done has not been well done. After completing his third year—that is, his second year in Athens—a student may be and often is intrusted with the conduct of excavations; in that case, however, he is, strictly speaking, no longer a student of the School, but a *chargé d'une mission scientifique*. This was the status of Beulé when he excavated the gateway of the Acropolis, of Homolle at the excavations of Delos, of Reinach and Pottier at Myrina. Or again, after the completion of their third year the students may be intrusted with important archæological missions, such as that of Heuzey in Thessaly, Macedonia, and Epirus, or that of Perrot in Galatia and Bithynia. All these men first gained a name and lasting fame in this way.

Sometimes, too, wealthy men empower the graduates of the School to conduct important excavations, such as those of Miletus by Rayet and Thomas, for which the Rothschilds furnished the money. In the present organization of the School the courses that were so much insisted upon during the first decade of the existence of the institution are conspicuously absent. No courses are given, notwithstanding the fact that courses, for instance, in epigraphy and archaic art in the presence of the monuments themselves might be fruitful of results. But there is danger of robbing the student of his time, and experience has proved that compulsory courses for men who have found themselves and their work are deterrent and distracting rather than advantageous. The papers read at the fortnightly meetings were published during the year 1876 (when these meetings were established by Dumont) in the *Revue Archéologique*, but already in 1877 the School found it necessary to establish its own special periodical, the *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique*, which has been published regularly ever since. The *Bulletin* has long been indispensable to every archæologist, and grows more important with each year.

The influence of the School upon Greek studies in France and in the world has been tremendous. Surely we might expect such a result when we know that the School has trained such men as Benoît, Bertrand, About, Lacroix, Beulé, Burnouf, Lévêque, Girard, Henriot, Mézières, Guerin, De la Coulniche, Fustel de Coulanges, Foucart, Wescher, Barbier, Heuzey, Perrot, Boutan, Bazin, Terrier, Deville, Dumont, Rayet, Pottier, Martha, Dubois, Beaudouin, Riemann, Collignon, Haussonville, Haussoullier, Homolle, Holleaux, Paris, Duchesne, Radet, Reinach, Clerc, Cousin, Diehl, Durrbach, Hauvette-Besnault, and many others of almost equal name and fame. To enumerate the multitude of scientific works by former members of the School would lead us too far a-field, but suffice it to say that the whole world rings with their deeds—deeds that would never have been accomplished but for the School at Athens. Upon their return to France all the students occupy exalted positions, whether as professors in universities and colleges, as directors of museums, or otherwise in connection with the educational system of their country.

The excavations of Grecian sites undertaken by the School have been of first-rate importance. I have already mentioned those of Beulé as epoch-making, but other excavations have been of far greater scientific importance, such as Delos, Delphi, the temple of Apollo Ptoïos near Akraephiæ, Samos, Myrina, the sanctuary of the Muses at the foot of Mt. Helicon, Miletus, Mantinea, Tegea, Troezen, Amorgos, Elatea, Lagina, Thespiæ, and other places. At present the School is still engaged in the excavation of Delphi, where the finds have been of monumental importance, and have stirred profoundly the entire civilized world.

J. R. S. Sterrett.

Correspondence.

PLAGIARISM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Dryden wrote of Ben Jonson, the splendid plagiarist,

"But Ben made nobly his what he did mould;
What was another's lead became his gold."

A striking illustration of this has never been pointed out, so far as I know. Johnson's noble and in parts beautiful "Ode to the immortal memory and friendship of that noble pair, Sir Lucius Cary and Sir Henry Morison," is based on one of Seneca's Letters (the 93d); but the nobleness and the beauty are Jonson's own. Nowhere is his power of transmutation better manifested.

It is worth while to read the poetry and prose one after the other:

"For what is life if measured by the space,
Not by the act?
Or maskèd man, if valued by his face,
Above his fact?
Here's one out-lived his peers,
And told forth fourscore years;
He vexèd time, and busied the whole state;
Troubled both foes and friends;
But ever to no ends;
What did this stirrer but die late?
How well at twenty had he fallen or stood!
For three of his fourscore he did no good."

"Quid illum octoginta anni juvant per inertiam exacti? Non vixit iste, sed in vita moratus est; nec sero mortuus est, sed diu. Octoginta annis vixit! Interest, mortem ejus ex quo die numeres."

"Alas! but Morison fell young:
He never fell—thou fall'st, my tongue.
He stood a soldier till the last right end,
A perfect patriot and a noble friend;
But most a virtuous son,
All offices were done
By him so ample, full and round,
In weight, in measure, number, sound.
As though his age imperfect might appear,
His life was of humanity the sphere."

"At ille obiit viridis! Sed officia boni civis, boni amici, boni filii exsecutus est; in nulla parte cessavit. Licet ejus ætas imperfecta sit, vita perfecta est."

"It is not growing like a tree
In bulk doth make men better be;
Or standing long an oak, three hundred year,
To fall a log at last, dry, bald, and sere."

"Octoginta annis vixit! Imo octoginta

annis fuit! nisi forte sic vixisse eum dicis, quomodo dicuntur arbores vivere."

But now comes the "Elizabethan" touch, a conception, a loveliness of phrase, infinitely remote from any Roman thought:

"A lily of a day
Is fairer far in May,
Although it fall and die that night;
It was the plant and flower of light."

Those lines could have come only from the exquisite poet that Jonson was when he wrote, elsewhere:

"Have you seen but a bright lily grow
Before rude hands have touched it?
Have you marked but the fall of the snow
Before the soil hath smutched it?"

In the last lines of this verse of the ode Jonson recurs to the ancient note:

"In small proportions we just beauties see;
And in short measures life may perfect be."

"Quemadmodum in minore corporis habitu potest homo esse perfectus, sic et in minore temporis modo potest vita esse perfecta."

It may be observed that these *suggested* verses are by far the finest in the Ode—here, as constantly, it was "buried men's thinking" that gave vigor to Ben Jonson's mind; yet none the less Mr. Lowell was in the right when he said "that a thought's his who kindles new youth in it or so puts it as to make it more true"; adding:

"And we men through our bit of old song run,
Until one just improves on the rest,
And we call a thing his, in the long run,
Who utters it clearest and best."

G. N.

"I DON'T THINK."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A number of my students, I find, are under the impression that "I don't think," in such sentences as "I don't think so," "I don't think that is true," is not very good English. Asked what is wrong with the expression, they reply, in one unvarying formula: "If I *do* think, I mustn't say I *don't* think." I am at a loss to account for this prejudice against a harmless, necessary idiom. Possibly some of their teachers have confused the proper use with the slang use, as in "He will get there, I don't think" (sometimes abbreviated to "I d. t."), or with the ungrammatical use, as in "He isn't handsome, I don't think." Will not "F. H." kindly open his portfolio and tell us the names of the notabilities and obscurities who, since the Norman Conquest, have written "I don't think"?

"Shakespeare was of us,"

for in "Much Ado about Nothing" he made *Benedick* say, "When I said I would die a bachelor, I did not think I should live till I was married." Did *Benedick* mean that he ceased to think?

I will add that in *Notes and Queries*, Ser. vii., vol. 6, p. 131, a writer who calls himself "Hermentrude," says that the sentence, "This plant will grow, don't you think?" should be corrected to read, "Don't you think this plant will grow?"

Another prejudice, as yet unexplained, psychologically, is that directed against the expression "at all," in such sentences as "I perceived nothing at all." To any one who is interested in such matters I shall be glad to send a circular of inquiry containing the questions I want answered with reference to these expressions. F. N. Scott.

University of Michigan, June 21, 1897.

[Dr. Fitzedward Hall has already said the last word about *at all* in No. 1497 of the *Nation* (Vol. 58, p. 175).—Ed. Nation.]

BY AND LARGE.

To the Editor of The Evening Post:

Sir: Observing the discussion of *by*, in notes of "F. H." and others, I was hoping to learn the origin of *by and large*, equivalent to the commoner phrase, *on the whole*, as if viewing a matter near (*i. e.*, *by*) and at a distance (large) or widely. Living where I hear many dialects, I have heard this perhaps for forty years, but never from a man of Southern speech. Bartlett ('Dict. Americanisms') gives two examples, undated, both Northern. I first noticed it in print about 1865, in *Hearth and Home*, ii., 164. It has a Northumbrian or Scotch sound. Jamieson gives *Far-hie-an-atour*, from Aberdeenshire, as meaning at a considerable distance; this phrase one may match with an unusual expression in the *Nation*, No. 1654, p. 188, col. 3, "Prof. Powell . . . is *far and away* the principal Icelandic scholar in England." Is that Scotch? Samuel Willard.

Chicago, June 24, 1897.

[The Oxford Dictionary takes notice of both these expressions, but of the first only in its (presumably) original sense of sailing to and off the wind (1627). "Far (and) away" it regards as a mere intensive of *far;* but the only citation is late (1883).—Ed. Nation.]

GERMANS IN THE TURKISH ARMY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read with much interest the letter from Paris on "The German Emperor and the Porte," in the *Nation* of June 24. It seems to me to furnish the key to the situation. In the late unfortunate war between Greece and Turkey, Germany has played no unimportant part. German officers have been sent to Constantinople to instruct the Turks in the most approved methods of modern warfare. Baron von Brockdorff (or Brockdorff Pasha, as he is now styled) is at the head of the Turkish cavalry. He is a nephew of the late Count von Moltke, and did good service in the Franco-Prussian war, having received the decoration of the Iron Cross. A few years ago he was in this country, occupying the position of Professor of Modern Languages in the Maryland Agricultural College. I was intimately associated with him for about four years, and know him to be a brave man.

Respectfully yours, Wm. D. Morgan.

Brooklyn, N. Y., June 26, 1897.

Notes.

Mr. Frederic Lawrence Knowles, himself a promising verse-writer, has compiled and edited for L. C. Page & Co., Boston, a 'Golden Treasury of American Songs and Lyrics,' to be published in the autumn. Free access has been obtained to the entire range.

Two volumes of 'Specimens of the Pre-Shaksperian Drama,' by Prof. John Matthews Manly of Brown University, are in preparation by Ginn & Co.

Townsend MacCoun, No. 126 Fifth Avenue, New York, promises in September 'The Holy Land in Geography and in History,' with 154 full-page maps and charts, in two 16mo volumes.

In the course of the present year, *Bradstreet's* will bring out a 'Cyclopædia of Fraternities,' Masonic and other, by Albert C. Stevens.

Bonnell, Silver & Co. will soon issue 'Across the Country of the Little King: A Trip through Spain,' by William Bement Lent, and 'The Sacrifice of a Throne,' being an account of the life of Amadeus, Duke of Aosta, by H. Remsen Whitehouse.

William Briggs, Toronto, has just ready 'Louisbourg in 1745,' being a letter of a French inhabitant of that stronghold written during the siege. It is edited and translated by Prof. George M. Wrong of the University of Toronto. Parkman has used the document.

As was inevitable, Gen. Horace Porter's articles in the *Century* on "Campaigning with Grant" are the forerunner of a subscription book to appear in the autumn.

The serial entitled "The Workers," "an experiment in reality" (or, more lucidly, in studying the working classes by earning one's living as one of them), by Walter A. Wyckoff, which begins in the August *Scribner's*, is designed for ultimate publication in book form as a contribution to sociology.

We understand that an American imprint is likely to be secured for G. E. Weare's 'Cabot's Discovery of America,' just published in London by John Macqueen, with numerous maps and interesting illustrations.

The Appalachian Mountain Club was well advised in selecting Mr. Edwin M. Bacon, author of the standard 'Dictionary of Boston,' to prepare 'Walks and Drives in the Country Round About Boston' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). This is a compact little volume, not too large for the side-pocket of a coat, with small print, yet very legible and attractive, interspersed with cuts (or, more properly, pen sketches), and equipped with four detached folding-maps of Boston and its environments on the N. E., N. W., S. E., and S. W. These maps are based on the State and United States Geologic Survey contour maps, on a scale of nearly a mile to an inch. The territory embraced by Mr. Bacon is substantially the metropolitan district, or the so-called Boston basin. His tours begin in the northeast and swing round against the hands of the watch, and stretch a point to take in Lexington and Concord, thence passing on to the shore at Quincy. Mr. Bacon's discourse is as agreeable as it is literate and knowing, and his guide-book is just the companion which the growing park system of Boston called for. There is a good index.

Lemcke & Buechner send us the second edition of the indefatigable Joseph Kürschner's 'Staats-, Hof- und Kommunal-Handbuch des Reichs und der Eingelstaaten,' with eighteen portraits of dignitaries, half of them Bürgermeister. The Handbook opens with a monthly chronicle of events of 1896, followed by a list of memorable days in 1897; and then we have the orderly exposition of the Empire, its princely rulers, the federal States, the diplomatic body, the fighting land power and sea power, judiciary, railroads, post-offices and telegraphs, public instruction, finances, trade, etc., and a statistical annual, winding up with a brief view of the principal non-German countries the world over. It is needless to say that

this compilation is a valuable supplement to all other existing manuals in the same field. In the matter of official personnel it is astonishingly full. The various sections are conspicuously divided off by red leaves. Delay has ensued from an endeavor to make the utmost possible use of the last census, which, it appears, is far from being wholly available.

Two editions of the Greater New York Charter have been published, one by Baker, Voorhis & Co. of this city, the other by the Weed-Parsons Printing Company of Albany. The latter is annotated by Mr. Mark Ash, whose work on the old Consolidation Act was, no doubt, the reason for his selection as the editor of this volume of 1,251 pages. His notes indicate the original statutes from which so much of the present charter is taken, and refer to judicial decisions, besides giving in a variety of appendices a quantity of other correlated information. Both volumes contain the colonial charters. Baker, Voorhis & Co.'s volume is annotated by Mr. C. F. Birdseye, well known as a competent workman in this field. It contains 887 pages; as the page in this volume contains a much larger number of words than that in Mr. Ash's, it is very difficult to compare the bulk of the annotations. There is no table of cases in either.

Helps to the study of Greek pottery multiply apace. Now that the catalogue of the British Museum vases is three-fourths completed, the treasures of the Louvre collection are beginning to be adequately published. Thanks to subventions from the French Ministry of Public Instruction and the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-lettres, M. E. Pottier is able to supplement his recently published small catalogue of the ancient vases of the Louvre by a sumptuous album, of which the first part is now before us ('Vases Antiques du Louvre,' Hachette & Cie.). Two additional parts are to follow. This first instalment is devoted to the early Greek and Italian vases down to about the sixth century B. C. The work is somewhat novel in character. In the first place, it is more liberally illustrated than any other museum-catalogue of vases that we have yet seen, upwards of three hundred vases being here reproduced, most of them by the half-tone process, and all, we believe, for the first time. In the second place, the text is not a complete catalogue of the collection in the Louvre, but is limited to those specimens which have been published either in the accompanying plates or elsewhere. This is doubtless a wise restriction, at least for those who are to use the book away from Paris. It hardly needs to be said that this admirable work will be of inestimable value to the student of early Greek ceramics. We shall await with eager interest the appearance of the next part, which will deal with the most beautiful and most interesting products of the Greek potter's art.

The Fourteenth Annual Report of the United States Bureau of Ethnology (for 1892-'93) is largely devoted to Mr. James Mooney's monograph of the Ghost Dance Religion, separately bound as a royal octavo volume. The ostensible date of 1896 on the title-page is wrong, as so frequently is the case with Government publications, the work having first appeared in May or June of 1897. It is mainly devoted to the Sioux outbreak of 1890, and is particularly full on the affair of Wounded Knee of December 15, when the notorious Sitting Bull was killed. The religious excitement of that year had far-reaching consequences, involving most of the area of the United States west of the Mississippi, cost many lives, and is still fresh in the public mind; but its full significance could hardly be grasped by one unfamiliar with Mr. Mooney's exhaustive studies of the event in all its bearings. We may not care much for the songs, rituals, and ceremonies which are here detailed at great length, not only in case of the Sioux, but also of the Arapahoes, Cheyennes, Kiowas, Comanches, Caddoes, Paiutes, and other leading tribes, together with their tribal synonymy, signs, history, and other matters of ethnic interest, according to the liberally comprehensive method of the Bureau; but no one can fail to be struck with the importance of the general bearing of the subject, when Mr. Mooney draws his philosophical parallels with other systems of religious fanaticism. They are all of a part, in their main ingredients of priestcraft and superstition, with a strong spice of hypnotism. They are very real and true factors of human nature, presenting problems of the highest importance to students of rational psychology. The work is very fully and handsomely illustrated. Space is lacking to do more than mention Part I., issued about the same time, consisting mainly of Dr. W. J. Hoffman's monograph of the Menomini Indians, and of Mr. G. P. Winship's critical study of Coronado's expedition of 1540-'42, in the light of some new documentary evidence. The whole Report is, of course, indispensable to ethnologists.

"A Bibliography of the Higher Education of Women," compiled by a committee of collegiate alumnæ, is the latest publication of the Boston Public Library. It is a pamphlet of forty-two pages, including an author index, and contains a list of about fifteen hundred titles, some of which are annotated, arranged under eight different heads. These are: General and historical, higher education in relation to health, coeducation, professional and scientific education, post-graduate study, occupations and opportunities for college-bred women, colleges and universities wholly or partly open to women (with their publications on this subject), and societies for the education or advancement of women. The editor is Miss Mary H. Rollins, and most of the works are to be found in the Library.

The annual report of the same institution for 1896 shows a gratifying increase in its collections and in their use. The library contained on January 31, 1897, 663,763 volumes, of which 492,901 are in the central library, an increase of 33,468, the gifts being 9,467. The cost of the building thus far has been $2,279,373.72, and the annual appropriation by the city is $225,000, of which $25,000 only is for books. The efficient administration of the library, however, demands a much larger sum. The report of the examining committee closes with the pertinent suggestion that a change be wrought in that body so as "to make it a seriously useful help in the administration of the library." This might be accomplished by making it more permanent, a part only retiring each year, "in which case, perhaps, such a board should not be appointed by the trustees and directed to report to them."

Volume xxiv. of the Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Japan contains much rich material relating especially to the extremities of the empire. Basil Hall Chamberlain contributes a bibliography of Japanese and Chinese writings on the Luchu Islands, the Rev. John Batchelor a suggestive study of Ainu words which reveal the mind and feelings of these primitive men, and Mr. James W. Davidson reviews the history of Formosa and the life of Koxinga. Prof. E. W. Clement has an interesting paper on Chinese Refugees of the Seventeenth Century in Mito. The influence of Greco-Persian Art on Japanese Arts is discussed by the Rev. Isaac Dooman, in which he shows the great quickening of the native intellect and hand through Buddhism, the product of the Aryan mind. The Rev. Arthur Lloyd pictures life in an old native inn, and Prof. Garrett Droppers writes of Economic Theories in Old Japan. In the main, these papers show the great debt which Japan, in common with other nations of power and promise, owes to external influences. The Society is in a flourishing condition. Sir Ernest Satow is President, and Prof. E. W. Clement of Tokyo is Secretary.

Anent the higher education of young women in France, the Vicomtesse d'Adhémar writes, in a recent number of the *Revue de l'Institut Catholique* (quoted in the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* for May): "Christians who do not separate instruction from education, and, consequently, from those religious principles which give to instruction its true educative value, . . . cannot avail themselves of higher, university teaching. This is a very great misfortune; for all those noble elements of progress, instead of helping us, are used against us, and the position of Christian women, in matters of higher learning, is very critical, since the State alone can at present furnish to women that higher instruction which it has established as a custom, by which we cannot profit without betraying our principles, and which we must nevertheless seek lest we show a fatal inferiority." As a counterpoise to the growing influence of State lyceums and colleges for girls, the Catholic Institute has this year opened courses of six lectures each on philosophy, political economy, physical geography, literature, recent scientific discoveries, and several other subjects, and there is some prospect that Catholic institutions for the training of female teachers of a superior class for secondary schools may be founded.

That a contributor to a conservative review should criticise the management of educational affairs in France is natural enough. But it is less easy to understand why M. Maurice Talmeyr, in his article in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for June 1, should find it necessary to insult a whole class of his countrywomen as respectable as the French schoolmistresses as a body unquestionably are. The anecdote of a dancing girl at the Jardin de Paris, waving her *brevet supérieur* at the end of her foot while pirouetting before a gazing multitude, seems to us an unfortunate illustration of an existing evil. It is the tone of the article we deprecate, not its tenor; if the crowded condition of a career is sure to bring disappointment to thousands of candidates, it is well that a warning voice should make itself heard.

The translation and abridgment of a story by another Polish woman which has lately appeared in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* from the pen of Mme. Marguerite Poradowska, ought to have the effect of calling attention to two novels of her own which are of very unusual merit. One of them, 'Demoiselle Micia,' was crowned by the French Academy, and it is beyond doubt a masterpiece

which richly deserved that distinction. It has the apparent slightness of structure of the things of Turgeneff, but it has also a more than ordinary share of his artistic perfection. To translate it would be a good deed.

Korea has now reached that happy state in which, for a while at least, she has no history—by telegram. Private letters and periodicals from Seoul tell of quiet progress. On May 1 Mr. H. B. Hulbert, late manager of the *Korean Repository*, after ten years' experience in the country as teacher, engaged himself for five years to the Government, to establish schools, prepare textbooks in the vernacular, and in other ways forward a national system of education. The *Repository*, edited by Messrs. Jones and Appenzeller, continues its monthly issue of scholarly historical, literary, and contemporary illustrations of Korea and its people. The *Independent*, hitherto printed tri-weekly in English and Korean, edited and published by Dr. Philip Jaisohn, a native Korean, is now issued wholly in English. A glance at the file from April 7, 1896, to May 1, 1897, shows creditable editorial writing, admirable condensation of news, and a keen sense of the needs of the once Hermit Kingdom. It is to be hoped that "the freedom of the press" will not be either abused or curtailed in Cho-sen, for the good influence of this "only English newspaper in Korea" is beyond a question.

Two works reviewed in our last issue, Anderson's 'Architecture of the Renaissance in Italy' and Greene's 'Corporation Finance,' should have been credited to Charles Scribner's Sons and G. P. Putnam's Sons, respectively.

—The proposition to put a duty on white pine gives a timely interest to Dr. Robert Bell's article on the geographical distribution of forest trees in Canada in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for June. It embodies the results of his personal observations for the past forty years, in each of which he has been engaged in exploring one part or another of the Dominion, and is in illustration of a map showing the boundaries of some thirty of the principal trees east of the Rocky Mountains. Of the 340 species known to be indigenous to the United States—"a forest wealth which is perhaps unequalled in any other region on the globe"—123 grow in Canada. One only, the Banksian pine, belongs almost wholly to Canada, a few specimens being found on the southern shore of Lake Superior and in Minnesota. Dr. Bell's observations lead him to believe that while the verge of the forest is retreating southward, both in North America and Asia, some species, as the black walnut, appear to be advancing farther north, as if they "had not yet had sufficient time to occupy all the territory congenial to their existence." The great northern forest which stretches from the Strait of Belle Isle to Alaska, a distance of about 4,000 miles, with a breadth of some 700 miles, consists of small trees and essentially of nine species. The statement that forest fires are natural phenomena, mostly due to lightning, leads Dr. Bell to a fine description of one. A curious result of these fires, to which he does not attribute the treeless condition of the plains and prairies, is the propagation of the Banksian pine, for which fire is a necessity. Its knotty cones are not deciduous, but stick to the tree as long as it lasts; but when the fire attacks it, "the cones immediately open, and the seeds become scattered far and wide by the wind." This article is followed by an interesting account of the market fishes and marine commercial products of Australia, by W. Savile-Kent, the commissioner of fisheries, in which he describes some successful experiments in introducing English varieties and in the artificial culture of mother-of-pearl shell. He adds another to the number of Australian anomalies, the fact that the Murray cod "most commonly deposits its eggs . . . in the hollow trunks of submerged eucalyptus trees," the spawning season occurring "when the floods are out."

—M. Constantine Balmont gave on June 4 his inaugural Ilchester lecture at the Taylorian Institution in Oxford. His subject was "Modern Lyric Poetry in Russia." Speaking of himself as representing what is a common experience among Russians of the present day who care for literature, he confessed that at the age of seven he first learned from 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' that there is suffering in this world of ours. From 'Robinson Crusoe' and 'Gulliver's Travels,' read in abridged translations, came the first hold of literature upon him. Zhukovsky's translations of English ballads, Dickens's novels, and Byron's poems came later, while with Shakspere's dramas the mental growth of his youth and manhood was inextricably associated. English poetry charms the Russian mind, he declared, not with the frigid compulsion of strangeness, nor yet with the mere power of superiority. Dante, for instance, in spite of superiority, has, he declared, no Russian readers. Shelley, in describing himself as "meek and bold," described equally well the common temperament of Russians and Anglo-Saxons. They have the inflexibility of a home-keeping, home-loving conqueror, fond of peaceful dreams and amenable to the gentle splendors of the sunset. Gogol, Pushkin, and Dostoievsky, most brilliant and original among all great Russian writers, have unmistakable English affinities, but admit of no telling literary comparison with writers of any other nationality. Gogol's humor pairs him with Swift or with Dickens. Pushkin at times is Byronic, at other times, though from far, he consorts with Shakspere. Dostoievsky's affinities are with Dickens, perhaps, but certainly with Poe, the author of "The Tell-tale Heart." Zhukovsky, Pushkin, and Lermontoff created the literary language of Russian lyric poetry. Zhukovsky, a type of passivity and gentleness of soul, responded to all influences to which nature made him sensitive, with a readiness little short of the miraculous. Bürger, Uhland, and Schiller he translated, but came closest to English romanticism and interpreted Southey, Scott, and Moore for his compatriots. His translations are stamped with an originality quite his own. His poetry is bathed in a glimmering light as of the moon, where we discern phantoms and hear uncertain sounds dying away. His subjects reappear with a marked difference of treatment in the most modern Russian lyrics. Pushkin was no translator, but, like his hero, Peter the Great, a creator. In him was the quintessence of youth, the springtide, naïveté, and unessayed vigor of a new race. Everything he saw was new, and each contact with the world awoke a swarm of thoughts, feelings, and notes untried. Lermontoff had even closer English affinities than Pushkin, and no wonder, since he was of Scotch descent. He was Byron's double, not his disciple, but his brother. His world misconceived him and left him to eat out his heart alone.

—After this introduction, M. Balmont turned to the typical lyric poets of modern Russia, Tiutsheff and Fet (the dominating pseudonym of A. A. Shenshin). As men, Pushkin and Lermontoff stand out in complete contrast over against the two modern lyric poets. Tiutsheff and Fet lived every-day lives and died as patriarchs, died "old men, and full of years." Pushkin and Lermontoff, on the contrary, were alike in suffering proscription and exile. Both lived in the mountains of the Caucasus, each died prematurely in a duel; Pushkin did not reach his fortieth, Lermontoff did not reach his thirtieth year; neither of them lived to have a glimpse even of the true answer to the riddle of life. Both chose similarly special and tragical themes in song. In the works of neither lurks the mystery of things; they are romantic only in their choice of subjects, in their workmanship they are realists. They go beyond their own experience for their subjects, and reproduce nature, in detail and in the concrete, just as it strikes the eye. They are far from divining any underlying and all-embracing truth. The opposite holds of Tiutsheff and Fet, the two masters who have introduced into Russian literature what M. Balmont qualifies as psychological poetry. They give us no heroics, and their subjects mirror nothing more out of the way than the varying moods of the soul. Their poetry is intimate and mysteriously suggestive. They give us glimpses into the remoter depths of human personality, and nature in their poems does not figure as a *mise en scène*, it lives with the breath of its own being. To test this contrast, the lecturer asked, How do these poets, the old and the new, interpret the genius of poetry? How do they interpret nature? How do they express the passion of love? Finally, he contrasted two powerful poems on insomnia, the one by Pushkin, the other by Tiutsheff, and indicated the general line of the three lectures in which he will complete his survey of modern Russian poetry.

—'The Beginnings of Art' (Appletons), from the German of Prof. Ernst Grosse, forms part of the Anthropological Series, and is a contribution to ethnology rather than to art criticism or history. The author's contention is that the only scientific method of investigating the origin of art is to examine the art of the primitive peoples that still exist, and, secondarily, that the general classification of "savage" art is most misleading and unscientific; those peoples only being entitled to the name of "primitive" who are still in that stage of civilization which we must presume to be the earliest, and in which subsistence is wholly dependent upon the chase. He therefore devotes himself to an examination of what is definitely known of the arts of the Australians, the Bushmen, the Eskimo, and two or three other such tribes, taking up in their order personal decoration, ornamentation, representative art, the dance, poetry, and music. Besides disproving some of the doctrines of Taine, Spencer, and others, Prof. Grosse seems to have established certain positive conclusions. These are that all

the arts except architecture have always existed among all peoples; that the art-impulse, "which is substantially identical with the play impulse—that is, with the tendency to an extreme, purposeless, and therefore æsthetic occupation of corporeal and spiritual powers, and which is more or less combined in various forms with the propensity to imitation—is without doubt a general possession of mankind which is probably far older than human nature itself"; that the arts in their primitive state are very similar among the most diverse races; and that rhythm, harmony, proportion—some form of order, in a word—is the dominating characteristic of all of them; finally, that art is, among primitive peoples, the great binder together and social organizer as well as the great educator. The advocates of the higher doctrine of Art for Art's sake, that art should be pursued with singleness of purpose, in the confidence that good art is good for man, will here find brave weapons forged for them by science.

—Dr. J. P. Richter, known as one of the very first authorities on Italian art, deserves no less credit as a student of that fascinating but labyrinthine period of art history, the transition from antiquity to the Middle Ages. His invaluable work on the mosaics of Ravenna is well known. Now we take pleasure in drawing attention to his publication of all such documents as are of service to the history of Byzantine art ('Quellen zur Byzantinischen Kunstgeschichte.' Vienna: Carl Graeser). Every chronicle, every compilation, has been ransacked and made to yield up what information it could give regarding the progress of art at Byzantium, from its foundation by Constantine to its fall, under another Constantine. It is true that Dr. Richter's work will prove of greater value to the student of Byzantine topography than of art proper. But the architect will find ample indications, and the students of the plastic arts and of painting can feel, at least, that nearly all has been done for them that well could be. The glimpses given of court ceremonial are entertaining as well as valuable. It need scarcely be said that, throughout, Dr. Richter's annotations of the texts are helpful and illuminating.

—From the press of Honoré Champion, Paris, comes a new book by Edmond Biré, not on Victor Hugo, however, but on Honoré de Balzac. It might be supposed that this realistic writer would share the fate of the great poet and dramatist on whom Biré has published such bitter and often unjustifiable criticisms, but Balzac has found favor in his sight, and the work is a laudation slightly tempered by reserves. Balzac, it is true, did many things which in Hugo were atrocious; he assumed a nobility of birth to which he had no right whatever; he wrote plays which were not good at all, save one; he was vainglorious and boastful; he had near as little wit, of the French brand, as Hugo, but, notwithstanding all this, he is presented to us by Biré in a manner almost loving. His plays are much better than critics and public have been willing to believe; his vanity is not inordinate; his wit is of the lightest, and so on. The answer to the riddle of the difference in treatment of the two men is simply, as Biré himself ingenuously admits, that Balzac professed himself a royalist to the end of his days, and a Catholic to boot. Hugo changed with the changing years, but Balzac remained faithful to the creed that Biré holds; hence what are deep-dyed sins in the former are peccadilloes in the latter. Granted that a man may forgive to one writer what he condemns in another, it nevertheless remains true that, by his publication of this book on Balzac, Biré has justified the reproach addressed to him of having, in his volumes on Hugo, served his hatred of the great poet rather than sought, as he claimed, to vindicate truth. Biré is not a safe critic; he colors his judgment by his sympathy or his antipathy. It is noteworthy that the Balzac reads less well than the Hugo; in the latter volumes hate lent his style a lightness and vigor one looks for in vain in the praise of Balzac.

A FUR-TRADER IN THE NORTHWEST.

The Manuscript Journals of Alexander Henry, Fur-Trader of the Northwest Company, and of David Thompson, Official Geographer and Explorer of the same Company. 1799-1814. Exploration and Adventure among the Indians on the Red, Saskatchewan, Missouri, and Columbia Rivers. Edited, with copious critical commentary, by Elliott Coues, editor of 'Lewis and Clark,' of 'Pike,' etc., etc. In three volumes. New York: Francis P. Harper. 1897.

This bulky book is the Journal of a fur-trading chief on the Red River, the Saskatchewan, and the Columbia. His chronicle, which runs through a dozen of the years between 1799 and 1814, sheds new light on the region of three rivers which were the only early thoroughfares between the Great Lakes and the Pacific, and which would be so still but for the advent of railways. The chronicler, Alexander Henry, had been far northwest in 1792, but his regular journal opens with a voyage from Fort William, the north point of Lake Superior, via Lake Winnipeg, and up Red River to a point some miles south of the international boundary. This transit cost him, with his brigade of twenty-nine attachés and forty-five canoes of Indians, fifty laborious days, with about as many portages. He once passed over the same mileage in twenty-two days, and "believed it was impossible to perform the voyage in less time" (p. 260). That distance may now be made by rail, and nearly on the same route, in twenty-one hours. After the first winter he changed his base to Pembina, still on the Red River, but exactly on the line between Dakota and Manitoba. His principal post was here till 1808. From this stamping-ground his fur-laden canoes returned every year to the great lake, and he himself usually went with them for the better procuring of supplies, and for consultation with magnates stationed at Fort William by the Northwestern Fur Company, under which Henry was the Red River manager. In 1808 the control over posts on the larger river, Saskatchewan, was confided to Henry. His passage up that long-drawn longitudinal stream from the old station to the new consumed forty-two days. During his command at this utmost corner of the West, he made a forced march in mid-winter to the continental divide, where, in the Howse Pass, the head-waters of the Columbia rise within two miles of the Saskatchewan (51° 48′). Transferred to the Pacific Coast Department, he made his way overland to Astoria. When that place was captured by the British, in November, 1813, he was present, and became Governor there, but the next spring he was drowned at the mouth of the Columbia River.

Henry's writing began with business statistics—his outfits, losses and gains, workmen, portages, helps, and hindrances to his movements, contracts and enterprises. By degrees his daily jottings included hair-breadth 'scapes in tours of duty on flood and field. It moves our special wonder that he did not perish a dozen years earlier by swift illapse of accident disastrous, or in perils of waters and wilderness, of famine and nakedness, of sickness, robbers, and false brethren. Fortunes were made in the fur trade, and the secret of success was in theory simplicity itself. The golden rule was only this: Steal the hearts of Indians with tempting trinkets, and by all means with one whiskey debauch—but only one. Then give those bondmen straw that they may make brick, supply them with guns, and whatever is indispensable for hunting, to be paid for from the first skins yielded by their hunt, rouse them to do their utmost through the hunting season by promises of rum and rations at the finish—above all rum—till they shall say they have never been treated so well nor so often. Such was the practice of Henry. At the outset his freight to the Red River consisted, among other necessaries, of one package of flour and ten packages of undiluted rum—all packages being of equal weight for facilitating carriage at portages. Here was a proportion like *Falstaff's* "one-half penny-worth of bread to an intolerable deal of sack." But in truth the whole process was Shaksperian from first to last. The fur-trader was typified by *Stephano*, with his butt of sack. Henry was never far from *Calibans* who any print of goodness would not take, but who, after once tasting celestial liquor, would swear by the bottle to be his true subjects. They would kiss his foot, show him the best springs, with their long nails dig him pignuts, fish for him, and instruct him how to snare the nimble marmoset. To crown all, they were most like the perfidious *Caliban*, because, if they caught their god asleep, they would rob him of his bottle for its nectar that was not earthly.

Henry's golden rule, while as easy to learn as that in the gospel, was as hard to practise. How to make the most of it was his study by day and dream by night, and inspired every word he wrote. His success was much increased by personal qualities. He was a good swimmer and hunter, led in all dangers, equalled his toughest retainers in endurance, held his passions in hand. One of his passages was the quickest ever made from Superior to the Red River. The score of underlings articled to serve Henry on the Red River, if we may judge by their names, were all French or half-breeds, except one negro. These workingmen were accompanied by twice as many tribal Indians. After he had fixed on a site for wintering, he had little ease till, at the end of seven days, he had finished a stockade of fifteen-foot posts and a massive gate—a wall of partition between the natives carousing without, before their send-off on an all-winter hunt, and the serfs within, over whom he ruled as despotically as a

ship-captain or slave-master. In one corner, on a platform too high to scale, his tent was pitched, with views outward and inward. Here he was monarch of all he surveyed. His sceptre was a double-barrelled gun, and he was a dead shot.

In snuggeries of this sort he jotted down his impressions regarding his environment—men, beasts, scenery, and adventures. While writing them out in black and white his pleasure must have been analogous to that of a cat who lets a captured mouse almost escape her that she may taste the rapture of catching him again. New matter constantly occurred to him, and he unawares wrote volumes. As his dealings were mainly with Indians, he made a grand contribution to their ethnology. This feeling grows in us as we note his vocabularies, his accounts of Indian sign-language, game tracking, bow making, arrow-poisons and antidotes, edible barks, boats of buffalo hides, and hoes of their shoulder-blades, and (above all things else) horses and fire-arms as transforming aboriginal life. Everywhere the writing approves itself as realistic and reliable as the notorious annals of Pepys, naked and not ashamed.

In Henry's stockade there was an Indian Hall, where the hunting brigade was received, furs taken to pay old debts, and a present was made of Indian rum, 85 per cent. water, except the sample glass, in kegs never holding less than a gallon, "since one gallon in a large keg," as Henry tells us, "looks bigger to them than double that quantity in several small kegs" (p. 729)—an unexpected witness that the whole is more than all its parts. The exchange of furs for whiskey once finished, the bacchanals were straightway turned out of the fort to drink their fill and fight out their frenzy with one another. The garrison, looking down from the walls, beheld a sort of volunteer Roman gladiatorial butchery. In such scenes Henry thus moralizes: "Spirituous liquors are the baneful source of all evils"; "the subtle poison to which their wretched condition is mainly owing" (p. 711); "murders are always in drinking matches" (p. 209); "what a different set of people they would be were there not a drop in the country," etc. Yet rum was his *primum mobile* and ultimatum, with such results that his editor, usually a Stoic, exclaims: "The trade was simply hell on earth—hell peopled with no souls above a beaver-skin, fired by King Alcohol for the worship of Mammon" (p. 258).

The last date in Henry was more than four-score years ago. How comes it that a manuscript so valuable for history, adventure, topography, and especially anthropology was not printed long ago? It was, in fact, prepared after a fashion for publication in the first decade after its author's death. But the fur trade was already waning, boat-navigation ready to vanish away, settlements on the ground it covered and the comparative study of races not yet begun. So Henry, shelved in Canadian archives, slumbered in his own sheets, and might have slept on for ever save for Dr. Coues. But the indefatigable editor of Lewis and Clark and of Pike no sooner saw the neglected relic among the curios of the admirable Ottawa Library than he recognized its value. He beheld the doublet or triplet which he most desiderated to complete his magnificent endeavor to illuminate the world of the West during the early years of the nineteenth century. What he had accomplished for the United States from the Mississippi to the Western ocean, he could now do for the New Dominion, from the lakes to the same Pacific. But his editorial task was arduous. The Henry original was like his own whiskey when watered for Indians till a pint became a gallon—it was full of vain repetitions, or items of momentary and local interest, and everywhere couched in a bookish dialect which no man ever spoke and few could read. Then, again, as Henry wrote for himself only, his words needed elucidation on every page. This elucidation was supplied preëminently from the manuscripts of David Thompson, who, even before Henry, had traversed all his longitudes and latitudes, withal making such notes as we desiderate in all Henry's pages, and the very best of early maps. His name, therefore, fitly appears on the title-page and most other pages as a sort of Siamese twin to Henry. The commentary by Dr. Coues—derived from his own travels on Henry's track, his scientific studies, and Washington archives—proves that without it neither Henry nor Thompson would tell us all we seek to learn. Accordingly, the editor was convinced that his new light could not be shed abroad on the greater Northwest in less than three volumes. He loves that number like an English novelist, and has made his tomes counterparts of his three on Lewis and Clark and the same number on Pike. The three trios, each a complement of the other two, will, no doubt, remain standards for ages, each in its own field. Some pages in the first and second monumental trios we could more easily spare than as many from the third. The new-discovered material was often better for his purpose than whatever had been before available. Henry was a resident. Pike, and Lewis and Clark before him, were transient travellers. Theirs were the gleanings of months, his was the harvest of years.

It seems scarcely possible to add any fraction to the multitudinous minutiæ which Dr. Coues has accumulated. Who can add a line to what he tells us about the companions of Henry and all their namesakes, or to the fragments gathered up till they filled seven baskets, and, when no corner was found for them in the body of his work, garnered up alphabetically in his volume of index? The Greek who said that every big book was a big bore would banish these countless fractions and half the other letterpress. The truth is, that no page is valueless in this work, which was elaborated not so much to be read as to be referred to. Henry's writing has been manipulated by Dr. Coues much more than was that of Lewis and Clark by Biddle. In the Doctor's own words, his volumes are "a textual compromise between what he found written and what he might have preferred to write" (p. xiii). Without such a confession, every reader must have noticed words born since Henry's time, and turned over the pages with cumulative convictions that the composition was a "mingled yarn," not the unadulterated Henry. Accordingly, we regret that we are vouchsafed no page of Henry pure and simple. Such a sample—above all if in facsimile—would savor a whole volume. Such a facsimile Dr. Coues could not furnish, as the first copyist failed to preserve the photograph; but the original words—the old Bourbon without a drop of dilution—he could have set down before our eyes; at least such a dram as Henry gave to the sampling savage.

RECENT FICTION.

The Landlord at Lion's Head. By W. D. Howells. Harper & Bros.

The Choir Invisible. By James Lane Allen. The Macmillan Co.

The Missionary Sheriff. By Octave Thanet. Harper & Bros.

The Merry Maid of Arcady, and Other Stories. By Mrs. Burton Harrison. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co.

A Pinchbeck Goddess. By Mrs. J. M. Fleming (Alice M. Kipling). D. Appleton & Co.

In the Tideway. By Flora Annie Steel. The Macmillan Co.

The Spoils of Poynton. By Henry James. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

En Route. By J. R. Huysmans. Translated from the French by C. Kegan Paul. London: Kegan Paul & Co.; New York: New Amsterdam Book Co.

'The Landlord at Lion's Head' is an important addition to the list of novels in which Mr. Howells describes and interprets New England life and character. Jeff Durgin, the Landlord, takes rank with the author's most vivid characterizations—Silas Lapham, of Mineral Paint fame, and Bartley Hubbard, the Journalist. He is perhaps the most striking and effective of the three, for he has more of the uncommon, the unexpected. He is not a settled, conspicuous type, but an incarnation of signs of the times, rumors in the air, a concrete prediction of a type which threatens.

The accident of a wish to paint a picture of the "Lion's Head" brought an artist, Mr. Westover, to the Durgins' mountain farm, where he spent a week, involved himself for ever in the affairs of Mrs. Durgin, and began to feel the mingled liking and detestation for her ruffianly young son which were to prove an endless source of interest and irritation. Westover's part in the novel is subordinate but indispensable, for, like the disinterested family friends of French plays, he connects incidents, explains, interprets, carries every one's burdens, without deriving any profit and frequently against his will. During the fourth year of Jeff's formative experience at Harvard, Westover had a valuable and illuminative thought about him. From his point of view as a gentleman, sensitive, refined, and honorable, he had had occasion to feel deep disgust for Jeff's behavior and told him so. In the ensuing conversation, while Jeff, with perfect good humor and frankness, explained his point of view, it dawned on Westover that he was dealing with an earth-bound temperament, and that the "acceptance of a moral fact as it was, without the unconscious effort to better it or to hold himself strictly to account for it, was the secret of the power in the man which should bring about the material results he desired." This is to say that Jeff was a ripened product of the modern agitation, noticeable in life, literature, and art, about seeing things as they are. The much-coveted faculty was his by nature. He saw things barely, vividly, as they are, without prejudice, without pain, without

any complicating sense of moral responsibility to modify, to change. He included himself in this exact, unsparing vision. He had never quite believed in his good mother's notion of the great things that going to Harvard would do for him. Even in her isolation she had outlived the superstition that men are born equal, and her son suspected that a Harvard education could not make them equal. But he was willing to try, to see for himself, and know. He was superior to most men in beauty, force, will, temper; about scholarship he was indifferent; the only equality he cared for was social equality, and, before he had been a year at college, he saw and knew he could never get that. His vanity was hurt, but he was not disheartened or in any way discredited to himself. He made no struggle for the recognized unattainable, but he felt that there was a memorable day coming, soon or late, when he should get even with some one of the persons who represented this unattainable. By the episode with Miss Lynde he felt that he came out far ahead, and, when that was closed, the social grievance troubled him no more. His treatment of Miss Lynde is rather appallingly impudent and brutal; her brother's fraternal rage was properly expressed by a horsewhip, but a dispassionate observer must feel with Jeff's mother that she deserved all she got.

The incidental picture of social life at Harvard is so hideously snobbish that incredulity would be the reward of any writer with a smaller reputation for fair observation. Jeff was from the beginning a "jay"; and the condition of being a "jay" seems to denote neither deficient intelligence, nor indifferent morals, nor unpleasant manners, but to depend entirely on the almighty dollar. "Swells" are separated from "jays" by a line more rigid than aristocratic birth. A Samuel Johnson at Harvard would be a godforsaken "jay"; "swells" would forbid him the "yard," and the women of their set would speak to him as a princess might speak to a footman without the princess's courtesy and authority. If half of this be true, it would be wise for Americans of sense and taste to educate their sons at aristocratic Old World seats of learning, where there are opportunities to observe conduct considered becoming to a gentleman apparently not provided by the greatest American university. Mr. Westover's opinion that if this precious society had been kinder to Jeff, he would have been a better man, is a tribute to his own amiability, and an evidence of his sentimental inability to see things in the least as they are. Kindness from such a society might have diverted the course of Jeff's badness, but would probably have made him a worse because a weaker man. As Mr. Howells develops him and leaves him, he is an audacious, vindictive, selfish man, using his force for good or evil solely as the servant of his imperious will, and without any reference to effect on the moral order of the universe. His general attitude towards mankind is one of cynical toleration, and he never wishes to hurt any one who has not made the mistake of hurting him. He is not a bad man, but unquestionably the old romantic theory that it is finer to see things as they might be than as they are, has helped to produce much better men.

'The Choir Invisible' opens with a charming description of the primeval forests in Kentucky, a lovely girl riding along the trail on a white horse with knots of blue violets hanging at his ears. In the last pages, John Grey, the hero, looks back over a long and stormy life, glad that he has resisted evil and held fast to good; that, while missing an ideal happiness, he has won prosperity, honor, content, without losing faith in the beauty of what is right, or aspiration towards that perfection which is God. Seeing that Mr. Allen takes the imaginative, poetic attitude towards nature, animate and inanimate, he wisely chooses to tell a story of the end of the eighteenth, not of the nineteenth, century. In 1795 America was too young for cynicism and pessimism; there was a prejudice in favor of righteousness, an ingenuous belief in hell which kept men from shaking off the troublesome sense of moral responsibility as a garment. The virgin soil was not prolific of voluble critics identifying strength with rank selfishness, goodness with weakness, and proclaiming that the prizes of life are invariably captured by the wicked. Rare, indeed, are those resolute spirits that can hold their own against what all the world is saying; therefore, if John Grey's career was not ended—passed into history—we should be obliged to ask Mr. Allen how, in the face of the convincing Jeff Durgin, he can dare to offer such a fairy tale for the serious consideration of a grown-up public. But, as a member of 'The Choir Invisible,' John Grey is entirely credible, often admirable, and always lovable. Notably self-reliant, he was not beyond the influence of other people and circumstances. The external helps and hindrances are natural and probable. The lovely girl who rides the white horse was not good enough for him, and the lovely girl's aunt, Mrs. Falconer, was too good. The trivial accident which led the girl to jilt him was for him a stroke of good luck, and the virtue of Mrs. Falconer was his salvation. He was quite in her hands, body and soul, but she was a very good woman with a living husband, and as she loved John Grey enough not to let him speak, he rode away and saw her no more. Nothing in the book is more antique and poetical than this episode. A Mrs. Falconer of 1895, feeling heavily upon her the sacred responsibility of developing her *ego*, would have ridden away with John Grey to his everlasting ruin.

The tale is told in leisurely, discursive fashion; a manner that diminishes intensity but adds charm. The author has a poet's facility in the use of metaphor and simile, generally excellent and vivifying the sketches of frontier life and scene, in themselves strikingly picturesque. The political situation at the moment provides a reason for Grey's leaving Kentucky, but most of the discussion about Federalists and Democrats is a little outside the tale, a not interesting revival of a really dead past.

The tales told of 'The Missionary Sheriff' do great credit to his heart as well as to his nerve. The incidents chosen demand all those qualities without which no man ever dared to be sheriff of a Western town where a fringe of wilderness was visible from the main street. Amos Wickliffe had courage, a quick eye, a steady hand, and the unnamed faculty for making men feel that he could neither be frightened nor duped—never beaten. He had also a tenderness of heart which embarrassed him considerably in the performance of official duty, and always stood between the offender and injustice. His judgment about offenders was keen, and he was as prompt to shoot a desperate criminal on sight as he was ready to mitigate the punishment of the weakly erring. He was a good sheriff, a good American, a good fellow, with only one unpleasant habit, that of weeping before the portrait of a lady whom he called "Ma." Doubtless his emotion was as sincere as if he had said "Mother," but to those unaccustomed to the sound, the monosyllable "Ma," addressed to an object of love and veneration, is enough to destroy sympathy and to annihilate esteem. Octave Thanet is very conscientious in reproduction of local habits of speech, and as all her characters say "Ma," it is to be supposed that the word is shouted all over the prairies and echoed back from the Rockies. It is high time that Western legislators should turn their attention from big hats to forms of speech. A bill prohibiting the use of "Ma" and "Pa" on pain of death would eventually add grace and dignity to Western life, not to mention Western literature.

Throughout these stories the author is one with her characters. She is not poking fun, or apologizing, or satirizing, and thus succeeds in giving an inestimable impression of sincerity and actuality. Such qualities are not positively glaring in the 'Merry Maid of Arcady, and Other Tales.' It would be unkind to accuse the author of hypocrisy, but her attempts at criticism of a rich, vapid, pointless society are very perceptibly enfeebled by a reckless joy in infinite discourse on its houses, clothes, amusements, food—above all, on its footmen and maids. The god of love is ever present, but he shoots his arrows cautiously, resolved to dispense with tragedy, and even to forego his fun in such august and wealthy company. Down in Virginia he takes a little liberty, gets mixed up with impoverished lunatics and handsome scions of decayed aristocracy, but, awed by the prevalence of old mahogany, dim family portraits, and priceless porcelain, he stops short of license. Virginia has always grown tobacco, and used to grow slaves, but the wealth produced by these two industries fades into insignificance compared to that which, according to Southern novelists, is represented by its chairs and tables and china cups.

There is nothing in 'A Pinchbeck Goddess' to indicate that the author is the sister of a brother so distinguished in letters as Rudyard Kipling. Mrs. Fleming chatters away fluently about the goings on at Simla, that paradise of the improper. As an Anglo-Indian hill divinity, Mrs. Edwards fills the bill; she paints her face, dyes her hair, and dances (skirt dances) over prostrate warriors. Nevertheless, she is a perfectly virtuous lady, her appearance to the contrary being part of a mystery which, however improbable, is very well sustained. The warriors at ease are as far from idle gallantry as from ferocity. They have intentions serious and honorable. They make eloquent proposals of marriage and take the mitten like lambs, murmuring a tearful "God bless you" or "Farewell—Always better man—Having loved you." The accepted address their beloved as "child," and their obvious disapproval of the paint and dye suggests that immediately after a betrothal a great cleansing and scraping process goes on at Simla.

The most charitable thought about Mrs. Steel's 'In the Tideway' is that an early effort has been flung at the public to reap the benefit of her successful book, 'On the Face of the Waters.' A prologue introduces a lady and a lover, both aristocratic but poor, and both on the point of yielding to the exigencies of fashionable existence by marrying money. A shooting-box in the Hebrides is indicated as the scene of the coming drama, with the Gulf Stream and an island packed with skeletons in stone coffins for important machinery. Almost immediately after Mr. Eustace Gordon's marriage to a convenient American heiress, he proceeds *en garçon* to Roderay, the shooting-box of Lady Maud's rich husband, a person named Wilson. The chief end of Mr. Gordon's journey is to assure his own and Lady Maud's fidelity to their respective marriage vows. On the very night of his arrival, Lady Maud, tumbling by chance over Mr. Wilson's prostrate body, fears that he is dead, but Mr. Gordon, out of his ampler experience, assures her that her husband is only drunk. Then ensue agonies and consolations, during which the elasticity of the marriage vow is tested. When Lady Maud learns that her husband is kept sober only by the hypnotic influence of a valet, agent of a famous American medicine man, gloomy yet courageous she faces her future—that is, a conscientious second choice between Wilson and Gordon. Thus approaches the tragedy, and the Gulf Stream and skeletons, hitherto neglected, serve the use appointed for them from the beginning. When all is told, there is no appeal to reason, and nothing deserving of sympathy except the Gulf Stream turned to such base uses. This irrational tale is told appropriately with spasms, gasps, dashes, exclamation-points, and urgent appeals to God in heaven.

A certain degree of responsive sympathy with the collector's passion is absolutely necessary for enjoyment of 'The Spoils of Poynton.' Given that sensibility, however slight, Mrs. Gereth is an impressively tragic figure; without it, she appears as a quarrelsome person, probably mad, bent on depriving her son of property allowed him by law because she doesn't like the girl he wishes to marry. Fortunately for Mr. James, it is fashionable to care for things, old things, artistic things; and as fashion often serves as well as genuine feeling, he may be pretty sure of a large and appreciative audience. The lioness defending her cubs is a poor figure for ferocity compared with Mrs. Gereth beating off swine (particularly named Brigstock) from her pearls, the treasures of Poynton. She and her things are one, and whatever may have survived after the elements took a hand in the fray and swept Poynton from the face of the earth, it could be but a pale and soulless image of that ingenious, unscrupulous, and vindictive apostle of æstheticism. Her defeat by the terrible Brigstocks calls for tears much more peremptorily than does the defeat of her astute confidante and go-between, Fleda Vetch, by the chief of those children of darkness, Miss Mona Brigstock. Up to the point where Owen Gereth declares that he is free to rid himself of Mona, her bad taste, and sordid soul, free to love Fleda and happily end the tiresome squabble with his mother, one accepts the possibility of her consuming secret love for Owen. But at this point, loving Owen, loving his mother, loving the things, and having the whole game in her hands, it is difficult to believe that any girl, however subtle and high-minded, ever so deliberately surrendered everything to the enemy. The serious passion of the tale, however, is that of Mrs. Gereth for her things, and the expression of that passion is so perfect that it makes very little difference whether Fleda is a natural, human girl, or an incredible figure woven of whimsical fancy and subtle phrases. The fancy is fine enough and the phrases are good enough to afford a rare pleasure, of a kind which the author alone is able to give us in perfection.

The translator of M. Huysmans's 'En Route' says, in a preface, that the "true interest of the book is in the defence of monastic orders, and the description of such a life seen from very near." The description is undoubtedly interesting, but its value as a defence is small, because, for a Catholic, the monastic system needs no defence, and others can hardly fail to be offended, if not shocked, by a close view of the Trappists and other ascetic communities. It is even possible that an exposure of the mysteries, which probably takes the license of fiction, might appear to a devout Catholic blasphemous as the desecration of a shrine. After the miracle of Durtal's conversion, which is assumed in the beginning, his struggles to cleanse a decidedly filthy mind are narrated at great length with noticeable literary force and skill. The analysis of his fears, doubts, hopes, depressions, and exaltations is frank and radical, but the conception of a soul's travail is sensual and intellectual, while the operation of spiritual grace is only an assumption. The fascination of mysticism for certain natures is set forth with fulness of detail which makes it both revolting and ridiculous to other natures, and serves to fortify a common opinion that the agonies and ecstasies of mystics are mostly an abnormal exaltation of the senses wilfully deprived of natural outlets. The traditions of the Catholic church, its music, architecture, ritual, and imposing functions, are freely used to obtain effects sometimes intensely dramatic and sometimes cheaply theatrical. The translator credits M. Huysmans with a sincere intention to redeem wanderers from the faith; it is not hard to think of soberer methods which would surely be more efficacious.

The Outgoing Turk. Impressions of a journey through the Western Balkans. By H. C. Thomson. With illustrations and maps. London: W. Heinemann. 1897. Pp. xxi, 281, 8vo.

The irony of recent events has taken from the title of this volume much of its significance. In Macedonia the Turkish ruler has apparently a new lease of life, and in Thessaly he is, for the time, the returning, not the "outgoing," Turk. But, as applied to Bosnia and Herzegovina, the title is well chosen, when by Turk is understood the Osmanli official and not the Mohammedan. The former has gone. The latter remains, and enjoys equal rights and privileges with the Christian. To show what this change of rulers has done for the people of the two provinces, as well as to awaken sympathy for their countrymen still subject to Turkey, is Mr. Thomson's main object. His book, then, is not a mere traveller's narrative; descriptions of scenery, places, and incidents of his journey are mingled with accounts of the methods of government, of the social and material condition of the people, and with frequent historical digressions and political forecasts.

He had exceptional opportunities for seeing all parts of the country, not simply that on the main lines of communication, but the outlying mountainous districts which are rarely visited except by officials; and his experience of more than eight hundred miles in these regions, by diligence and post-cart, shows that travelling in Bosnia is unattended with either discomfort or danger. This security to life and property which prevails everywhere is one of the most striking results of the Austrian occupation. In a population of a million and a half, among whom brigandage and murder, twenty years ago, were crimes of daily occurrence, in the three years 1893-'95 there were only nineteen convictions for murder and five for robbery. This has not been accomplished by terrorism, as the army of occupation is only 23,000 and the gendarmerie 2,500 strong, but by the disarmament of the people and the awakening in them of a respect for law and personal rights. The courts have so little, in fact, to do that the number of lawyers, Mr. Thomson says with some hesitation as to the exact figures, is only sixteen for the whole of Bosnia and Herzegovina. This peaceful disposition of the people is the more remarkable, not only considering their past history, but from the fact that they are still divided by race and by religion. Yet there is apparently no indication of the existence of the century-old hostility between Mohammedan and Christian, and there are many instances of the opposite feeling. At a public dinner which the author attended in one of the smaller towns, "the Bürgermeister, a Mohammedan, formed one of the party, and was received on terms of perfect equality and friendship, not only by the Austrian officials, but by the Bosnian Christians, who were also present." At the theatre of Serayevo a Slav dramatic company gave a play, written by Prince Nicholas of Montenegro, called "The Empress of the Balkans." Though it dealt with the struggle between the Montenegrins and the Turks, "several of the latter were there, and seemed to enjoy it as much as any one." The Church of St. John at Yaitze is "venerated by Mussulmans and Christians alike," and on the saint's day is resorted to by pilgrims of both religions.

Mr. Thomson confirms the impression received from other recent writers that Bosnia is now the most interesting country in Europe to the traveller. This is due partly to the great beauty of much of the scenery, but mainly to the people themselves. Occupying the borderland, some of the characteristic features of both the East and the West are to be found in them. Fresh from India, Mr. Thomson notes curious resemblances between customs and superstitions of the Hindus and the Bosnians. But nearly everywhere are to be observed the picturesque differences of manners, dress, and habitations which arise from different nationalities and religions. Not the least interesting are the Spanish Jews, some seven thousand in number, whose ancestors were driven out of Spain three centuries ago, and who "still speak Spanish, and have preserved untouched most of their ancient customs and habits." Numerous facts are given

to show the growth of the provinces in population, in wealth, and in intelligence. Among the most significant is the increase of the peasant proprietors to more than two hundred thousand, many of the holdings having been bought through Government loans. Yet though much is being done by the Austrian officials to develop the resources of the country by building railways and roads, by practical instruction in the best methods of agriculture and other industries, by improving the breeds of horses, cattle, and poultry, they seem to have wisely avoided the fatal error of cultivating a spirit of dependence upon the Government. One of the books, Mr. Thomson tells us, which appeal most powerfully to Serb and Croat alike, is Smiles's 'Self-Help.' "A Croat told me it is more widely read in Croatia than any other book, and that he himself made a practice of always reading two pages of it every day."

The pleasant picture is naturally not without its shadows. A large part of the people are still very poor. The opening of railways has, for the time, depressed the trade of the towns, and the little local industries are unable to compete with the cheap Austrian and Hungarian goods with which the country has been flooded. The people, notwithstanding their wise and humane government, are discontented; "the Turks, because they have been deprived of power, the Catholics because they have been given less than they expected, and the Serbs because they desire independence." The mutual hatred and distrust between the Orthodox and the Catholics apparently still exists in all its strength. " 'A false people, the Orthodox, worse than the Turks,' a Dalmatian Croat said to me; 'if they ever obtain power here, I shall emigrate to America.' " This mastery seems not at all unlikely, since the Orthodox now form more than a third of the population, and are increasing more rapidly than either the Catholics or the Mohammedans. Their dream is of a "glorious and united Serbian kingdom, which shall stretch from Salonica to Zara," from the Ægean to the Adriatic.

The closing chapters are purely political, and the slight connection of some of the topics treated with the subject of the volume gives force to the presumption that they were hastily added to increase its bulk. In them the author strives, by showing England's responsibility for the present condition of the Macedonians, to arouse sympathy for them in their anticipated revolt. He believes that there is no danger to the peace of India in a strong anti-Turkish policy, touches upon Armenia, Cyprus, and Crete; demonstrates the impossibility of Turkish reforms, and ends with declaring the identity of Austrian and English interests, as against the policy of Russia, in strengthening Servia and Greece and in freeing Macedon. The real value of the book, which is very attractive in appearance, with numerous excellent illustrations, does not lie in this portion, but in its admirable account of an interesting country and its much-needed light upon the difficulties of the Eastern question arising from the different nationalities, religions, and ambitions of the inhabitants of the Balkans. Though it gives little hope of a speedy solution, it leaves two strong and abiding impressions upon the mind—encouragement from the new and striking proof which Austria has given of the regenerative power of a wise and just government; and indignation at the selfish and short-sighted policy which seeks to maintain and perpetuate Turkish misrule in Europe.

The Real Condition of Cuba To-day. By Stephen Bonsal. Harper & Brothers.

It does not need a severely critical eye to discover inconsistencies in Mr. Bonsal's little book. It contains one illustration, representing a starving family sitting under a palm tree; the baby is already dead, yet that one tree contains nearly a barrel of food, and there are other such trees in the distance. A starving family of Irish peasants could as well have been pictured sitting in a potato field in bearing. Occasionally Mr. Bonsal inserts a Spanish word in his text when an English word would serve the purpose much better, but he fails to tell us what we should much like to know, how the distinctive Americanism "long grass" is rendered in Spanish. He uses the expression frequently, and even attributes it to Weyler himself. Regarding the word trocha, he may have taken the definition from a little book published in New York last year, or he has fallen into the usual error of calling it "trench." But this is a trivial matter compared to his description of the Trocha, of which he speaks as though it were his common pastime to ride along it. He tells us that its "banks are lined throughout its length with at least ten thousand graves," and he compares it to the Suez Canal. The fact is, the Trocha has no banks, nor is it a canal, but a simple cart-road strung with barbed-wire fences and stone walls, and "its palmy days," of which Mr. Bonsal speaks, were long before he went to Cuba. He says that the "ditch which the poor conscript of Spain built has gone to rack and ruin, and the rains of the last month have well-nigh washed away alike all traces of their useless labor and their shallow graves." Now there never has been a single Spanish soldier buried on this Trocha. Whenever a soldier has died there, he has been taken to either of the adjacent cemeteries of Artemisa or Guanajay and given Christian interment.

When Mr. Bonsal tells us that Weyler has not five thousand soldiers "capable of marching from the Battery to Central Park with campaign equipment," what are we to think of the 400,000 Cubans who, he asserts, are being held down in starvation stations by these "wretched conscripts of Spain," who "are without those things which are the common necessities of life to the Digger Indian or to the most primitive and self-sufficient cave-dwellers"? The statement that Gomez has turned up in the rear of Weyler's 40,000 soldiers and given a good account of himself is amusing. For the last four months at least, Gen. Gomez has been in hiding somewhere in the vicinity of Sancti Spiritus, and Weyler, with all his troops, which Mr. Bonsal has a peculiar way of stretching from 5,000 to 40,000 as suits his requirements, has been unable to find him. It would be interesting to know what Gen. Gomez, with his army of 130 armed men and retinue of 200 servants will do upon turning up in Havana after the Spaniards have evacuated that city, as Mr. Bonsal assures us they are to do very shortly.

Calamus: A Series of Letters written, during the years 1868-1880, by Walt Whitman to a young friend (Peter Doyle). Edited, with an introduction, by Richard Maurice Bucke, M.D., one of Whitman's literary executors. Boston: Laurens Maynard. 1897.

We have here the series of letters to which John Addington Symonds refers in his 'Walt Whitman: A Study,' pp. 78, 79. There was something in that section of Whitman's 'Leaves of Grass' called "Calamus" which troubled Symonds not a little, so suggestive was it of a certain aspect of Greek life with which Symonds had acquainted himself painfully in the studies made for his 'Greek Poets.' He confessed his anxiety to Whitman, who wrote reassuringly, yet not so convincingly but that Symonds was very glad to see the letters to Peter Doyle which are now published, as Symonds earnestly wished they might be; and it is true, as he wrote, that "they breathe a purity and simplicity of affection, a naïveté and reasonableness, which are remarkable considering the unmistakable intensity of the emotion." It is true that the series is not complete, "perhaps three lost for each one preserved"; but it would be ungracious to imagine that a less favorable impression might have been derived from the whole correspondence than from a part of it.

There are quite enough of Whitman's letters: half as many would have been equally significant. But it would be very interesting to know how "Pete" "kept up his end" of the correspondence, and we have no means of knowing. In his introduction Dr. Bucke reports an interview with him eleven pages long, from which it would appear that his letters may have been as good as Whitman's or better. It is one of the pleasantest accounts of Whitman we have had. Of Garfield's kindly relations with Whitman there is an agreeable hint: "He always signalled Walt with the cry, 'After all not to create only.' " Why the correspondence dwindled after 1880, we are not informed. Doyle protests that "the same old love" was there until the end. "Then I had a mad impulse to go over and nurse him" is a literary touch for which Dr. Bucke is probably responsible. "There were things preventing," and he did not go. Their first meeting was late at night on a Washington horse-car of which Doyle was the conductor. It was storming fearfully, and Whitman, who had been visiting Burroughs, was the sole passenger. After 1872 Doyle was employed by the Pennsylvania Railroad, and railroad matters are often referred to in Whitman's letters. They had for him a remarkable fascination, and his interest in the hardships of the employees and their tragical misfortunes is one of the most engaging features of the book.

A single letter taken at random will give a better idea of them all than any second-hand account:

"*Brooklyn, Friday forenoon, April 5* [1872].—DEAR SON: I expect to be back in Washington next week—somewhere in the middle of the week—I am well—mother is pretty well—I received your letter three days since—Pete, things must be going on about the same as ever.—As I write it is pleasant weather, and I am going to get the good of it.—Pete, take care of yourself till I see you, dear boy. WALT."

All the letters are on about this level. Mr. Symonds found nothing of patronage in them, and there is nothing of this kind un-

less it be in their unvarying puerility, which is possibly Whitman's concession to his correspondent. The letters are such as might have been written by some illiterate person interested only in the most commonplace affairs. His health, about which there is much; the weather, of which he was keenly sensible; his meals, which he describes to praise them, never to complain—these things are the staple of them all. Douglas Jerrold's inference that some one had a great deal of wit in him, he let so little out, is, perhaps, applicable here. It is certainly astonishing that Whitman could write so many letters as we have here, and give no sign of intellectual ability or of his poetic gift. The fact gives us a sense of something artificial in his public manner; or was this inane simplicity put on? The kindness of his heart is unmistakable. He is often sending gifts of money to his young friend, and once shirts, the collar to be "turned down low, with a nice black silk neckhandkerchief tied loose," an endeavor to inoculate his friend with his own style. It should be said that much that he writes about his health is written to allay his friend's anxiety. The most pathetic feature is his loneliness in Camden after the failure of his health. He gets "desperate at staying in—not a human soul for cheer, or sociability, or fun, and this continued week after week, month after month." No one can read the book without a kindlier feeling for the man, but the poet never for a moment emerges into view, or in two or three epithets at the most.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, J. H. Sequel to "Our Liberal Movement." Boston: Roberts Bros.
Arnim, Gen. von. Extracts from an Infantry Captain's Journal. Kansas City: Hudson Kimberly Publishing Co.
Ash, Mark. The Greater New York Charter. Albany: Weed-Parsons Co.
Backus, T. J. The Outlines of Literature, English and American. Sheldon & Co. $1.
Bacon, E. M. Walks and Rides in the Country round about Boston. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Bennett, Prof. C. E. M. Tulli Ciceronis Cato Maior de Senectute. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 60c.
Boname, Louise C. The Study and Practice of French in School. Part Third. Philadelphia: The Author.
Bonsal, Stephen. The Real Condition of Cuba Today. Harpers. 60c.
Bullock, C. J. Introduction to the Study of Economics. Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co.
Cleeve, Lucas. Lazarus: A Tale of the World's Great Miracle. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Crapsey, Rev. A. S. A Voice in the Wilderness: Being a Plea for the Restoration of Primitive Christianity. James Pott & Co. $1.
Danett, Thomas. The History of Comines. [Tudor Translations.] 2 vols. London: David Nutt.
Doyle, A. C. Uncle Bernac: A Memory of the Empire. Appletons. $1.50.
Embe, G. When Desire Cometh. Dillingham. 50c.
Fox, John, jr. "Hell fer Sartain," and Other Stories. Harpers. $1.
Garnett, J. M. Macbeth. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 35c.
Georgia Scenes. New ed. Harpers. $1.25.
Golden, Prof. M. J. A Laboratory Course in Wood-Turning. Harpers.
Gray, Asa. Synoptical Flora of North America. Vol. I. Part I. American Book Co.
Hale, E. E. Susan's Escort, and Others. Harpers. $1.50.
Halle, Ernst von. Baumwollproduktion und Pflanzungswirtschaft in den Nordamerikanischen Südstaaten. Erster Teil. Die Sklavenzeit. Leipzig: Duncker & Humblot.
Hill, G. B. Johnsonian Miscellanies. 2 vols. Harpers.
Hopkins, Tighe. The Dungeons of Old Paris. Illustrated. Putnams. $1.75.
Johnson, J. N. Freytag's Die Journalisten. American Book Co. 35c.
Joseph, J. A. Institutional History of the United States. Danville, Indiana: Indiana Publishing Co.
Kürschner, Joseph. Staatshandbuch, 1897. Lemcke & Buechner.
Lewis, Prof. H. C. Genesis and Matrix of the Diamond. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.50.
Marsden, R. G. Select Pleas in the Court of Admiralty. Vol. II. London: Bernard Quaritch.
Mason, James. Chess Openings. London: Horace Cox.
McCarthy, Justin. A History of Our Own Times: From 1880 to the Diamond Jubilee. Harpers. $1.75.
McDonald, Robert. A Princess and a Woman. Frank A. Munsey. 25c.
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Merrick, Leonard. One Man's View. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Merrill, J. L. In Which Hearts Lead: A Book of Rhymes. New York: De Merle Co.
Merriman, H. S. The Grey Lady. Macmillan. $1.50.
Monroe, Prof. J. Oberlin Thursday Lectures, Addresses, and Essays. Oberlin, O.: Edward J. Goodrich.
Montgomery, D. H. The Student's American History. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.55.
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Scudder, H. E. A History of the United States of America. Sheldon & Co. $1.
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Tarver, J. C. Some Observations of a Foster Parent. London: Constable; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
The "Chronicle" Fire Tables for 1897. New York: The "Chronicle" Co.
The Civil-Service Guide. Dick & Fitzgerald.
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Turgenev, Ivan. Dream Tales, and Prose Poems. Macmillan. $1.25.
Wharton, Thomas. "Bobbo," and Other Fancies. Harpers. $1.50.
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The Week.

The final flurry in the Senate over the tariff bill brings out one fact in clear light: The American Congress is disabled from raising revenue. There was a great deal of solemn truth in what Senator Teller said on Monday. Quoting a former remark of Senator Allison's, that we had "more untouched and untaxed means of revenue than any other country in the world," he dwelt on the shameful spectacle of a Congress without the skill or the courage to reach out its hand and take the needed revenue, and asked if Senators were willing to go to the people and confess that they saw their duty, but were powerless to do it. Mr. Teller's two illustrations were the beer tax and the whiskey tax. The former had actually been proposed by the finance committee, who saw in it an easy and certain way of raising $20,000,000, but "a great election was pending in one of the great States of the Union where a large proportion of the population do not believe in a tax on beer; so it was sacrificed." That is to say, the brewers threatened Platt, Platt threatened the committee, and away went the tax. But if the committee could not raise revenue by increasing taxes, neither could it by lowering them. The maximum revenue rate on whiskey had been shown to be 70 cents a gallon. The present rate is $1.10, which had diminished the revenue and doubled the number of illicit stills. The Secretary of the Treasury recommended a 70-cent rate in the interest of revenue, but the Senate was powerless to take this $20,000,000 or $25,000,000 of added revenue. Powerful trade and political combinations were against the reduction, and so reduction in the interest of revenue could not be had.

That sweeping anti-Trust amendment to the tariff, which was going to prevent any monopoly from accepting the favors offered it, has been dropped. There were "vigorous protests" from Western Senators, but, you see, it would take too much time to discuss such an amendment now. This is clever management. When the duties favoring Trusts were pending, all objection was answered by saying that the judiciary committee were laboring night and day on an amendment which would make the Trusts fairly howl. Now, after the Trust-demanded duties are all safely in the bill, it appears that really the time is too short to throttle the Trusts this session. The clauses of the Wilson bill dealing with this subject are to be reenacted, but as they have been denounced as ineffective by Republicans over and over again, none but those who love to be deceived will be deceived. Altogether, the Republicans are getting into beautiful shape for the fall elections in the West.

"As far as I can see," said Dr. Johnson, "foreigners are fools." The Senate finance committee must think so, and that natives are fools, too, if it imagines that anybody at home or abroad will be imposed upon by the reciprocity amendment adopted on Friday. It is the final and fitting touch of humbug to what has been a work of humbug from the beginning. Observe merely how the arbitrary power given President Harrison by the McKinley reciprocity clause is slyly but thoroughly taken away from President McKinley. Mr. Harrison was empowered, whenever he might "deem" that other countries were not treating us fairly, to levy certain specified duties upon their products "for such time as he shall deem just." No more of that for Mr. McKinley. He may enter into treaties to admit "goods, wares, and merchandise" at 20 per cent. reduction of duty, but such reduction shall take effect only when such treaty or treaties "shall have been *duly ratified*." That is, the Senate retains control of the whole thing. When Senators who have moved heaven and earth to get prohibitive duties are willing to give them up, we may have reciprocity, but not till then. One more than one-third of the Senate will be able to upset any arrangement that the President may make.

Complete returns of the federal revenue and expenditure, during the fiscal year which ended June 30, enable us to measure the exact influence of the recent abnormally heavy importations under the threat of a retroactive tariff. Up to the close of February last, customs receipts during the fiscal year had fallen some $23,000,000 below the corresponding period of the year preceding. In the four months following February, on the other hand, the customs revenue ran $38,271,728 beyond the same four months in 1896; the whole year, therefore, showing on customs account a very considerable net increase. Without the threat of higher duties, supplemented by that of retroactive charges, there is no reason to suppose that revenue from imports would have risen, during these last four months, beyond the record of a year ago; it might have fallen considerably lower. There is, then, in the fiscal accounts of 1897, at least thirty-eight millions of revenue which is wholly anticipative in its nature. Unless the taxes of the fiscal year now opening prove vastly more productive than the taxes of last year, the Treasury will obviously find some trouble in making both ends meet. The estimate of the coming year's expenditure, moreover, submitted last March by the appropriations committee, showed that outlay, under the regular appropriations, will increase $11,746,629 over the fiscal year just closed. These figures sufficiently explain the worry and bewilderment visible during the past week among the financial oracles of Congress.

The great strike of bituminous-coal miners comes appropriately at the close of the debate on the new tariff bill. The rate on coal in the existing tariff is 40 per cent. ad valorem. It has been raised in the Dingley bill to 67 cents per ton, which is about double the present rate. This is intended to compensate the owners of the mines for the difference in wages between Canada and this country. As the miners here are working for 60 cents per ton, the inference is that the Canadian miners are working for nothing and paying their employers 53 cents per ton for the privilege of mining. As the tariff bill is on the eve of passage, and as the advance of wages demanded by the miners is only nine cents, the wonder is that they do not wait a few days and see whether their employers do not make the advance voluntarily. Apparently, they have not the smallest confidence in the efficacy of the tariff to increase wages, else they would postpone the strike until the Dingley bill takes effect, and then, with a copy of it in their hands, go to Senator Hanna, who regulates such things in Ohio, and confidently demand the nine cents increase of wages. If Hanna would not secure it for them, they could then go to Dingley, and if he failed them, they might rightfully appeal to the President. If Hanna, Dingley, and McKinley should all fail to secure them a petty nine cents advance in wages, after doubling the tariff on coal, it would be in order to ask them Why Not? An answer to that question would be worth millions of dollars to the laboring men of this country, not only to coal-miners, but to everybody. But instead of appealing to the political influence of Hanna to secure their end by peaceful means, we find them looking to the political necessities of Hanna to protect them against the Ohio militia in case there should be a resort to violence. It is confidently asserted that, while Mr. Hanna is a candidate for reëlection to the Senate, there will be no serious attempt to put down a riot.

The President's selection of John Russell Young to be Librarian of Congress

is the most deplorable surrender to the spoilsmen that he has yet been guilty of, and is the worst blow to civilized administration since President Harrison debauched the census by giving it over to Porter. The appointment is fitly entitled in the press "A place for Mr. Young." Precisely. He has no qualifications whatever for the position. He is nothing but a journalist who, for reasons which it is unnecessary to recall, long since ceased to hold anything like a permanent or high position in his profession. He established his "claim" upon Mr. McKinley by taking up his residence at Canton during the campaign of last year, and writing to a New York newspaper a daily letter filled with nauseating personal flattery of the Republican candidate. It would be bad enough to recognize this indecent "claim" by giving Mr. Young a political office, but to put him in charge of one of the greatest libraries in the world, just housed in a superb building, is public advertisement that that institution is to be manned by political appointees. With the librarianship itself awarded as a "place," what chance is there that the 187 subordinate positions will be filled in any other way? Mr. Spofford sought in vain to have these positions placed under civil-service regulations, in order that examinations for them might be held in the 700 cities of the country, and the Library might thus reap the inestimable advantage of securing the best expert talent that the entire country could supply. The President has overruled him, and taken the step that will go far to prevent the employment of any such talent whatever.

The President, by allying himself with Platt and his rotten machine at this time, has done all that he could to prevent the success of honest government in this city. Platt is the chief obstacle to the nomination and election on a non-partisan ticket of candidates pledged to give the city the best government possible; he is openly opposed to that kind of government, and, rather than allow it to succeed, has threatened to help Tammany to win. For the President of the United States to strengthen the hands of such a disreputable boss as Platt at the very moment when he is fighting desperately against honest government, is a most humiliating prostitution of the highest office in the land to base partisan uses. The President knows what kind of politician Platt is; knows what his methods are, and what his power rests upon. He knows that the most eminent and highly honored Republicans of this city have pronounced Platt's city organization to be so rotten, so based upon deliberately planned and wholesale frauds, that it "cannot command the confidence of the Republican party nor of the public," and that "honest and self-respecting Republicans cannot support" it; and in full knowledge of all these things, he leagues himself with Platt and not only against the honest men of his own party, but against every independent and every hard-money Democrat who voted for him last November.

The nomination by President McKinley of George R. Bidwell for Collector of the Port of New York is a case in point. The office is the most conspicuous and important place in the federal service in the metropolis of the nation, and the nation is always interested in the disposition which is made of it by each new Executive. Ever since Mr. McKinley's inauguration it has been universally recognized that his appointment to the New York collectorship would be the crucial test of his Administration, so far as the chief State in the Union is concerned. The President has given this place to a man who represents nothing but the machine which Platt has built up. This means an end of the admirable management of the great office on business principles, and the restoration of the spoils system just as far as ingenuity can evade the present restrictions. The Platt machine will now try to have the places of deputy collectors and cashiers removed from the range of competition, and there is too much reason to fear the success of the attempt. On Friday the President appointed Asa W. Tenney United States Circuit Judge of the Eastern District of New York. Mr. Tenney is a working politician of the "wheelhorse" type, whose chief claim to the position is a lifetime of "loyal devotion to the party." Nobody would ever have thought of selecting him for the position because of his legal attainments. It is very plain that Mr. McKinley is completely in the power of the bosses. They have "got him under" and they will stop at nothing in their demands upon him. President Harrison never allowed politics to interfere with his judicial appointments, and under him no such aspirant as Mr. Tenney would have stood any chance of appointment. No one seems to have proposed him to McKinley except Platt, for the appointment caused general surprise in Brooklyn and amazement in New York.

The welcome news comes from London that Croker has decided to return to this city and take charge in person of Tammany's campaign. He says, "Tammany is sure to win," and that he would not return unless he was convinced of that. This is frank and characteristic. So long as Tammany was out of power and the profits of the boss-ship were slim, he was willing that Sheehan should hold the position on a basis of joint share in the profits known only to Sheehan and himself; but the moment that he thinks there is a chance for Tammany to get back into power, he decides to resume control in order that he may get "all there is in it" for himself. It has been rumored in Tammany circles that the fortune which Croker accumulated while active boss has been much depleted by losses in horse-racing and horse-farming, and by extravagant living expenditures, and that he has been anxious to build up another one just so soon as conditions in New York would permit. Of course, we all know he built up his first one through "real-estate speculations," and it will possibly be a cheering piece of news to New York property-owners that he foresees a new opportunity of the same kind. A queer thing about the rise of his real estate is that it occurs when nobody else's appreciates in value. His return will be useful in impressing upon our voters a full realization of what the restoration of Tammany to power will mean, namely, the accumulation of new riches for Croker and Gilroy and other statesmen who are now living luxuriously upon the wealth which they got out of the business of ruling New York a few years ago.

The new civil-service rules for this State, adopted on Thursday, make the minimum marking for "merit" and "fitness" 35 per cent. for each. The appointing officers may in their discretion hold the "fitness" examination, or designate the State Civil-Service Commission to conduct both. Any appointing officer who wishes the good of the service will do the latter; any one who wishes to debauch the service will do the former. The rules provide, it is true, that he must, if he reserves the "fitness" examination for himself, certify to the commission that the ratings for fitness were determined by "competitive examination"; but as he determines what is fitness, he can easily arrange the competition so as to bring the right name out of the box. This is of course the object of the law—to restore to the appointing officer the right to pick out his own man, and relieve him from the obligation to take only a man proved fit by a test established by law. What the Court of Appeals will say to all this we do not know, but many lawyers who have examined the matter without bias have come to the conclusion that such rules constitute a mere verbal juggle, and are in flat defiance of the constitution.

To take only a single point, the new law and the rules under it are based on a totally imaginary distinction between two undistinguishable tests—that of "merit" and that of "fitness." Not only is no such distinction recognized in ordinary speech—the competitive system being generally spoken of as the "merit system," and appointments under it being said to depend on "fitness"—but the

Constitution follows the common usage in making no distinction, and describing the test as a single one of "merit and fitness" determined by competition. To our minds the scheme would have had more semblance of constitutionality if the boards had been abolished and the appointing officer in every case been directed to hold a competitive examination. However this may be, we doubt if the new system will satisfy its friends in its working. They have not got rid of a real competition as the basis of the system, and in many branches of the civil service, wherever there is an honest head of a department, the "merit" and "fitness" examinations will be blended, which will in so far defeat the spoilsmen's objects.

The Democratic State convention in Ohio last week showed anew, like previous similar gatherings in Kentucky and Iowa, that Bryanism is in complete control of the old party organization throughout the country. There were controversies over candidacies, but they involved only questions of personal influence and ambition. As regards the endorsement of the whole Chicago platform of 1896, and particularly its free-coinage plank, the convention was unanimous and enthusiastic. In this attitude Ohio Democracy is consistent with the bad record which it has made for a generation. This year, accordingly, the voters are given a choice only between a Republicanism which offers Senator Hanna as the perfect flower of the party and evades committing itself to any financial policy by "pledging anew allegiance" to the platform on which the country was carried for McKinley last year; and a Democracy which presents that embodiment of financial unsoundness, Gen. A. J. Warner, as the maker of its platform, while various millionaires squabble among themselves for control of the machine, and of the governorship and senatorship, which are at stake in the election. The only redeeming feature of the situation is the declared purpose of the National Democrats to hold a convention and nominate a ticket on the basis of the Indianapolis platform of last year.

The recent meeting of the Georgia Bar Association furnished impressive evidence of the hold of the lynching spirit upon public sentiment in the South. One of the most prominent lawyers in the State made a speech in which he openly justified the execution by the mob of any man guilty of assault upon a woman, and declared that no change in the laws or in their administration would ever stop the practice. Other members of the association showed their concurrence with these ideas, and it really looked as though a body of lawyers might endorse the theory that laws cannot be so framed or enforced as to meet all the exigencies which may arise. Happily, there was one man who realized the disgrace which threatened the association—ex-Congressman N. J. Hammond—and a vigorous protest from him turned the tide, and led to the adoption of a resolution declaring that the body "condemn lynching in all its forms."

A dreadful report it is, in the account of the jubilee naval display at Portsmouth, that the official representative of the United States navy declared that he should "advise any country proposing to make war first to ask the counsel of England." Now if Admiral Miller really uttered this terrible sentiment, he is a candidate for direct censure by the Navy Department, and happily we have in Mr. Theodore Roosevelt an official thoroughly competent to administer the proper rebuke, and explain to our naval representative in the first place that his opinion is wholly unfounded; secondly, that, supposing it had any foundation, he had no business to express it. Every good American knows that if the patriots who administer the affairs of the United States wish to go to war, they have no occasion in the world to consult England. In fact, they have no business to consult England on any subject, whether of war or peace. Consult England, indeed! Is it possible that any Admiral of ours was pusillanimous enough to be overawed by the show navy of the jubilee? But even if he had been, it is most inexpedient for any of our representatives to lead England to suppose that we have any reason for deliberation when it comes to war. Any such ill-considered speech might indicate to the grasping government of Lord Salisbury, ever eager to seize any opportunity of taking advantage of a neighbor's weakness, that we were really unprepared for war—a fact to be used only to get big appropriations, never to be blurted out in public.

The protest of the delegates from the grain, produce, and milling trades of Germany against the Boerse reform law as "a serious and unwarrantable injury to trade," and their expression of sympathy with the Berlin corn and produce dealers in the struggle forced upon them by the Government, is a matter which ought to attract a great deal of attention all over the world. The German Boerse law is a law by which the Government fixes prices. This is the dream of Socialists everywhere; and if prices are to be fixed by anybody, there are no officials in the world better fitted for the work than those of Prussia. They are strictly honest and well-educated, and are supplied by the most thorough machinery in the world with the latest and most accurate information. The intention of the law is that they shall keep prices stable—neither too high nor too low, so that they will "just about" represent the actual immediate value; this, of course, breaks up "futures" and "options." Yet what is the result? Nothing but the usual dissatisfaction among those engaged in business, who complain that the act is an interference with the laws of trade. One of the things the delegates did last week was to record the opinion that "time bargains," or options, were a necessity in fixing prices, or, in other words, that the law tended to unsettle prices.

The Government, however, is said to be prepared for this treason, and the "Agrarians" have a card up their sleeve which they should certainly now play—that is, a regular universal international price treaty to fix quotations by agreement all over the world, and to stop "options" not merely in Berlin, but "from Alpha to Omaha." This idea is derived from the bimetallic proposals which have made such headway in the last few years, but it is better because it is more comprehensive. Indeed, the two plans ought to be united; the price of silver is what the currency reformers need to fix. Options on silver may not be common, but silver must be sold on "time," and the question of the ratio would be wholly immaterial if the price could be fixed once for all at twice what it now is. The truthful Prussian *Commissar* might object to this, on the ground that telling lies about prices is out of his province, but he must be induced to waive his prejudices.

The disastrous failure of the great Socialistic glass-works at Albi, France, is accounted for by its chief promoter, M. Jaurès, as caused by a refusal of credit to the concern. Those who furnished its raw material were not willing to extend the usual credit, and so the crash came. The moral is, according to M. Jaurès, that here is another attack on the fundamental rights of man. Among those he places "the right to credit," and it must be said he has in this phrase hit upon something much more deep-reaching than the famous "right to work" of 1848. Anybody can see that the right to labor, to choose your own employers and fix your own wages, precious as it is, does not compare in significance with the right to credit. Grant that freely, and the other rights of man could be surrendered without loss. It is reported, however, that this new article of the Socialistic creed is coldly received in its very cradle, so to speak; the keepers of the *cabarets*, where society is mainly being reformed in France, say brutally that the right to credit will never do at all as far as they are concerned. Oratory may be as free as men like, but drinks mean spot cash.

MR. SHERMAN'S REPLY TO JAPAN.

Mr. Sherman's reply to the protest of Japan against the Hawaiian annexation treaty declares that the protest "strongly suggests confusion between the formal stipulations of treaties and the vested rights which the subjects of one country may acquire in another under treaty or the law of the land." He then quotes Halleck, Wheaton, and other authorities to show that the obligations of treaties expire in case either of the contracting parties loses its existence as an independent state, or in case its internal constitution is so changed as to render the treaty inapplicable to the new condition of things. "As to the vested rights," he says,

> "if any be established in favor of Japan or of Japanese subjects in Hawaii, the case is different, and I repeat what I said in my note of the 16th inst., that 'there is nothing in the proposed treaty prejudicial to the rights of Japan.' Treaties are terminable in a variety of ways; that of 1886 between Japan and Hawaii, to which your protest is supposed to relate, is denounceable by either party on six months' notice, but its extinction would no more extinguish vested rights previously acquired under its stipulations than the repeal of a municipal law affects rights of property vested under its provisions."

This reply is open to the criticism that it tells the Japanese what they know already, and refuses them information or guarantees against the danger foreseen by them, and which has led to their protest. The Japanese have not intimated that the treaties of a country survive its absorption by another, except as obligations binding upon the annexing country, in favor of rights acquired under them; and what Japan wants to be assured of is the survival of these rights. To this Mr. Sherman virtually replies, Don't be alarmed; treaties will disappear, but vested rights cannot disappear, because they are vested, and a right once vested is vested, and that is the end of it.

The correspondence which led up to this final declaration about vested rights makes the attitude of our Government in the whole dispute quite clear. On June 15 the Japanese Minister called Mr. Sherman's attention to the rumor that Hawaii was to be immediately annexed by a treaty affecting rights acquired by the Government of Japan, and by Japanese subjects, by means of treaties with Hawaii and "under the Constitution and laws of that country." He, therefore, said that he must repeat what he had already "had the honor to state" (in a previous interview), that Japan "cannot view without concern" the prospect of annexation, and must inquire what provision has been made in the treaty "for the preservation and maintenance of the rights acquired and enjoyed by Japan in her intercourse with Hawaii under the solemn sanctions of law and of treaty." To this Mr. Sherman briefly replied on June 16 that the treaty had been signed, and that, according to his understanding

> "The Government of the United States does not take upon itself any obligations of the Hawaiian Government arising from treaties or conventions made by it with other governments. It is believed that there is nothing in the treaty prejudicial to the rights of Japan."

On receiving this reply the Japanese Minister communicated with his Government, and on June 19 wrote again to our Secretary of State, stating that he had been instructed to formally protest against the annexation for the following reasons:

> "First—The maintenance of the *status quo* of Hawaii is essential to the good understanding of the Powers which have interests in the Pacific.
>
> "Second—The annexation of Hawaii would tend to endanger the residential, commercial, and industrial rights of Japanese subjects in Hawaii, secured to them by treaty and by the Constitution and laws of that country.
>
> "Third—Such annexation might lead to the postponement by Hawaii of the settlement of claims and liabilities already existing in favor of Japan under treaty stipulations."

Mr. Sherman's reply to this protest, which we have analyzed above, deals mainly with the second and third of these points. We have not thought it worth while to go into what he says about the first, because obviously Japan knows just as much about what is essential to the good understanding of the Powers which have interests in the Pacific as Mr. Sherman does. This branch of the protest is merely a polite way of saying that the maintenance of the *status quo* is essential to the continuance of a good understanding between Japan and the United States. There is no reply to such a statement, except the one which Mr. Sherman makes, that the Powers other than Japan have not objected; which is merely tantamount to saying that as long as nobody but Japan protests, the understanding is good enough for our purposes.

The sum and substance of the whole correspondence is that we snap our fingers at Japan. It must be remembered that there is no such thing as a right to annex a country, and that Japan, if its interests are affected, has just as much right to prevent our annexing as we have to annex. So far as interests go, Japan has apparently greater interests than we. Consequently, when we talk of the effect of annexation in wiping out a treaty, all that we mean is that we are going to wipe it out, and that the Japanese can do what they please about it; when we say that "vested rights" under the treaty will be preserved, we mean that our courts and legislatures will respect what they regard as vested rights, and no others. In other words, the Japanese rights in Hawaii are now protected by treaties having behind them, of course, the readiness of Japan to prevent their violation; for this we propose to substitute our will. What the precise result may be, what view the courts and Congress may take of the whole subject of Japanese rights in Hawaii, is neither here nor there. We propose to dispose of those rights ourselves. If Japan objects, and we refuse to discuss the matter, we defy her. But defiance is the very "note" of the new foreign policy, and this is what gives our dispute with Japan most of its importance. Another marked feature of it is contempt for all treaties, or rights acquired under them, which would interfere with a general attitude of defiance. If England objects to our taking possession of the Nicaragua route, and points to the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, defy her to do anything about it; if half-a-dozen foreign governments protest against our tariff, and recall the "most-favored nation" clause, pay no attention to what they say; if Japan makes a polite inquiry about her rights in Hawaii, laugh at her.

It is a fact observed long before Mr. Sherman was born, that governments whose power rests on corruption and intrigue, and which, therefore, need to divert public attention from domestic affairs, generally try to do it by means of a violent foreign policy. This they expect will make them popular at home. But as it is not the violence but the success of a foreign policy which makes it popular, and as the corruption by which they live prevents their permanent success in anything, the end is not usually what they hope for.

THE FISCAL YEAR 1897.

With Wednesday, June 30, closed the Government's fiscal year 1897. The excess of expenditures over receipts for this fiscal year, reported at Washington on Thursday, was $18,623,108, against a deficit of $25,203,245 in the fiscal year 1896, $42,805,223 in 1895, and $69,803,260 in 1894, the low level of our Government's finances. This steady cutting down of the annual deficit has resulted chiefly from the natural increase in the revenue as trade revived; the receipts of 1897, for instance, rising some $68,000,000 over those of 1894. As compared, however, with the two preceding fiscal years, the rising revenue has been seriously handicapped by the renewed extravagance of the Congress whose term expired last March. Between 1894 and 1896, annual Government expenditures had been cut down upwards of $15,000,000; for the fiscal year just closed, the Fifty-fourth Congress deliberately increased the annual outlay nearly fourteen millions, and, unfortunately, the appropriations for the coming year are even larger.

Nevertheless, results for the fiscal year just closed are far more favorable than seemed possible a year ago. In submitting his estimates to Congress, December 15, 1896, Secretary Carlisle predicted for the year ending June 30, 1897, on the basis of existing laws, a total revenue of $318,000,000, total expenditure

of $382,500,000, and hence a deficit of $64,500,000. As a matter of fact, the revenue has run twenty-nine millions beyond his estimate, while expenditure has fallen nearly seventeen millions below it. So far as the revenue is concerned, it is clear that "existing laws" have not applied; for since the opening of March, customs receipts have nearly doubled under the whip of the retroactive tariff clause. In the matter of expenditure, the Secretary based his estimate on very insufficient data—a criticism which must stand against the great majority of his financial forecasts. The fact, however, that the revenue this year has been artificially expanded upwards of thirty millions by customs receipts normally chargeable to the coming fiscal year, and that appropriations for the coming year have been materially increased over 1897, throws considerable doubt over next year's results. Senator Aldrich has with sufficient clearness pointed out these doubts to Congress.

Very rarely has any nation witnessed such extraordinary ups and downs of fortune as have befallen our Treasury during the past ten years. In 1888 the Secretary's annual report showed a surplus of income over expenditure, before meeting the sinking-fund requirement, of $119,612,116; in 1894 this surplus had become a deficit of $69,803,260. This represented a change for the worse upon the Treasury's annual balance-sheet, within six years, of upwards of $189,000,000—a fluctuation, we are confident, never before experienced by a modern state except in time of war. It is true, our revenue system is peculiarly sensitive to industrial conditions. The surplus revenue in 1870 was $101,601,917; in 1874, a year marked, like the fiscal year 1894, by the low ebb of trade depression, the surplus fell to $2,344,882. In both these panic years the decrease in the ordinary sources of revenue was exceptionally great, simply because the blight upon the nation's consuming power dried up the springs of revenue from both home and foreign trade. There is, however, one striking difference in the finances of these two periods—a difference which goes far to explain both the enormous deficits of recent years, which did not occur in 1874, and the recent prolongation of the troubles of the Treasury. The decrease in the federal revenue during the panic periods of the seventies was very heavy; much heavier, in fact, than the decrease after 1888. But this fall of revenue a generation since was largely offset by decrease in the annual expenditure, between 1870 and 1874, of $22,500,000. No one will fail to remember how very differently the Congresses of recent times dealt with this question of expenditure. Between 1888 and 1894, the annual revenue declined some $81,500,000; within the very same period, annual expenditure actually increased nearly $108,000,000. The Government's disbursements on ordinary account, under the appropriations of the last Congress, have reached this very fiscal year a total of $13,000,000 in excess of the outlay during 1896.

There is no use in blinking these facts. Had the Congress of 1890 and the two ensuing years placed even a moderate restraint upon the tendency to extravagance, the surplus would indeed have been heavily reduced, but no such embarrassment as a forty or sixty million deficit would have been heard of. This is no matter of mere assertion; the Treasury's own returns are witness to it. There was in 1894 a deficit of $69,803,260; had annual expenditure been in 1894 what it was in 1888, the Treasury would have returned at the year's close no deficit whatever, but a surplus of $38,068,061. In this fiscal year 1897 the Treasury reports a deficit of $18,600,000; if the year's expenditures, instead of rising to the $365,000,000 shown by the annual report, had been kept down to the $259,653,958 returned in the report of 1888, its operations would have left a handsome surplus revenue of $87,000,000.

We appeal to the common sense of our public men and newspaper critics to demand that an end be put to the humbug about "deficient revenue." The individual who lives habitually and deliberately beyond his means will always find his revenue deficient when settlement-day comes around; if his income rise to fifty thousand, against a bare five thousand a few years since, he will still be borrowing and struggling with his creditors. In private life no phenomenon is more familiar; but the principle applies no less distinctly to governments than to individuals.

Eight or nine years ago, the cry was raised on every stump and in every market that the Government's revenue was too large, and there was ample ground for the complaint. A very unjust and stupid bill was introduced to cut down this excessive revenue; but unjust and stupid as it was, it did after a fashion serve its purpose. Congress, however, did not stop with that. The instant it was learned that the Administration had instructed a willing Congress to "reduce the surplus," an army of pension jobbers and lobbying contractors descended on the capitol to tell the nation's legislators how to manage the reduction. Within five years—from 1888 to 1893—the annual expenditure for pensions had increased $78,069,049, while annual miscellaneous disbursements, including all the huge contractors' undertakings, had risen $30,780,539.

That this was done at the very moment when the spokesman of the party then in control of legislation was estimating a reduction of $42,000,000 in the annual revenue, would seem to argue something not far short of legislative insanity. Yet it was these very congressional Pecksniffs who turned mournfully to the people, when financial panic had set its seal on their own stupid extravagance, and lifted up their voices to bewail the "deficit-making administration" which had inherited the wreck from them. If good times in general trade return, we shall undoubtedly see, with or without a Dingley tariff, a heavy increase in the revenue; we may report another surplus. But how long does any one suppose a surplus will continue with the appropriation machinery of Congress in its present state? Is it to be conceived that legislators who will increase annual public outlay $26,000,000 within two years, on the heels of a $69,000,000 deficit, will turn their greedy eyes away from an exchequer which reports a surplus?

ABUSE OF THE TAXING POWER.

None of the principles laid down and enforced in Mr. D. A. Wells's articles on taxation now appearing in the *Popular Science Monthly* is more important than that of singleness of purpose. As he states it, the power of taxation should not be invoked for police purposes, but should be strictly limited to the raising of revenue to meet legitimate state expenditures. The wisdom of this rule is illustrated by Mr. Wells through many references to judicial decisions and to the experience of the past. But the experience of the present, as shown by the debate now going on in the Senate over the tariff bill, and, indeed, by the bill itself, is perhaps more suggestive than anything that has hitherto taken place in our history. The pages of the *Congressional Record* are crammed with crude arguments for accomplishing all sorts of ends under the form of raising revenue, and some account of these arguments may be of service in drawing popular attention to the mischiefs on which Mr. Wells dilates.

The cry which many of our statesmen now believe to be most popular is, of course, that against trade combinations to raise prices and to secure monopolies. On this issue the Republican party necessarily occupies an invidious position. It is in the act of adopting a measure that is undeniably intended to raise prices by eliminating competition, and its opponents are untiring in their attempts to expose the encouragement to trade combinations which such measures involve. As the Republicans profess no less zeal than their opponents in the campaign against these combinations, the dilemma presented to them is certainly an awkward one, but the dialectical skill which they exhibit in avoiding it and in beclouding the whole subject, must command admiration. Under the pressure of debate they have finally secured a strategic position that must be regarded as substantially impregnable, at least so far as the artillery of the Populists is concerned.

The chief features of this position are as follows: Nothing is more detestable than a combination to raise prices; but every American must concede that a combination of foreigners for this purpose when they are supplying our markets is more shocking than a combination among our own citizens. If we are to be plundered, it is obviously better that the spoils should be kept in our own country. We may, perhaps, be able to compel some of our wicked corporations to disgorge a part of their ill-gotten gains, or even to prevent them from carrying out their nefarious conspiracies. But the foreigners are beyond our control. We cannot make them restore their plunder, and in some of the effete monarchies of Europe, trade combinations to regulate prices are actually encouraged and protected by law. But if we put high duties on the goods which they sell to us, we have them at a disadvantage. We can then restore to our people some of the money which has been extorted from them if imports continue; and if we exclude foreign competition, it is the A B C of protective doctrine that our own citizens will then eagerly compete with one another and bring down prices to a satisfactory level.

Senator Platt of Connecticut has stated this argument in a most telling way. Soda ash is a commodity much used in the manufacture of soap, and large quantities are now imported. The bill before the Senate imposes a tax of three-eighths of a cent a pound on this article, which, selling in Liverpool at one-fifth of a cent a pound, there would result an estimated protection of 185 per cent. By one of the curious inconsistencies that mar the symmetry of the protective system, this statement was presented to the Senate by Mr. Sewell of New Jersey, with the additional information that all the soda ash in this country was made by three large corporations. By one of the defects that equally disfigure the application of Populism, Senator Stewart of Nevada supported the increased duty, with the cheerful remark, "Do not be afraid of Nevada getting too much." But Senator Platt was equal to the occasion. He routed the opposition with the statement that the United Alkali Company of Great Britain was the most powerful Trust or combination in the world, "probably the closest and most grinding monopoly on the face of the earth." Those who opposed the duty of 185 per cent. were therefore trying to destroy the manufacture in this country in order that it might be entirely monopolized by this abominable foreign combination. Were they successful in reducing the duty, this monstrous corporation would crush the American manufacture and then raise the price of soap to the American people higher than it ever was before.

We confess that Senator Platt seems to us to have got the better of the anti-monopoly Senators. They made no attempt to meet this argument, and it is difficult to see what answer they could make. Senator Lindsay did indeed point out that the importation of soda ash had declined one-third under the present tariff; but Senator Lindsay probably believes in discouraging monopoly by having free trade, and his argument was irrelevant from the anti-monopoly standpoint. From that point of view the chief aim of a revenue bill is to strike down combinations. If it can be shown that they will be checked by protective duties, then protective duties must be applied. Fallacy for fallacy, we do not see why that of the Republicans should not be more popular than that of their opponents. We must have revenue, and if it be true, as the Populists contend, that every branch of trade is now in the hands of corporate monopolies, the proposal to take off all duties on commodities in the manufacture or sale of which a combination exists would bankrupt the Treasury. The Republican tariff bill is a discreditable and injurious measure; but many of the arguments used against it in the Senate are based on quite as mischievous a theory of the taxing power as that of the protectionists. In truth, at bottom these theories are the same.

MUNICIPAL OWNERSHIP.

The second issue of *Municipal Affairs*, published quarterly by the Reform Club of New York, contains a discussion of municipal policy that is of unusual interest. On the one hand, Mr. Edward M. Grout argues that New York should own the gas supply. On the other hand, Mr. Allen Ripley Foote contends that no government should operate an industry. The very titles of these arguments show the chaotic state of thought upon the whole subject of municipal policy. The issue between the combatants is not clearly apprehended. Mr. Foote may succeed in proving his point; but Mr. Grout's point relates to ownership, not to operation. As a matter of fact the contestants do meet at close-quarters; but their differences are for the most part over matters of fact, although some of their principles are irreconcilable.

The claim that cities should own the chief appliances for promoting the welfare and convenience of their inhabitants, like the agitation in favor of progressive taxation of rents, has its origin in the concentration of wealth and population resulting from the immense development of the means of transportation. This concentration has greatly increased the value of land in our cities, and it has at the same time increased the value of such rights in land as have been acquired by the gas companies and the street railways. To a considerable extent, although not to the degree assumed by Mr. Grout, these rights are exclusive, like the ownership of land in general, and unless properly regulated may result in oppressive monopolies. Probably there would now be quite general assent to the abstract proposition that no grant of exclusive rights should be made by a city, or for a city by the State Legislature, without provision for terminating the grant at some future period and at some fixed price. The conviction that there is an "unearned increment," an increased value arising from the general advance in civilization, and not from the exertions of proprietors, is now too strong to make it safe to grant franchises in perpetuity and for no apparent consideration, were it otherwise desirable to do so.

While this conviction will probably check such grants in the future, it is too hasty to assume that the purchase of existing plants and franchises is desirable. We must remember that the rate of interest has now fallen to a lower point than ever before, and that we cannot look for an indefinite increase in the value of lands or franchises. The franchise of the elevated railroad may presently lose much of its value by the construction of an underground system. The gas companies may suffer from new discoveries in lighting, Hardly anything but water is certain to be needed in the same form and under the same conditions as at present. For these reasons the policy of purchasing the rights of existing "monopolies" is a dangerous one. The city may make bad bargains, and although it may seem wealthy because of its landed possessions, it is, strictly speaking, no better off than if the title of these were vested in individual citizens. The sum total of wealth would be the same, and to regard the city as a whole as richer on this account, is like reckoning the national debt as a part of the national wealth. The rents received by the municipality would be no greater than those received by private owners, and whether the disposition of these rents would be more for the general good or not, experience proves would depend on circumstances.

It does not seem to be always recognized in these discussions, that charges made by a city for necessaries, such as gas and transportation, must be sufficient to meet all expenses, whether the books are properly kept or not. Some cities, like Philadelphia, figure out a profit on their gas business by omitting to allow for taxes and interest on plant. But whatever remission of taxes or disregard of interest so takes place has to be somehow made up. The taxes on individual citizens must be increased until the losses are repaid, and under such circumstances gas may be nominally cheap and really expensive. Disregard of these obvious truths vitiates almost all the statistics on this subject,

and both Mr. Grout and Mr. Foote are occasionally misled by imperfect data. Mr. Grout, following Mr. Albert Shaw, omits an item of some 221,000,000 francs from the capitalization of the Paris gas company; but Mr. Foote, triumphantly exposing this error, appears to have fallen into another by including contributions to a sinking fund under the head of dividends.

In the case of Philadelphia, it is difficult to resist Mr. Foote's conclusion that the actual cost of gas to the citizens is $1.479 per 1,000 feet, although they nominally pay but $1. To this Mr. Grout has no answer to make, except one that cuts the ground from under his own feet. He admits that the city government has the matter in its own hands, and explains its failure to manage better as due to corrupt influences. It is obvious that these influences are a constantly acting cause, and unless this cause can be removed our municipal governments are not likely to give us good businesslike administration. As Mr. Foote says, "If the Government is not strong enough nor wise enough to regulate and supervise the business of a monopoly properly, it is not strong nor wise enough to own and operate the business of a monopoly economically." It is absurd to say, as Mr. Grout does, that corporations are the cause of misgovernment. The bad character of the men chosen by the people as their representatives is the cause, and all schemes to improve our government that do not make allowance for this fact will prove futile.

In addition to their liability to political influences, industrial enterprises conducted by Government must necessarily be carried on without the stimulus to efficiency and economy furnished by the desire of making a profit. Every private enterprise must either fail or return a profit on the capital invested. Hence the persons engaged in it are constantly on the alert to improve their methods and to diminish their expenses. If they do not give their attention to this, they will presently find themselves deprived of their occupation and their wealth. But as all governmental undertakings must be carried on under legislative direction, the employees are prevented from introducing that elasticity which is essential to success in modern business. Nor have they any particular inducement to labor for economy. Their compensation does not depend on the profitableness of the service which they render. The public business goes on without interruption, although it may be evidently a losing business, and it would be unjust to punish public officers for results due not so much to their lack of ability and zeal as to difficulties inherent in the system of carrying on business under legislative direction.

The subject touched upon by Messrs. Grout and Foote is a very broad one, and it is quite evident that it will arouse very earnest discussion. We have merely glanced at some of its aspects for the purpose of directing attention to the fact that the principles determining municipal policy are the elementary and fundamental principles of government and of human nature. Comparisons of statistical returns, as at present made, are as confusing as the evidence of expert witnesses under our present system of employing them *ex parte*. Before we can judge of the success of municipalities, either in this country or in others, in carrying on their public works, we need to have their accounts and reports examined by competent auditors. If *Municipal Affairs* will promote examinations of this kind, it will render the cause of good municipal government much service.

TITLES.

Arkansas is probably the last place in the world where one would have expected to find evidences of a movement to restrict the use of titles. Hence, the mere fact that the State teachers' convention at Little Rock has raised the question of the right of those other than teachers in colleges and universities to the title of "Professor," and has decided it in the negative, cannot but be regarded as significant. The decision itself is not very important, for the limitation laid down in it is so generous and elastic that it would take in almost every one known among his friends as a professor; but the fact that the question raises a doubt in Arkansas, and calls for consideration, is an indication that the whole American way of looking at titles is changing.

There was a time, not so very long ago either, when it was hard to say whether titles in this country were looked upon seriously at all. There was practically a voluntary system of titles, under which, if a man chose to call himself, or was called by his friends, Professor, Colonel, Captain, Major, or Commodore, he became entitled to rank socially as such, and to question his right would have been an impertinence, tending in many parts of the country, not merely to a breach of the peace, but to murder. All foreign critics and social caricaturists noticed this peculiarity and made great fun of it. Was it not the gallant Colonel Diver who published the daily *Sewer*, which used to give an account in extras of the horsewhippings of which he was the victim? But did we ourselves take these titles seriously? We doubt it. We knew that they were not real, but, at the same time, we half expected visitors to enter into the spirit of our little social deception, and were rather surprised when they failed to do so. We were prone to attribute their failure to the dulness common among foreigners, especially in the case of the English.

One reason which made it difficult for them to appreciate our system was that it existed nowhere else. In every other country titles were regarded as serious matters, and always had been. Even in France under the first Republic, when titles of nobility were abolished and Frenchmen and Frenchwomen called each other "Citizen" and "Citizeness," they did not introduce a new voluntary system; they did not call each other by militia, or marine, or educational titles. The American system was the first of its kind in the world, and, while it lasted, seemed admirably adapted to our circumstances. The trouble was that our circumstances changed. Steam and the telegraph brought us into close relations with all the other countries in the world, and, just as this had an effect on alienating us from dearly loved old institutions like slavery, so it affected our attachment to our own title system.

The historical method must be applied without fear or favor, and not even patriotism will permit us to doubt that the old American voluntary system of titles is disappearing, as it comes more and more into conflict with the European systems. Is there anything to take its place except some real system like theirs, but based on our actual life and manners? Some such real system the Arkansas teachers must have had in mind.

What that system will be, when completely evolved and perfected, it would be foolish to attempt to predict, but there are many things which it will certainly not be. It will not, for instance, be English, because English titles are mainly hereditary; and so deeply rooted in the English mind is the worship of family, ancestry, and breeding that in England a title obtained by inheritance is more valued than a title obtained by merit—perhaps because anybody may get a title by merit, but nobody in the world but the Duke of Norfolk's son can be the Duke of Norfolk. Military and naval titles come next, and last of all come the educational titles so much affected in Germany and with us. An Englishman does not think much of teaching, and many an English professor prefers to see "Esq." after his name rather than "Prof." before it.

In France, under the Republic, hereditary titles have been again abolished, but those who are in the "swim" and in the "know" are very careful to keep up the traditions of hereditary France. On the Faubourg, a duke is still a duke, and there are really in France two systems of titles, one that of the old world and one that of the existing official régime. But, strangely enough, the old is socially still the more real of the two. We cannot import anything of the sort into this country.

In Germany there is an hereditary system and a military system (there is, of course, a military system in every country), and a system in which the title is derived from the occupation or station or position. The first is so elaborate that nobody can safely address a letter to a person of good birth and inherited title in Germany without getting the assistance of a German in his "set." The last is, to a foreigner, very complicated. To call a professor's wife "Professorin" seems, to our ideas, a singular custom, and the various titles connected with civil functions are very complicated. The German system is not for us.

If we were to hazard a guess, we should say that in the end the idea which is evidently at the bottom of the Arkansas attempt at classification would be most likely to triumph; that is, that nothing but real titles—*i. e.*, titles conferred by some one or some body held in respect—would survive. This is the exact opposite of the old voluntary system, under which any one took what title he pleased, and which is more or less in vogue now. Political and professional titles, like Governor, Senator, or Judge, may stick to a man after he is out of office, and even for life, but there is nothing to oblige him or any one else to use them, and they have some reality behind them. Hereditary titles do not and cannot exist; military and naval titles are generally real now, when there are any; and "Professor" will, we fancy, in time be limited more and more to those who get it by holding known positions in the world of education. On the whole, we are lucky to be free of many of the questions about titles which complicate life in Europe so much. Certainly we are not oppressed as yet by them.

GEORGE MARTIN LANE.

In the death of Prof. Lane in Cambridge on Wednesday, June 30, Harvard loses one of her oldest and most loyal sons, the last of the great teachers whose term of service began in the middle of the century. George Martin Lane was born in Charlestown, Mass., in 1823, on December 24 (the birthday, as he was wont to remark, of the Emperor Galba), and graduated from Harvard College in the class of 1846. After graduation he gave some instruction in Latin in the college, and then went to Göttingen, where he received the degree of Ph.D. in 1851. His doctor's thesis, entitled *Smyrnacorum res gestae et antiquitates*, still remains an authority, and is cited as such in the latest German handbooks on ancient history and geography. In the same year he was appointed University professor of Latin in Harvard College, became Pope professor in 1869, and resigned in 1894, receiving the degree of LL.D. and the title of emeritus professor. He was thus engaged in the active duties of his profession for more than forty-three years, and even after his retirement he gave valuable instruction to the most advanced students of the classics in the Graduate School.

As a teacher, Prof. Lane had all that fine literary appreciation which characterizes the English school, combined, however, with the minute and exact knowledge of the Germans. Besides his never-failing good nature, he had two gifts which, perhaps more than any others, awoke the admiration of his undergraduate pupils—his prodigious memory and his great originality of thought. He seemed familiar with every literature, and apposite quotations from the most various sources, now drawn, maybe, from the New England Primer, and now from the greatest of the classics, were made to illuminate the passage under discussion. The atmosphere of his class-room was thus distinctly literary, and his teaching had none of that deadly dulness which is too often the product of German learning. It was seasoned, too, with his own peculiar wit, of which so many legends come rising to the mind of every Harvard man. But it never degenerated into literary twaddle, and nobody hated looseness of method and inexactness of statement more than he. To his originality many scholars widely scattered over the land can bear testimony, recalling that it was he who first showed them that there were things to be learned that were not to be found set down in any book—that he initiated them, in fact, into the modern methods of individual research, and taught them to seek the truth for themselves. He rarely wasted time in putting questions which could be answered offhand; he never hesitated to suggest problems which nobody present, not even himself, could solve. He made it clear that there were vast untrodden fields on every side, and tempted his pupils on to exploration.

The originality which Prof. Lane displayed in his teaching was preëminent, too, in his character as a scholar. Although he was perfectly familiar with the modern literature of his subjects, and kept up to the last his acquaintance with the most recent authorities, American and foreign, yet it was evident that he made unto himself no idols. *Nullius addictus iurare in verba magistri*, his reading in the classics was so wide and intelligent, and he had pondered upon them so long and deeply, that he was thoroughly permeated with their modes of expression as well as with their thought and spirit. Besides this fundamental, he had the keenest critical acumen, so that his colleagues and correspondents accepted his dicta (modestly expressed, as they always were) like the deliverances of an oracle. He was known for his free and ready communication of the results of his studies, and a timely word from him has saved many a scholar from the publication of mistaken theories or ill-digested views. It is owing, too, to his teaching and reputation, probably more than to any other factor, that the schools and colleges of this country have shaken off the barbarian "English pronunciation" of the Latin tongue. A still greater gift to scholarship at large was his generous coöperation in the production of Harper's Latin lexicons, the second of which was dedicated to him by his friend, the grateful editor. Prof. Lane read over and corrected a great part of the large lexicon in proof; of his assistance on the School lexicon (by far the more original and trustworthy book) Dr. Lewis writes in his preface that "if it shall be found, within its prescribed limits, to have attained in any degree that fulness, that minute accuracy, and that correspondence with the ripest scholarship and the most perfect methods of instruction which are its aims, the result is largely due to his [Prof. Lane's] counsel and assistance."

Regret has often been expressed that Prof. Lane published so little under his own name, and regret was deepened when one read, at rare intervals, some printed word of his in elucidation of a difficulty or in emendation of a corrupt passage, and appreciated the skilful and convincing manner in which the thing was done. All who have sat under him know that he was very happy in the art of emendation; and those who have been vouchsafed a look at his favorite texts of the authors, cannot but feel that a rich crop of marginalia might be gleaned from them. But it was for a work of a different sort that his friends and the friends of classical education had long been looking to him—for his Latin grammar. There is no doubt that the delay in the publication of this book was due to the author's vast knowledge, increasing with his years, of the subject on which he was engaged. This, together with his horror of inexactness and of the preaching of false doctrine, led him to turn his stylus so often, and to correct and amplify so much in obedience to new discoveries in phonetics and in syntax, that as a result he no longer lives to see his book appear. It is good to know, however, that his labors are not wasted; for the work, long in type, is to be, we understand, a posthumous publication. Thus, even in the future, his teaching will continue as unselfishly as in the past.

This was, indeed, a great teacher and scholar, but by no means one of those who confine themselves for ever to the austere retreat of wisdom. He threw off the mantle as easily as he had worn it in the professor's chair. His broad, general culture, his geniality, and his never-failing politeness and *savoir-faire* made him a delightful companion. A walk with him in the college yard or in the streets of Cambridge was a unique experience in its kind. Nothing escaped his observation, and his knowledge of the history of both town and gown was almost as remarkable in its minutiæ as his knowledge of Latin itself. A good-sized book might easily have been filled with the anecdotes which he alone could tell to perfection. He knew or had known everybody who was worth knowing (and many who were not); wherever he went he was a welcome and respected guest; but above all he was *intus domique praestantior*. Where his friendship was once given, it was loyal and never swerving, and no man had warmer and more devoted friends than he. He was renowned for his wit and humor, even from those early days of "Clover Den" wherein he lived with Whitney, Winlock, and Gould—the den which saw the legendary Roman dinner, in the days when he wrote the famous ballad of the "Lone Fishball." But inimitable as he was in the hour of mirth, he was acquainted, too, with sorrow; and his own deep afflictions, borne like a brave man, had taught him to be a gentle and tender sympathizer with the sick or the bereaved. Thus, after a useful life, in an honored old age, a loving and beloved friend, he has gone—a master after whom many a voice cries out the due "Si placeo, tuum est."

IN BOSNIA.

JUNE, 1897.

"And where *is* Bosnia?" This is the ques-

tion which greets the traveller on his return from that far-away province. Geographically speaking, Bosnia lies between latitude 42° 30′ and 45° 15′ north, and longitude 16° and 21° east. But to him whose memory is full of visions of lofty mountains, of wild and picturesque valleys, of tall, white minarets and snowy domes, of streets gay with turbans and haunted by mysteriously veiled females, such an answer seems inexpressive and inadequate. Bosnia? It lies in the sunshine, it is where skies are blue, and costumes bright; and you reach it by a journey which grows constantly more interesting and delightful, even when one is weary and hungry and sleepy after the long thirty-six hours' ride from Vienna.

M. Guillaume Capus, writing in *Le Tour du Monde*, prefaces his articles with this quotation from Roqueplan: "Description teaches nothing to those who have not seen, and disarranges the impressions of those who have." Nevertheless, M. Capus takes heart of grace, and in some six long and interesting numbers describes his visit to Bosnia and Herzegovina. Not being M. Capus, the present writer has the audacity only to present a few of the impressions received during a month's sojourn in that far-away region, and asks kind indulgence for an enthusiasm (perhaps too great) over this first glimpse of the Orient, this first taste of the East lying at the very gate of the West, and held so firmly just now in Austria's grasp.

The history of Bosnia is a long one, dating to the early centuries before Christ. Ruins and bridges of the period of Roman occupation are still found, and many curious relics are preserved in the Government museum at Serayevo. In 1389 the country fell under the sway of the Turks, and passed through many vicissitudes. In 1697 the army of Prince Eugene invested the capital city, Serayevo, and many memories connected with that war centre here. By the treaty of 1878, the two provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina, at that time belonging to Turkey, were placed under the *protection* of Austria. "Under its heel," we might add, when the army officers say, so proudly, "The Turks? They cannot so much as move a stone in the road without our consent!" But, at all events, the heel, which certainly is of iron, is softly shod, for in many ways the Austrians do well and kindly by their vassals. It is true that one must not speak lightly of the powers above; an unwise or hasty word may be followed by swift disappearance and imprisonment. One cannot forget that the sway is military when the traveller is challenged at his entrance into or exit from the railway stations. But, often, one loses sight of all this, and thinks only of the hundred improvements and conveniences, and the paternal interest of the Government, which have characterized the Austrian rule.

Leaving Vienna early one morning, by eleven o'clock the following day one is in Serayevo, the capital of Bosnia. From the dawning of that second day all is novelty and charm. Through wild and beautiful scenery, past Doboi and Maglai and under the frowning fortress of Vranduk, the train speeds on. Mists are rising from behind the lofty rocks on which stands this fortress of Vranduk. The streets in the little town are so steep that mothers are wont to tie their children fast, lest they slip down its perilous ways. And now at the railroad stations, as the train stops, come graceful young girls in Turkish costume, bearing trays of coffee in dainty cups, and surely never nectar was more welcome than this sweet, strong beverage, after our weary night of travel. One sees also the tiny water-mills, which are equal to the small amount of work required for each little farm. There are, too, the steep-roofed houses, and everywhere the strange and picturesque costumes. The mountains about Serayevo are very beautiful, rising one behind the other, till ten ranges can be distinguished as one stands on a hill overlooking the city.

We alight at the railroad station, and are soon driving through the streets. The town fairly bristles with minarets, slender and white, which give an Oriental air to the place, and are in perfect harmony with the turbaned or closely veiled Turks, men and women, who throng the streets. The charm of a first walk is great. In the town itself Austrian improvements are everywhere, but as one wanders up the steep hill-sides, over the rough and stony paths, on all hands is food for pencil and brush. Hark! the tinkle of bells, as a poor, overladen donkey or horse toils up the hill, often so heavily laden that a mow of hay seems moving itself, and it is only later that one sees the patient legs beneath. Then a group of women in dark green robes, with boots of brilliant yellow leather, and white veils closely enshrouding head and shoulders, pass you by. Through slits in these veils, dark and curious eyes peer at you, and sometimes one less timid than her neighbor will come up and give you a friendly pat. One feels that beauty must be hidden beneath, but an occasional accidental glimpse proves the fallacy of such a general impression. Some lovely faces there are, however, among the young girls, whom custom permits to walk out only partially veiled. Here is a little maiden bearing on her head a plank full of loaves of unbaked bread. She is on her way to the baker's, where they will soon be ready for her again.

As in other lands, curiosity is rife over the artist at work, and a group of critics gathers beside the painter. "Dobra, dobra," they pronounce it, in approval, and point out to each other whatever strikes their fancy in the picture. But one and all refuse to pose, and the effort to secure a sketch "on the wing" may result most disastrously for the poor artist. Laying down palette, canvas, and brushes to get from the paint-box some necessary pigment, with lightning rapidity the bare hand of the little maid may wipe out the sketch; and up the steep, stony street, her high-heeled wooden slippers clattering gayly and her merry laughter ringing out, may flee the unwilling model herself.

These dark-clothed, white-veiled women, leading their children by the hand and carrying their house-key with them, are great visitors, and seem to have happy times of their own, though one cannot but wonder what is their talk, and what their joys and sorrows. The mode in Serayevo known as the Damascus style is more curious than beautiful. Bosnian ladies who affect the latest fashion appear in full skirt and a shorter overskirt which they turn up over their heads, while the face is covered with a thin handkerchief of gay color and commonly of a large flower pattern, so thin that they can see and breathe through it, but so good a disguise on account of its floral pattern (of which a large rose or chrysanthemum is usually just over the nose) that they are completely veiled.

Serayevo is rich in mosques, some large and in good repair, others neglected and deserted; more than a hundred minarets rise from the town. There seem to be two styles of building; some mosques have the tall, white minarets and domes, others are of gray shingle, with octagonal minarets and the front adorned with color and with inscriptions from the Koran. The largest and finest is the Begova Dzamia, near the market. A beautiful old lime tree shades a fountain in the court-yard, and here one finds the curious standard of measurement, a long stone on which the true "arshin" is marked. Hither, from the market, come any disputants as to the measurement of purchased goods, and from it there is no appeal. Among so many it is hard to choose one mosque rather than another for description. All are interesting; that of the "Seven Brothers" one remembers by the seven green turbans placed at the head of as many benches in a little side addition to the mosque.

Another picture is stamped upon the memory: a still, clear night, the moon at the full, yet with a brilliancy of stars as well, the dark mountain ranges silhouetted against the sky, seeming ready to topple over upon us. Up the steep, steep streets we go, through the almost painful silence, now a snowy minaret gleaming on our right, now another at the foot of some dark, narrow by-way glinting out upon our left; beside the mosque a lonely Turkish graveyard, with its stone turbans marking the resting-place of the men, and its larger shrines for the saints. The women, whose souls are a questionable, uncertain thing in the Turkish mind, are marked by a smaller, simpler stone. Within this mosque, on Thursday nights, may be seen the curious dance of the dervishes, who work themselves up gradually into a perfect frenzy, or the quieter prayers and prostrations of ordinary worshippers.

Of these mental photographs, which are a lasting possession, we recall that of the pilgrims returning from Mecca. To see Mecca and die, if need be, is, to the Turk, the highest ambition, the loftiest aim. Old, old men, who have dreamed of it for years, spend the savings of those years and the last strength of life in attaining this coveted distinction. The Austrian Government interests itself, and does much to further the pilgrimage by reducing railway fares, but a large part of the journey must be made by sea, and many who start do not live to return. The streets are crowded with those ready to welcome the returning pilgrims. Around the beautiful Ali-Pasha Mosque, beneath the trees, is a perfect wealth of color, in fez and turban, sash and jacket. At the railway station all is life and bustle. Far away, along the horizon, lie the blue mountains, with flitting cloud shadows checkering their slopes. At last the ringing of the bell, and all press forward to greet the pilgrims. Almost before the train stops and the doors are flung open, they are seizing and embracing their dear ones. Travel-stained and dusty, worn and weary, some almost dead, they come forth and are welcomed with a truly Oriental effusiveness. Kissed on cheeks and shoulders, handed from one to another of the glad welcomers, they go with a look of happiness and content, satisfied at last. Now death may come when it will; they wear the green

scarf of the hadji from shoulder to waist, and henceforth life can hold nothing more to hope for or attain. The Austrian burgomaster makes them an address of welcome, and they repair to the Ali-Pasha Mosque for a thanksgiving, and then turn homewards. Their womankind are all abroad too, but hold themselves aloof and do not mingle with the men. So home and to sleep.

The Turk loves beautiful scenery; he loves, too, the sound of running water. Many of the little cafés and restaurants have balconies overhanging a swiftly flowing stream, where he can sit and smoke and drink Turkish coffee from zarfs to his soul's content. On the steep slopes around Serayevo, at sunset, you may see these same Turks by the score, their picturesque figures outlined against the glowing sky, simply wrapt in contemplation of the beautiful scene. In the bazaar all is color and motion. From the country afar about Serayevo come the peasants. It is the only mart of all that region, and, rather than miss coming, they would bring their produce to an uncertain market in preference to selling it at home when the chance offers. Here is the street of the tailors, where they sit cross-legged at work, here the coppersmiths' street, where sound of clanging hammer smites deafeningly on the ear, and where the graceful ibreeks, or pitchers, the dainty zarfs or coffee-cups, and the quaint, cylindrical mills, are for sale. There is a merchant with his store of pottery, and here a man who sells fez caps, and fits them on a hot block "while you wait." Here, too, are the brooches and penhandles and various articles of beautiful silver and black inlaid work peculiar to this region. The umbrella balls and handles are especially attractive, but bargains are hard to make where no European tongue avails. The Austrian Government has industrial schools and factories where the highest standard of excellence in rug-making and metal-work is maintained, but, for the traveller, the purely native work has a greater interest. The writer bears eternal gratitude to a clever little Jew, a boy speaking German and Bosnian as well, who attached himself to her, and who acted cheerfully as interpreter in her rambles. Seated in one of the market booths, taking a rapid sketch of the Latiner-Brück and the kaleidoscopic stream of passers-by, little David beside her, but more within the booth, kept shooting out his head, like a tortoise from its shell, and crying, "There, quick, a priest, take him! Ah! now, a veiled lady—put her in! Oh, see, a Turk in scarlet fez is coming; oh, quick, my lady, quick!"

The population of Serayevo is strangely mixed. Here one sees, side by side, the Turks, the Serbians, whose religion is that of the Greek Church, and the Jews, descendants of certain Spanish Jews who took refuge here at the time of the Inquisition, and whose graveyard, with its serried ranks of stones, overlooking the river Milyatzka, is well worth a visit, even if the lack of a knowledge of Hebrew with which to decipher the epitaphs be keenly felt. A large Roman Catholic church, a larger and more beautiful Greek church, where splendid ceremonies and impressive rites are celebrated, and a Jewish synagogue, are all here, and Serayevo presents the curious spectacle of the observance of three consecutive Sabbaths—the Mohammedan holy day, which is kept on Friday, the Jewish Sabbath, and the Sunday as known to us. A large law school is here too, and its students, in their long black robes, are often to be seen, while the building itself, overlooking the Milyatzka, with its own mosque and spacious classrooms, is most interesting.

Curious tombs one finds everywhere, neglected and almost buried under long grass in the city itself, or even on the highest parts of the mountain roads. Two we recall as especially impressive. In the foreground, the broad sweep of the Austrian military road; below, deep ravines; and, across the gulf, huge bare mountains whose lines of massive simplicity form a background of unusual grandeur; by the wayside, two tombs, lonely, mysterious. Here they stand, like sentinels guarding the defile, or, rather, like relics of a bygone time, witnesses of a past full of strange stories and stranger suggestions. So we take farewell of the beautiful town, which is constantly becoming more modern and more Austrian, rejoicing in all improvements which may tend to the elevation and uplifting of its people, but with an artist's joy in all that still remains of the picturesque and Oriental in its streets and by-ways. PHEBE DAVIS NATT.

PARIS UNDER THE REGENCY,

PARIS, June 17, 1897.

M. Alfred Franklin is the administrator of our Mazarine Library. He may be ranked among the polygraphs of our day. He has edited a splendid reproduction of the famous engravings of Tortoral and Perissin, relating to the incidents of the wars of religion in France (the original copies of these engravings, which are valuable historical documents, are extremely rare), and in his edition there are notes and commentaries by various writers on each engraving. M. Franklin has also published a 'Genealogical History of the Sovereigns of France from the Time of Hugues Capet.' He has made many contributions to the Bulletin of the Society for the History of Paris. His latest publication is a series of volumes under the title "La Vie privée d'autrefois." The first series embraces no less than twenty volumes. A new series is just beginning, which has for its sub-title, "Modes, mœurs, usages des Parisiens du 12e au 18e Siècle." The first volume has for its subject life in Paris under the Regency. M. Franklin is not the author of the volume; he has translated the work of a German written at the time, but he has somewhat abridged it, and has added many interesting notes to the narrative.

Joachim Christopher Nemeitz was privy-councillor of the Prince of Waldeck. He had made it a specialty to accompany young princes on their travels, and he spent two years in Paris. He published in 1718 a curious description of life in this capital which rapidly reached a second edition; in 1727, there appeared in Leyden a French translation of it with this title:

"Séjour de Paris: c'est à dire Instructions fidèles pour les voyageurs de condition, comment ils se doivent conduire, s'il veulent faire un bon usage de leur tems et argent durant leur séjour à Paris—Comme aussi une Description suffisante de la Cour de France, du Parlement, de l'Université, des Académies et Bibliothèques; avec une liste des plus célèbres savants, artisans, et autres choses remarquables qu'on trouve dans cette grande et fameuse ville."

The translator is unknown, but he was very imperfectly acquainted with the French language, and M. Franklin had often to correct his mistakes.

Nemeitz supposes a foreigner arriving in Paris either in an ordinary chariot or with post-horses. The chariot lands him in the customary inn, where he is sure to find rooms. The gentleman who has travelled with post-horses "is sure to have made friends during the journey with the master postilion, who has given him information on the subject of the best hotels." There are several commendable ones in the Faubourg St.-Germain, which was at the time "the rendezvous of foreigners." The "Comédie" was in this faubourg, as well as the "foire St.-Germain"; the Opéra, then in the Faubourg St.-Honoré, was not far off on the other side of the river, and you could cross the Seine in a boat (there was no bridge then between the Pont Neuf and the Pont Royal). The garden of the Luxembourg was a great attraction. The faubourg was full of the finest private hotels, inhabited by the nobility. The most fashionable hotel for travellers and foreigners was the Hôtel d'Antragues, in the Rue de Seine: "You see there only bishops, foreign princes, and great lords. I will cite a few others: The Hôtel de Tréville, often inhabited by ambassadors; the Hôtel Impérial, Rue du Four; the Hôtel de Hambourg, close by the Hôtel d'Espagne, Rue de Seine; the Hôtel de Nîmes, in the same street; the Hôtel d'Anjou, in the Rue Dauphine; the Ville de Hambourg, in the Rue Mazarine; the Hôtel de Modène, Rue Jacob." The people living in one of these hotels formed a sort of little republic, and could not escape entering into relations with each other.

"The society of honest Frenchmen," says Nemeitz, "especially if they are people of condition, is very agreeable and very profitable. You get exercised in the language, and you insensibly take on their manners, and they can procure you good acquaintances. Little is gained in conversation with one's compatriots or with other foreigners, as these people have come to Paris with the same view as yourself—to learn; and then, you will have plenty of time to talk to them when you return to your country."

He observes elsewhere that the French are very indulgent of mistakes made by a foreigner in speaking the French language, and are always pleased to help them and correct them. This is as true now as ever it was, and I have often observed it, particularly in French shops. A foreigner is never laughed at or made ridiculous on account of his mistakes in speaking.

"The sciences," continues Nemeitz, "which a man of quality must learn in Paris, are the French language, mathematics, and drawing. With whatever facility and purity people may think, out of France, that they speak French, they will, on arriving, experience a great disillusion. It is only in the country itself that you can learn the accent, and that only with much pains and much time. It is a pity to hear Germans pronounce *couferneur* for *gouverneur*, *boison* for *poison*, *tendelle* for *dentelle*."

It is, therefore, necessary to take a French master on arriving, a man with a delicate accent, who knows how to write a letter promptly. It is rather singular to read in a sort of guide-book: "Mathematics is the second acquirement which a man of quality ought to possess." If he is a soldier, he is advised to learn the art of fortifications. Nemeitz counts also among the mathematical sciences the art of drawing, even vocal and instrumental music.

"Music gives the entrée to the great

world. . . . There are here excellent masters for all sorts of instruments, and I doubt if anywhere else can be found so many capital teachers. I know more than thirty composers who have made themselves famous in their art. Whoever hears the music in the King's chapel on the great feast-days must confess that nothing finer or more perfect can exist. The instruments which are now preferred in Paris are the harpsichord (*clavecin*) and the German flute."

The young man of quality must take lessons in dancing, fencing, and riding. There were at the time four riding-schools, or academies, as they were called. One of them was under M. de la Guérinière, who published the finest work on French riding, with beautiful illustrations, one of the most valued books on the veterinary art.

Nemeitz forgets nothing, and has an important chapter on dress—"Comment il se faut habiller," etc.; he has another on the subject of servants—"Si on doit prendre pour valet un français." His opinion is that it is better to take a Frenchman, if only for the lessons in French which he will give you. He answers for the fidelity of French servants.

"There are instances of servants having abandoned or robbed their masters, and a stranger has the same right as a Frenchman to have his servant arrested, even for the theft of a trifle. The judges of Paris make no great ceremony on this point, and the man who has stolen to-day can be hanged to-morrow. The French valets, besides, are prompt, clever, good for everything. I think that they would go through fire for the love of their master. They love him, respect him, take good care of his clothes. If the master has a quarrel they don't desert him, but risk their lives for him. Yet they are to the last degree intent on their own interest; it is their great defect, which all have more or less. They don't steal, but they levy a tax upon everything. . . . A valet costs one franc or twenty-five sous a day, and with that he feeds and clothes himself."

The notice of the French Theatre is interesting. The "Comédiens du Roi," as they were called, received no subvention from the King (the Comédie-Française in our day receives one). "They have no Director [there is now one, called Administrator, appointed by the State], they share the receipts every night; one receives a whole portion, another a half, others a fourth, an eighth, a sixteenth, according to their capacity and to the part they have played." Something of the same kind exists now, but the division is only made from time to time. After the death of Louis XIV., the Regent authorized the Italian comedians to reopen their theatre in the Hôtel de Bourgogne, which had been shut twenty years before because of the great freedom of its plays and its criticisms. This troupe was called the "Italian Troupe of his Royal Highness the Duke d'Orléans." The third theatre in Paris was the Opéra, where the lyric operas of Lulli were the chief attraction of the time. As in our day, "the persons belonging to the opera—singers, dancers, players of instruments—formed a little republic composed of about two hundred persons." The Opéra was at the Palais Royal.

Three theatres only were then in existence, and were thought sufficient for the amusement of the capital. The prudent Nemeitz says that "strangers ought to take care not to make acquaintance with the ladies of the opera or of the Comédie. Nearly all those who have a little beauty are kept by illustrious and wealthy seigneurs; even a few by dukes and peers." At the Comédie-Française, "a man of quality occupies a box in the first tier or in the parterre, seldom in the boxes of the second tier, which are assigned to the bourgeois; never in the amphitheatre, where all the *racaille* flock. At the Opéra, the amphitheatre is honorable in the same degree as the boxes of the first tier." The Duchesse du Maine gave, from time to time, representations in her private theatre at Sceaux. It was a great honor to be invited. The Duchess and her guests used to play themselves. She was the granddaughter of the Grand Condé, and was married to the Duke du Maine, a son of Louis XIV. and of Madame de Montespan.

Nemeitz has much to say about the cafés of Paris. "It is," he says, "a general habit in Paris to take a cup of coffee after dinner. I do not know if this beverage is very healthy." Madame de Sévigné did not much believe in it, and said, "Le goût en passera comme du café," speaking of Racine, to whom she preferred Voltaire. Madame de Sévigné was wrong; we still read Racine and we still take our coffee. Nemeitz, curiously, thought that it was a cure for melancholia, "as was the opinion," he says, "of a certain lady who, hearing that her husband had been killed in the wars, exclaimed: 'Ah! how unhappy I am! Quick! quick! bring me my coffee!'" There was, in the time of the Regency, an infinite number of cafés in Paris, as many as ten, twelve, sometimes more, in the same street. They were frequented by the greatest gentlemen and even by princes. People were allowed to enter them without spending anything, as is now the fashion in Italy. They smoked little in the cafés, "as there are in France very few people of quality who like to smoke." No papers were found in them; these were read in the circulating libraries.

The extracts which I have given show that 'Life in Paris under the Regency' is no common guide-book. It is a document, not without value, regarding life and manners in Paris, at an interesting period of history, faithfully written, by a German witness who evidently took great interest in his subject and had no prejudices of any sort.

Notes.

To obtain material for a graduate seminary in rhetoric, Prof. F. N. Scott, of the University of Michigan, has begun a systematic collection of specimens of student composition. He would like the help and coöperation of teachers of English in all parts of the country, and offers to send a circular of instructions to any one who may care to apply for it.

The Century Co. will shortly issue 'An Artist's Letters from Japan,' by John La Farge, with the author's illustrations, and have in preparation Mr. James Bryce's 'Impressions of South Africa,' an enlargement of his sample chapters in the *Century*, and Rudyard Kipling's 'Captains Courageous.'

Du Maurier's 'The Martian,' which comes to an end in the current *Harper's*, is on the eve of publication in book form.

The Putnams announce 'Impressions of Turkey,' by Prof. W. M. Ramsay of Aberdeen.

Richard Malcolm Johnston's 'Old Times in Middle Georgia,' a volume of sketches, will be issued by Macmillan Co., together with 'An Outline for the Study of City Government,' by Delos H. Wilcox.

Messrs. Scribner will publish in this country 'Later Renaissance Architecture in England,' edited in six parts with 156 plates by John Belcher and Mervyn E. Macartney.

D. Appleton & Co. are the American publishers of 'The Outgoing Turk,' reviewed by us last week.

'Sketches Awheel in Modern Iberia' is the title of a copiously illustrated book by Fanny Bullock Workman and William Hunter Workman (Putnams). A great deal of the text is taken up with details about bicycle accidents and incidents that may interest wheelmen, but cause other readers to turn the leaves rapidly. Bicycles are not yet very common in Spain, as these riders found to their cost; they were constantly frightening animals and angering their owners; in one case (p. 73) a murderous assault by a drunken driver was narrowly averted. The writers comment on the noisiness of Spanish towns, the badness of country roads, the beauties of the scenery, and so forth, but there is no new *aperçu*, hardly a sentence to show cause why this book should have been written except as a diary for the authors' own delectation. The guide-books are, however, brought up to date in one respect. Toledo, we are informed, has at last a hotel fit to stay in. We are also told that bull-fights are still popular in Spain. Postal affairs do not seem to have improved at all. The writers mailed from Granada seven small articles to the post in other countries, and only one of them reached its destination; and this was but a sample of their experiences.

Violin players will find entertainment and some incidental instruction in 'Famous Violinists and Fine Violins,' by Dr. T. L. Phipson (Chatto & Windus). It contains many anecdotes and historic details that are familiar, together with some that are less hackneyed. There are chapters on Cherubini, Paganini, Balfe, De Bériot, Ole Bull, "The Soul of the Violin; or, the Secret of the Sound-post," etc., etc. In a chapter entitled "The Orchestra and the Singer," Mr. Phipson harps on the old complaint that solo singers get a hundred dollars or more where an orchestral player gets only one. He thinks this should be remedied, but he forgets some hard facts. Great singers, like popular writers, may get more than they are worth intrinsically, but it is a purely commercial question. If a manager finds he can draw a $10,000 house by engaging certain "stars," and only $1,000 without them, it pays him to give them $1,500 apiece. Such singers are expensive because they are scarce, whereas orchestral players are overabundant. If they get $7 for an evening's work, that is as much as most of them are worth. Few of these players are real artists. There are thousands of journalists who work for $7 a day, though they may be greater literary artists than these men are musical artists. The latter cannot play artistically unless they have a great leader to conduct them; and it may be added that if there is any injustice in the present arrangement it is in the conductor's receiving so much less than the singers. Just at present, for instance, Wagner's operas are drawing larger houses in London than they ever did, largely because Mr. Seidl conducts them; yet he probably receives only one-fifth as much as some of the singers.

Mr. J. A. Joseph's 'Institutional History of the United States' (Danville: Indiana Publishing Company) has evidently been written

with such excellent intentions that we can but regret our entire inability to see any useful purpose that the book is likely to serve. "Institutional history" is a somewhat vague term at best; to Mr. Joseph it seems to mean, in this instance, 375 pages of assorted information, for the most part accurate enough, on various phases of American history and life, together with such new and interesting facts as that the town of Plymouth developed into the colony of Massachusetts, that it takes a thousand miles of yard-wide paper to put out an edition of the New York *World*, and that while the United States "provides no special training" for its foreign ministers, they "are supposed to be chosen for their knowledge of international law, history, and the French language." We sympathize with the author in his distrust of the greenbacks, and can but admire the dexterity with which, as President of a "normal college" in Indiana, he avoids committing himself regarding either the gold standard or free coinage of silver; while with his remark that "the tariff is a good thing to be let alone by our legislators" we most heartily agree.

Most of his readers in America who know Austin Dobson only as the author of exotic and society verse of charming poetic quality, and of essays on eighteenth-century literature and art, will be surprised to see his name on the title-page of a 'Handbook of English Literature' (Longmans), which now, revised with additions by Prof. W. Hall Griffin, passes to a third edition after an interval of nearly a quarter-century since the first. The stream of such handbooks seems endless, while the perfect book on the subject remains always to be written. The want of a thoroughly critical and trustworthy manual of English authors and of English literary history, supplying a guide to the results of recent researches in this field, indeed is often felt, although the recently revised edition of Mr. Stopford Brooke's 'Primer' fills the need for a succinct and well-proportioned elementary introduction to the subject as well, perhaps, as this generation can demand or expect. It is difficult, however, to see in what respect the Dobson-Griffin compilation is an improvement over its competitors in the field. It offers nothing new in method or treatment, while its style is singularly perfunctory, colorless, and uninspiring, and, like so many others of its class, it almost renders the study of literary history, which Gray considered in itself the most interesting subject in the world, here one of the most uninteresting. The rock on which these perpetually repeated attempts split is easily discoverable. A work of limited compass covering so large a field should either generalize its subject after the manner of the 'Primer,' and treat only of the great landmarks and masterpieces of literature, or it should frankly adopt the shorthand style and encyclopædic treatment of the German "Grundriss." Any attempt to combine the two methods can result only in the production of mere cram-books of the present type, of possible temporary utility to candidates in examinations such as those set for the English civil service, but otherwise well calculated to repel the student of healthy mind and do general harm to the cause of English studies.

The country houses of England abound with material for amplifying the published histories of the United States. From time to time the Historical Manuscripts Commission, by the diligence of the experts employed on the old documents preserved in the muniment rooms of the nobles and squires of England, bring to light most interesting old papers. Such are to be found noted in the report just issued upon some of the papers in the possession of the Duke of Portland. Among these are a few letters from William Penn. They were all addressed to Robert Harley, afterwards well known as the Earl of Oxford. It was his son who made the great collection of books and manuscripts so useful to historical students, and from whom the Harleian Society took its name. The only daughter and heiress of this son, the lady of whom the poet Prior sang, as

"My noble, lovely little Peggy,"

married William Bentinck, second Duke of Portland, and brought to his family great wealth from property in the City of London, which the Bentinck family hold to this day. It was with the Lady Margaret Harley that the same family also acquired the Harley MSS. that are now being calendared, and from which Penn's letters have been brought to light. They are preserved at Welbeck Abbey, the Duke of Portland's seat in that part of Nottinghamshire known as "the Dukeries."

The *Geographical Journal* for June opens very appropriately with Sir Clement Markham's review of the geographical history of the Queen's reign. This includes the exploration of the greater part of Africa, Australia, the north polar region, the interiors of China, Japan, Central Asia, Tibet, and Afghanistan. Progress has been least in South America, which now presents "a wider and more fruitful field for the explorer" than any other part of the world. There follows the same scholar's address at the celebration by the Royal Geographical Society of the fourth centenary of the voyage of John Cabot, 1497. It is remarkable principally for the emphasis laid on the meagreness and uncertainty of our information in regard to this voyage, and especially in regard to the landfall. This uncertainty was increased by the discussion which followed the address, in which mathematical evidence was given to show that the voyage must have taken longer than the generally accepted three months, May 3-August 5, 1497. It was suggested that Cabot sailed in 1496, and returned in August, 1497. We mention also notes on the Tripoli Hill range by Mr. H. S. Cowper, and an interesting account of the nomadic Berbers of Central Morocco by Walter B. Harris. Among them was a curious little settlement of the descendants of the renegades and Christian slaves of the time of Mulai Ismail, with the addition of stray renegades who have been sent there since. There are representatives of thirteen nationalities, including English, Flemish, and Spanish, in the three or four hundred inhabitants.

We have paid elsewhere our tribute to the memory of the late Prof. Lane of Harvard, whose death follows all too closely that of his classmate, the lamented Child. It remains to record the long service of Prof. Lane as a contributor to the *Nation*, and his constant good will outlasting his service, which was much interrupted of late years. He had an ideal capacity for the writing of "Notes." For longer efforts he seldom found leisure.

—An important contribution to our knowledge of the ancient inhabitants of the Calchaqui region, in the northwest part of the Argentine Republic, appears in the first number of the anthropological section of the 'Anales del Museo de la Plata.' The author, Prof. Ten Kate, gives an account of his visit to the Calchaqui country, and of his explorations among the ruins of their fortified towns. He describes their burial places and the peculiarities of their method of interment. The bodies of adults were usually placed in a squatting position, with the arms folded, and those of infants were deposited in stone jars. An examination of the large osteological collection now in the La Plata Museum shows that the most striking physical characteristics of this people were the brachycephalic skull and a low stature. This conclusion is at variance with M. Hamy's assertion that such peculiarities did not exist among the inhabitants of this region. Certain anatomical resemblances between these remains and those of the ancient Peruvians seem to imply that the races were closely allied, if not identical. The history of the people known as Calchaqui is still involved in great obscurity, some writers believing that they were exterminated by the Spaniards, or possibly by the Peruvians before the Spanish conquest. Ten Kate, however, concludes that the depopulation and desolation of the region were due quite as much to climatic and physical causes as to the devastations of invaders. The memoir is illustrated by cuts representing the cemeteries and by a series of admirable reproductions of photographs of the bones.

—A proof of the interest taken in the renaissance of Christian thought in French letters is furnished by the work of Father Pacheu of the Society of Jesus, 'De Dante à Verlaine,' which is a conscientious study of mysticism in literature. Father Pacheu has not read all of Verlaine's poems, but he has carefully read those which bear on the subject he treats of, and his verdict on the poet is likely to surprise many who judge Verlaine rather by the worse portion of his verse than by the sum of it. He acknowledges willingly that Verlaine was very bad, but that is no reason why he should not have repented; and the proof that he did repent he finds, not only in the fact that the poet died with a crucifix in his hands and a priest by his side, but in the character of the better portion of his work, especially in 'Sagesse.' According to Father Pacheu, true mystics are not very numerous in literature, and he cites Dante as the truest and greatest, naming also Spenser, Bunyan, and Shelley among the English. Verlaine appears to him to have come nearer Dante in true mysticism, by which he means not the vague religiosity of modern dissatisfied or posing writers, but the sincere aspiration to God and the earnest striving after a realization of the higher inner life. It is this which he finds strongly marked in Verlaine. Of course there is the desire to prove his case and to make of Verlaine a convert to the dogmas and practices of the Church of Rome, but there are points in favor of Father Pacheu's contention, and his analysis of Verlaine's state of mind, and his explanation of the shocking inconsistencies of his conduct, are more than ingenious pieces of special pleading. After Verlaine he tackles Joris-Karl

Huysmans, and brings him also into the fold through his book 'En Route.' The work, being conceived and carried out in a serious spirit and well put together, is interesting from beginning to end. It is well, too, to have the views of theologians on points such as those raised here.

—We have noted from time to time the progress of Mr. E. S. Hartland's 'Legend of Perseus,' and can now speak of the completion of this important work by the third volume (London: David Nutt). The first two volumes dealt with the supernatural birth of the hero, and the life-token or sympathetic object which indicated the hero's fate. The third volume contains the two remaining episodes—the rescue of Andromeda, and the Medusa-witch—and a chapter devoted to the story as a whole. There is also a supplementary list of works referred to, as well as an excellent index, and an appendix of tables dealing with various episodes in the legend and serving to show their geographical distribution. It is impossible in brief space to do adequate justice to Mr. Hartland's careful and interesting study of a great classical legend and its counterparts in *Märchen*, saga, and superstition. The method of treatment is the one followed by Mr. Frazer in his 'Golden Bough,' and familiar to the readers of Andrew Lang's mythological studies. Mr. Hartland's merit consists in the attractive way in which he has presented his material, and his great industry and exactness in compilation. The definite results of the investigation are inconsiderable. "The area within which the place of origin is to be sought may roughly be said to include the whole of Europe and Asia, and the parts of Africa which lie to the north and east of the Great Desert." The inquiry into the relation between the ancient and modern variants of the story ends even more vaguely, and, in the words of the author, "so far as the results of research as to one story may enable us to forecast the results of research as to others, it favors the view of those students who declare that the hope of tracking a folk-tale to its pristine home is illusory, and the attempt a waste of time." Mr. Hartland closes with a superficial reference to the bearing of his study upon the most sacred dogmas of Christianity. As he expressly disclaims any polemical motive, he might better have left the reader to make his own inferences. If he were not content with this, he should at least have treated the questions involved at length.

—Dr. Giuseppe Pitrè's great undertaking, the "Biblioteca delle Tradizioni Popolari Siciliane," which we have so often had occasion to mention in terms of the highest praise, has just been increased by the twentieth volume: 'Indovinelli, Dubbi, Scioglilingua del Popolo Siciliano' (Turin-Palermo: C. Clausen). *Indovinelli* of course are riddles, *dubbi* are a series of enigmatical questions propounded in a stanza of *ottava rima* and answered in a similar one, and *scioglilingua* or *bisticci* are a succession of words, often without connection or sense, of difficult pronunciation, like the well-known English example: "Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled peppers," etc. The editor has collected twelve hundred examples of the above classes and prefixed to them an elaborate treatise upon the Riddle. There have been many collections of riddles, and histories of this department of literature, notably Friedreich's 'Geschichte des Räthsels' (Dresden, 1860), but no one has given so exhaustive an account of this subject, or investigated so fully the question of the origin and diffusion of riddles, as Pitrè. Besides this very considerable labor, Dr. Pitrè has compared his material with all the other Italian collections and indicated the parallels and variants. The amount of work represented in the eighteen pages of "Varianti e riscontri" is enormous, and the editor may well say: "I dilettanti del genere sanno dove metter le mani per fare della erudizione a buon mercato." The work ends with a bibliography of Italian and Sicilian riddles, which furnishes some additions to the editor's 'Bibliografia delle Tradizioni Popolari in Italia' (Turin, 1894). In glancing over the collection we notice many riddles, etc., which are common to England, and it is a cause of regret that such scanty materials are to be found for purposes of comparison. Pitrè has been fortunate in living in a land where the popular literature still flourishes; but he has performed his mighty task with enormous labor and self-sacrifice, which are already repaid by the gratitude of scholars all over the world. As the monument, the greatest ever erected by one man to the popular literature of his country, approaches completion (two more volumes are announced on the popular customs and minor festivals of Sicily), we offer our congratulations on what has already been accomplished, and our hopes that the builder, more fortunate than our own Child, may be spared to see his task happily ended.

—The distinguished traveller Miss Mary Kingsley recently lectured at Mansfield College, Oxford, upon the invitation of the Hibbert trustees. Her subject was African native law and its connection with the African form of religion. The late Sir A. B. Ellis, in his well-known book, Prof. Kohler's pamphlet on negro law, and Mr. Saraban's Fanti Customary Law, were the three trustworthy printed sources of information, but there was no printed collection of cases in pure Bantu law or in pure negro law. Hence Miss Kingsley proposed, from her own detailed observation, to give a tentative account of these neglected systems. Common to them both was a general conception of religion as influencing every least act and concern of life, and a specific conviction that the native must be on working terms with the great world of spirits around him. Alike among pure negroes and pure Bantu Miss Kingsley discerned a recognized hierarchy of these spirits; in some districts more classes were distinguished than in others, but everywhere at least six orders were more or less clearly distinguishable. Among the pure negroes of the West Coast a system of so-called slavery is essential; the Bantu often follow an alternative practice of killing and eating prisoners and criminals. Bantu is more difficult than negro law, because of local variations in this and other particulars among Bantu tribes. An important institution, well developed among pure negroes, and also among slave-holding Bantu, is the House. Individual members of a House may be animate or inanimate, men, animals, or things. Dogs and canoes are, in the eye of the law, quite as capable as men of advancing the House or of embroiling it by their proceedings. A so-called King heads the House; he may be free or a slave. Often a slave-owned House will be the richest in a whole district. The law lays down (1) that the owner of a slave stands accountable for his slave's acts; (2) that the head of a House is responsible for damage done by members of the House, whether to fellow-members or to outsiders. Miss Kingsley witnessed in the Cameroons the chopping up of a criminally destructive canoe. They were "settling its palaver—one time." Among the Ouroungo the slaying of a woman was accounted for in answer to inquiry by the laconic declaration, "She make palaver—too much." The most intricate palavers arose under the law vesting ownership of children, one of whose parents was a slave, not in the free parent, but in the owner of the slave parent. There is no statute of limitation to bar the assertion of such ownership at any time; consequently claims are revived after having lain dormant so long that their existence has been forgotten. As there is no system of record to prove the satisfaction of such claims, an inextricable confusion and much injustice arise. The lecturer argued for a far greater closeness of interdependence between law and religion than has been made out by Ellis, Kohler, or Saraban, and suggested that, so far as her evidence went, it indicated a classification of human concerns with reference to their religious bearing. There are purely human affairs, such as matters of inheritance, and with these purely human spirits can deal without calling in spirits of a higher grade. There are other concerns, not apparently very different, where it is wiser to call in the higher spirits. "One charm does the work of twenty slaves" is a common saying.

JAMES'S WILL TO BELIEVE.

The Will to Believe, and Other Essays in Popular Philosophy. By William James. Longmans, Green & Co. 1897. Pp. xvii.-332.

The most profoundly sceptical and, its opponents would maintain, the most disastrously self-defeating and sophistical tendency in modern philosophy lies in the prevalent effort nowadays, in the name of God and the moral law, to subordinate intelligence to desire. Truth, it is contended, is of value simply in that it ministers to a certain spiritual craving for a definite and symmetrical scheme of the world; but the greater takes precedence of the less—the demand for a moral order in the universe and for communion with God is more fundamental, more imperious, more fraught with consequence for the best life of humanity, than the demand for truth, and any truth that presents an obstacle to it may, with no sense of comedy, by sheer volition, be set aside as wholly or at least as partly false. "I could not rest tranquilly in a truth," Mr. Bradley, for example, declares in his 'Appearance and Reality' (p. 148), "if I were compelled to regard it as hateful. While unable, that is, to deny it, I should, rightly or wrongly, insist that the inquiry was not yet closed, and that the result was but partial, and if metaphysics is to stand, it must, I think, take account of all sides of our being."

From this somewhat desperate philosophy of the world as it by hypothesis is not, with its

tacit injunction on us to do our duty cheerfully in any sphere of life excepting precisely that to which we may have been called, the doctrine that gives unity to the papers brought together in the present volume is, we understand, in spite of many expressions to the contrary, sharply to be distinguished. 'The Will to Believe, and Other Essays' is, in the main, an exposition of the claims of what we of Anglo-Saxon lineage delight to celebrate as the strenuous mood. "The deepest difference, practically, in the moral life of man," the author says, "is the difference between the easy-going and the strenuous mood"; but the strenuous mood responds to the summons of none but "the wilder passions," "the big fears, loves, and indignations," or the "deeply penetrating appeal" of the "higher fidelities," "of justice, truth, or freedom"; and responds to them, indeed, in but a very minor degree in a merely human world. "Life, to be sure, is even in such a world a genuinely ethical symphony; but it is played in the compass of a couple of poor octaves, and the infinite scale of values fails to open up"; it needs the presence of a god to unveil an "infinite perspective," to prolong incalculably "the scale of the symphony." Once take for granted his presence, and the more imperative ideals "begin to speak with an altogether new objectivity and significance, and to utter the penetrating, shattering, tragically challenging note of appeal." "Our attitude towards concrete evils is entirely different in a world where we believe there are none but finite demanders, from what it is in one where we joyously face tragedy for an infinite demander's sake. Every sort of energy and endurance, of courage and capacity for handling life's evils, is set free," Prof. James affirms, "in those who have religious faith"; but he does not therefore in the least on that ground contend that, whatever the evidence to the contrary, religious faith must be true. He at the utmost suggests that, even if false, it would be, like the foundation of many another noble and ennobling loyalty, a beneficent error. "The capacity of the strenuous mood lies so deep down among our natural human possibilities that, even if there were no metaphysical or traditional grounds for believing in a God, men would postulate one simply as a pretext for living hard, and getting out of the game of existence its keenest possibilities of zest"; and he suggests this merely by the way. If he rejects the closed circle of cause and effect, the block world of modern science with its exclusion of spontaneity, of fresh beginnings, of personal initiative and responsibility, he everywhere recognizes his obligation to show that the evidence in favor of it is inconclusive, and that the run of specialists in science are, in metaphysics and indeed in logic, crude. If, in the last resort, he invokes the will, it is within certain narrowly defined limits, and on the plea that the occasion is strictly practical and not speculative; if he decides for chance in the physical world and freedom in the moral, for an outer and an inner disconnectedness, with the splendor of God shining at the gaps—for a sort of "insane sand-heap or multi-verse" (as he says it must appear to the man of science), and no universe at all—he feels at liberty to do so precisely because reason is silent on the subject and suspense of judgment is itself an expression of will.

For our ultimate faith about the moral complexion of the universe is one that we must act on, and act on at once. We are at this very moment on the battle-field, where to retreat, or to reconnoitre, or to hesitate, is as fatally to act as to move forward to the assault. "The thesis I defend," Prof. James says, "is, briefly stated, this: Our passional nature not only lawfully may, but must, decide an option between propositions, whenever it is a genuine option that cannot by its nature be decided on intellectual grounds; for to say, under such circumstances, 'Do not decide, but leave the question open,' is itself a passional decision." It is a matter of risk simply, and in any practical exigency the risk of waiting for further information may well be greater than the risk of going forward in uncertainty. It is notably greater, Prof. James holds, in the case of belief in a moral order and in God; it is hardly an exaggeration indeed, he feels, to say that one has nothing to gain by hanging back and everything to lose. Suspense of judgment in the matter can afford us at the utmost only *le bonheur de ne pas être dupe.* But "worse things than being duped may happen to a man in this world." Our errors are not such portentously solemn things; in a scheme of affairs in which "we are so certain to incur them in spite of all our caution, a certain lightness of heart seems healthier than an excessive nervousness"; and, in the last resort, what dupery could be so complete as to forego a chance of guessing right in exchange for the certainty of not being right at all! If one is "born with such superior general reaction to evidence" that one "can guess right and act accordingly, and gain all that comes of right action," while one's "less gifted neighbor" (paralyzed by his scruples and waiting for more evidence which he dares not anticipate, much as he longs to) still stands shivering on the brink, "by what right shall one be forbidden to reap the advantages of one's superior native sensitiveness?" "At most, the command laid upon us," Prof. James urges in a note, "by science to believe nothing not yet verified by the senses, is a prudential rule intended to maximize our right thinking and to minimize our errors in the long run"; and he compares it to the "gambling and insurance rules based on probability, in which we secure ourselves against losses in detail by hedging on the total run." But this hedging philosophy requires that a "long run should be there; and this makes it inapplicable to the question of religious faith as the latter comes home to the individual man. He plays the game of life, not to escape losses, for he brings nothing with him to lose; he plays it for gains; and it is now or never with him, for the long run which exists indeed for humanity is not there for him." Dupery for dupery, it is better to be duped through hope than duped through fear; in especial when one recollects that there are cases in which belief secures its own realization—in which "belief is a factor as well as a confessor." If, for example, a man is climbing in the Alps and has the ill-luck to work himself into a position from which the only escape is by a prodigious leap, he, being without (we may suppose) any similar experience, has no evidence of his ability to perform it successfully. But hope and confidence make him sure he will not miss his aim, and nerve his feet to execute what, without those emotions, would perhaps have been impossible. "Believe, and you shall be right, for you shall save yourself; doubt, and you shall again be right, for you shall perish. The only difference is that to believe is greatly to your advantage."

"Religious fermentation," Prof. James urges in his preface, "is always a symptom of the intellectual vigor of a society, and it is only when they forget that they are hypotheses, and put on rationalistic and authoritative pretensions, that our faiths do harm." It is in protest against some similar pretensions on the part of science at the present day that the greater portion of the papers in 'The Will to Believe' are written; they advocate, in brief, "the right of the individual to indulge his personal faith at his personal risk"; and in bar of that right it is difficult to conceive what law the candid man of science could plead or could wish to plead. It must be added, however, that, up to the present time at least (there is a promise, which we gratefully register, of a completer, more systematic exposition), the considerations brought forward by Prof. James are more calculated to be of service to those who believe already than to those who do not. The strenuous mood is no more heartily intolerant of anything than of (it would necessarily in one who doubts be such) a make-believe before the fact; an established loyalty may, to defend itself, appeal openly and even with defiant pride to a postulate that is confessedly uncertain or false, but such a loyalty must in the beginning have gone out to what it took to be eternal verity. And happily so; if no more irreparable misfortune can occur to an individual or a generation of men than a disillusionment in regard to the objects of their deepest allegiance, it is on every account desirable that those objects should be chosen in the beginning for what they are. This is at once the justification of such an appeal as Prof. James's in 'The Will to Believe,' and the ground of the limitation of its applicability. For if he does not counsel us to believe in the face of demonstration, he does counsel us to believe in the face at least of probability; supposing, as he does (for the purposes of argument?) the probability, such as it is, to be on the side of science. By hypothesis, the case is not one in which we must wait for information or act absolutely in ignorance, but one in which we must act in pursuance of such information as we possess, or in utter disregard of it; and for the sort of disillusionment and blankness of mind and life that will come upon us in the latter case, if we are ever persuaded of our mistake, *le malheur de se connaître dupe* is a quite insufficient description. And if there are beliefs that create their own verification, that fact is indeed fatally significant when urged against the *laisser-faire* policy of so-called evolutionary ethics, and Prof. James has laid us all under fresh obligations by the prominence he has given it; but when he argues from it as a general principle, and suggests our relying on it blindly on the hypothesis that we have everything to gain and nothing to lose, he burdens it with a greater weight than in logic it can bear. There are beliefs also that contribute to their own refutation. The counsel to believe the world is as you want it to be, in the hope that, in some unforeseen manner, your belief may help to make it so, may justly be met by the counsel to see the world with unflinching steadiness as pre-

cisely as may be as it is, under penalty, if you refuse, of miscalculation and defeat in your every effort to make it what it ought to be. The strenuous mood can be roused by that appeal also; it may be doubted, indeed, whether it can in the long run be roused so thoroughly by any other.

The book, it is of course needless to add, is written with a freshness and vigor of word and phrase that exclude it wholly from the class of essays in philosophy that are hard reading. It is literally a delightful book, and "popular" in no sense that can make it of less service to the specialist.

ABBY HOPPER GIBBONS.

Life of Abby Hopper Gibbons, Told chiefly through her correspondence. Edited by her daughter, Sarah Hopper Emerson. Two volumes. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1897.

The editor of this interesting book has carried to an extreme that policy of self-effacement which commends itself to the judgment of many biographical editors in our time, and is foolishly affected by a greater number. It is impossible to doubt the sincerity of Mrs. Emerson's deliberate choice, and equally impossible not to feel that she has made a serious mistake. Without enlarging the book—for, without injury, various subtractions might have been made from the fulness of the letters—more might have been shown of the order and the setting of events, with here and there a few words of commentary or explanation which would have added much. Mrs. Emerson has assumed that all who read her book will know nearly as much as she does of the anti-slavery conflict, with its Old and New Organization and like matters. But it is devoutly to be wished that it may find many readers who are ignorant where she is wise, and she has not done for them what she might have done. They will often stumble in the dark where they might and should have had a trusty guide.

Mrs. Gibbons, whose life is here told "chiefly through her correspondence," was born Abby Hopper, December 12, 1801, the third child of Isaac Tatem and Sarah Tatum Hopper. Of Isaac T. Hopper little is told, it being assumed, perhaps rashly, that his Life by Lydia Maria Child is still a well-known book. Happy are they who remember it. It furnishes a delightful, if not necessary, background to the figures painted here. A few letters written when Mrs. Gibbons was seventy-seven to a granddaughter give us a vivid picture of her childhood, but her contemporary correspondence does not begin until 1829. The letters of this time afford many humorous glimpses of the modest insurrection of young people, inclining somewhat to pleasure and beauty, against the ascetic strictness of the Quaker rule, which, however, stopped so far short of the table that the Yearly Meeting passed into a proverbial satire as the Merely Eating. There are reflections on "the Friend who did not feel easy to eat off a gilt-edged plate," confessions of being "a *little particular* about the *cut* of a garment," rejoicings over new china, discussions of belts, bows, and ribbons from a religious point of view, and a record of "five persons disowned for outgoing in marriage and one for having joined the Presbyterians," at one fell swoop. In 1831 Abby Hopper met James S. Gibbons, and they were married in 1833. Mr. James Herbert Morse describes the husband, his father-in-law, with much brave sincerity. "Where feeling was not enlisted, he was a philosopher. . . . But where feeling was touched—or was it prejudice, the long, back record of feeling?—then philosophy went to the winds." The preëminent distinction of his life, though not by any means his most valuable achievement, was his war song, "We are coming, Father Abraham," which, very naturally, had a tremendous vogue. It was written in 1862 in answer to Lincoln's call for 300,000 troops, and, being published anonymously in the *Evening Post*, was, for a long time, attributed to Bryant. Had the mob of 1863 known Mr. Gibbons as its author, his house would have been gutted with greater relish, if possible, than was actually shown.

The song was certainly a strange one for a Quaker to project into the public mind. But the Quakers had not treated Mr. Gibbons and his friends so handsomely as to nourish his ancestral creed, and he was naturally a man of war. The Meeting had fallen away from the original principles of Quakerism much more than he. In 1842, with Isaac T. Hopper and Charles Marriott, he was disowned "for being concerned in the publication and support of a paper [the *Anti-Slavery Standard*] calculated to excite discord and disunity among Friends." Every sect had in those times its lowest depth, and this action matched for the Friends the refusal of Dr. Channing's Society to allow him the use of its church for Dr. Follen's funeral. One George F. White is pilloried as the prime mover in the pro-slavery Quaker movement. Not content with stirring up strife in New York, he extended his efforts to Philadelphia. The letters that record these doings glow and burn with righteous indignation. One from Lydia Maria Child is strangely interjected into a body of foreign matter, but it is an arraignment of the "New Organization," Whittier included, that deserved preservation in place or out of it. In 1842 Mrs. Gibbons resigned her membership in the Meeting for anti-slavery reasons, and asked to have the names of her children erased from the list of members. Isaac, the youngest, "the little emancipated," was not named because he was born after his father's expulsion.

Great sorrows entered into Mrs. Gibbons's life; she lost several children, and no letters here are likely to be more helpful than those she wrote in her bereavement and those written to her. The idyl of the book is her relation to her son "Willie," who died suddenly from an accident apparently trivial, midway his course in Harvard College. His was a case of "unfulfilled renown," so surely was he destined by his moral genius to share the honors of such young men as Shaw and Winthrop and Putnam and Lowell, if not their enviable death. A chapter headed "John Brown" is disappointing, so little does it contain concerning him. We are told that a few weeks before the raid he called and "confided to Mrs. Gibbons the full particulars of his plan for the uprising at Harper's Ferry." But her surprise in the event is spoken of as great, and hence it would appear that the plan he confided to her was not carried out. For three years and a half Mrs. Gibbons devoted herself, generally in company with her daughter Sarah, to hospital work, and her letters and journals covering this experience are full of interest and abound in local color, particularly black. Her sympathy with the slaves was a source of considerable friction in her relations with army officers. Her humanity in general had much the same effect. Those who think war is something nice could not do better than to read these hospital chapters and see what it was at its best, when it was just and not to be escaped. Involved in Banks's miserable retreat in West Virginia, Mrs. Gibbons had plenty of excitement and some hair-breadth escapes. Afterwards, at Point Lookout, the interest centres in the freedmen, pursued, maltreated, carried off by their former masters, long after the promulgation of the emancipation proclamation; a Maryland Colonel of Union troops conniving at every possible iniquity. He complains of Mrs. Gibbons as a "Protectress-General of all who get themselves into trouble, and censor of affairs military, religious, and moral"; thinks she "goes beyond her proper sphere, and might be disposed of." But it was Mrs. Gibbons who came off victorious. She generally did, thanks to an intuitive shrewdness, which not only rescued her from the difficulties into which she was led by an ardent disposition, but interpenetrated that, making her wise even when she appeared most rash.

The riots of July, 1863, afford the most interesting episode in the book. The Gibbons house was sacked, with but fifteen minutes' warning, so that but few things were saved out of the general wreck. Mrs. Gibbons was at Point Lookout and Mr. Gibbons was away from home at the critical moment. Mr. Joseph H. Choate assisted the daughters in their escape from roof to roof and finally to his own house. Mr. Gibbons wrote, "I am ashamed to have deserved no more." Returning for a few weeks to her ruined home, September found Mrs. Gibbons again with the sick and wounded soldiers. It is to be hoped that her personal impression of the Christian Commission was not just. She was not incapable of prejudice. It is with evident satisfaction that she tells of a dying boy concerning whom an agent of the Christian Commission eagerly inquired, "Madam, did you catch his last words?" and was horrified to learn that he was singing "Possum up a gum-tree."

The conclusion of the war brought Mrs. Gibbons no discharge from social duty. In advance of it she had been interested in various reformatory work, looking more particularly to the reformation of women and children. When nearly ninety she went to Albany and carried a bill for the appointment of police matrons through the Legislature, only to have it vetoed by Gov. Hill. In her ninety-first year she was again in Albany working for a reformatory for women, and carrying the labor of months to a successful issue by her untiring energy and tact. Social benevolence was the ruling passion of her life, but her interest in organized charity abated nothing of her personal interest in the unfortunate. Her individuality was too positive to be made subject to any organization, except possibly that of the Republican party, which was for her always in the right because it had decreed the death of slavery. The book is refreshing and inspiring from the contact it affords with a personality so vigorous and positive and unique, uniting in itself such different strains, at once so tender and so strong. If widely read, as it deserves to

be, the book will not only make many women feel ashamed of their frivolity, but will convince them that there is a straighter path to happiness than theirs.

The French Revolution and English Literature: Six lectures delivered at Princeton University by Edward Dowden, LL.D., D.C.L., etc. Scribners. 1897.

This attractive little book of nearly 300 pages is the first of the series of "Princeton Lectures" which are to comprise in seven volumes the lectures delivered by distinguished foreigners at the sesquicentennial celebration of Princeton University. The material of Prof. Dowden's essays is, with some additions, taken from lectures delivered by him at Cambridge, England, as "Clark Lecturer" in English literature. Prof. Dowden's aim has been to give their proper historical setting to the chief figures in English literature in the period, roughly speaking, from 1770 to 1820, and to trace the influence on them and their writings of the leaders of the revolutionary movement in France and England. It is an interesting study of the workings, in the literary mind, of the Revolutionary ideas of human perfectibility and "simplification" through a return to nature,which some put in practice by discarding hair-powder and the cocked hat, others, like Maria Edgeworth's father, by trying to bring up their sons in republican simplicity on the pattern of the priggish hero of 'Sandford and Merton.' The personal history of Thomas Day, the author of 'Sandford and Merton,' showing how the 'Contrat Social' and 'Émile' fermented in a British brain, may here be read as an entertaining commentary on a work that has long ceased to amuse. Mr. Dowden relates how, rejected by Edgeworth's sister for his uncombed hair and table-manners, and despairing of all systems of feminine education but his own, Day reared two foundlings, a blonde and a brunette; how, in course of time, the brunette, Lucretia, forsook him and married a linen-draper; how he, in turn, forsook Sabrina, the blonde, on her betraying certain fatal weaknesses of mind. "When, to give her hardihood, he fired pistols at her petticoats, Sabrina screamed; when he dropped melted sealing-wax on her large and white arms, she started. Finally, she did, or she did not, wear certain long sleeves which had been the subject of his aversion or his liking, . . . and he quitted her forever."

The gentle Cowper is classed with the "precursors of revolution" less by virtue of such utterances as his prayer for the fall of the Bastille than by his desire for simplification, and that sensibility for animals which he shared with Coleridge and other Revolutionary sympathizers, and which made them the sport of the Anti-Jacobins. In the poem called "New Morality" they satirized Sensibility:

> "Taught by nice scale to mete her feelings strong,
> False by degrees and exquisitely wrong;
> For the crush'd beetle *first*, the widow'd dove,
> And all the warbled sorrows of the grove;
> *Next* for poor suffering *Guilt;* and, last of all,
> For parents, friends, a king and country's fall."

It was with satire such as this that Canning and the Tories in their review, the *Anti-Jacobin*, raised a laugh against these younger literary enthusiasts of Revolution.

In his lecture on the "Theorists of Revolution," Professor Dowden traces the special influence of Godwin, exerted personally and through his treatise 'Political Justice,' on the literary men of the day. Southey, Coleridge, and Wordsworth were disciples of Godwin for a period of youthful enthusiasm, while Shelley, who lacked the balance and power of original thought of the others, pushed his father-in-law's doctrines to their logical consequences. The failure of the Revolution in its historical development finally worked the disillusion of Wordsworth and his friends, but they maintained a tempered enthusiasm for the theory. In his lecture on "Recovery and Reaction," Professor Dowden says of Wordsworth that, in his disappointment, "he retained his desire to simplify life, . . . he lost none of his sense of the dignity of man as man, . . . he thought less, indeed, than formerly of man in an abstract way and of the rights of man; but he entered far more deeply into the joys and sorrows of individual men, . . . he ceased to speak of fraternity and equality; but this was because he perceived a certain effeminacy in levelling down the truth to general notions and ambitious words." This mood of resignation turned to something like the earlier glowing faith when England became the champion of freedom against Napoleon. "The noblest products in the field of pure literature which the Napoleonic wars have left us are Wordsworth's political sonnets, his poem 'The Happy Warrior,' and his pamphlet on the 'Convention of Cintra'" (p. 214).

The three most energetic opponents of the literary reaction against revolution were Landor, Byron, and Shelley. After his abortive expedition in help of Spain, Landor, in disgust at the new despotisms of Europe which followed the fall of Napoleon, diverted his interest to the South American Republics, "partly, he says, because he wished every nation under heaven to be independent; partly, because he thought it would be advantageous to England that some counterpoise against the power of the United States should be found on the American Continent." Byron "had a strong feeling for the Revolutionary movement as a destructive force, . . . but he cared little for the principles . . . which are positive. constructive. social. . . . He could do little more than plead for an emancipation of egoism. . . . He asserted with emphasis the prerogative of man to do what he likes, where he likes, when he likes, how he likes." Byron's heroes and heroines, his Corsairs, Giaours, and Pirates, carried out his theory of individualism; to us they seem melodramatic marionettes; but Professor Dowden maintains that they "were once as much alive as certain favorite heroes and heroines of contemporary fiction are at the present day. Perhaps *Nora Helmer* and *Hedda Gabler* may by and by repose in the old marionette-box, and the wires by which their limbs are convulsed may have grown rusty. . . . Let us feel towards Byron's Oriental figures with some tenderness, for they deserve it" (p. 272). Several years since, in 'Transcripts and Studies,' Mr. Dowden wrote at length on Shelley, and in these lectures he could add little to that estimate. His closing paragraph, with its fine contrast of Byron and Shelley, is worth quoting:

> "In Byron we find an expression of the Revolution on its negative side, . . . in Shelley an expression of . . . its positive side. As the wave of revolution rolls onward, driven forth from the vast volcanic upheaval in France, and as it becomes a portion of the literary movement of Great Britain, its dark and hissing crest may be the poetry of Byron; but over the tumultuous wave hangs an iris of beauty and promise, and that foam-bow of hope, flashing and failing, and ever reappearing as the wave sweeps on, is the poetry of Shelley."

Cyprian: His Life, his Times, his Work. By Edward White Benson, D.D., D.C.L., sometime Archbishop of Canterbury. With an Introduction by the Right Rev. Henry C. Potter, D.D., LL.D., D.C.L., Bishop of New York. D. Appleton & Co. 1897. 8vo, pp. xxxvii, 636.

It is impossible not to look with respect on this volume, to which for thirty years the venerable Primate of England devoted the leisure left to him by more engrossing duties. Fortunately for him, he lived to complete it, even to the proof-reading, and if he was denied the satisfaction of witnessing its publication, he had derived from it what is the truest reward of authorship—the consecration of his powers to a worthy object. That he himself recognized this is indicated by the entry in his diary recording its completion: "If it ever sees the light, many will think it a very odd book. Folk are edified in such different ways. But it has edified me, which is what I began it for."

When a man of culture and scholarship devotes half a lifetime to a single subject, one expects to find that subject treated with all that research can bring to bear to illustrate it on every side. In this the reader will not be disappointed. The author has spared no labor to familiarize himself completely with the condition of society in the third century, and with that of the African province in particular; he has saturated himself thoroughly with Cyprian's writings, which he analyzes carefully and elucidates minutely with all the resources derivable from Roman jurisprudence and Christian archæology and theology. His object has evidently been to place himself as much as possible in the position of a contemporary, in so far as relates to the causes and immediate consequences of the events described, while retaining the vantage-ground of a modern in pointing out their ultimate results.

With all the advantages, however, resulting from this mode of treatment, there is the drawback almost inseparable from a work passing through so long a course of incubation. The arrangement is confused by the injection of learned episodical discussions of minute points. Historical perspective is lost and the general effect is marred by the multitude of adventitious matters introduced. The overflow of conscientious learning has a tendency to obscure, till one scarce can see the wood for the trees. The style, moreover, leaves much to be desired. From a prefatory note by the author's son we gather that this is the result of deliberate intention. "I only wish," he reports his father as saying, "to say the obvious thing without the customary periphrasis; it all comes of hours spent with intense enjoyment over Thucydides, weighing the force of every adjective and every particle." This perhaps explains why the end of a sentence sometimes seems to have so little connection with the beginning that the reader is puzzled to trace the current of thought that has developed

so unexpectedly. It does not excuse, however, the reckless use of pronouns of which the antecedent is doubtful, nor the apparent settled conviction that a sentence can be complete without a verb. There are passages in which the author rises to a manly and sustained eloquence, but as a whole the book is not easy reading for a careful student.

It probably was not Archbishop Benson's intention to write a polemical treatise under the guise of an historical biography, but, given his position as an Anglican churchman, his choice of a subject rendered this almost inevitable; in fact that choice may not improbably, though unconsciously, have been influenced by the opportunities which it afforded for such treatment. Cyprian was the master-mind of the Latin Church at a period when primitive simplicity was gradually developing into hierarchical organization, and the struggle had already commenced between centralization and localization. During his brief pontificate, from 248 or 249 to his martyrdom in 258, he took a commanding position in that struggle, vindicating on the one hand his full authority as Bishop, and on the other his independence of the Petrine see. Naturally he thus represents the ideal of Anglican episcopacy, and his acts and his writings have served as an armory from which subsequent controversialists have drawn their weapons.

Cyprian, in fact, has been a thorn in the Ultramontane side, especially since the Vatican decree rendered *de fide* the direct and immediate supremacy of the Holy See over every parish and every Catholic, thus realizing, after nearly six centuries, the dream of Boniface VIII., which found expression in the bull *Unam Sanctam*. There was his unquestioned sanctity and the veneration which he inspired in such doctors of the Church as St. Augustine; there is the stubborn fact that he is enrolled in the Roman calendar of saints with commemoration in the canon of the mass. Yet there are also his unqualified resistance to Roman dictation, his assumption of equality with the Bishop of Rome, and the theory which interpenetrates his works of the unity of the church coexisting with complete episcopal independence in the diocese. That this, moreover, was the recognized ecclesiastical organization in the third and fourth centuries is forcibly manifested by the author (p. 435) in showing that, throughout the great controversy over the rebaptism of heretics, the debaters on the Roman side, which finally prevailed against Cyprian, appealed to tradition and to argument, but never to the authority of the Holy See. They supported its view, but they never imagined that it had any authority to decide the question. In fact, the complaint of St. Optatus against the Donatists is not that they were rebellious to the Petrine Church, but that they refused to let the imperial power define their religious beliefs. Modern Catholic writers thus have a difficult subject to handle in Cyprian; forgery and interpolation have been employed to make him contradict himself, and the most improbable theories have been injected into history, all of which the author follows up and exposes with a holy zest indicative of the living actualities of the questions started some sixteen hundred years ago. At the same time he does not neglect the opportunity which his subject affords to combat Presbyterianism and its "truncate communities."

To these strong Anglican convictions is owing a curious blindness to the possibility of Cavour's ideal, the "libera chiesa in libero stato"—the disconnection between Church and State. To the good Archbishop this is a recrudescence of the Donatist heresy and even worse, for it opens out to him the most awful consequences. "It gives up Christianity and it gives up the world. . . . It is content that States should have no profession of the Truth of Christ. . . . It gives up Christianity. For it confesses that there are powers in the world which Christianity cannot and dare not deal with, gates of hell which must be left to prevail" (p. 529). Considering this and a confirmatory passage which he quotes from Bishop Lightfoot, we can readily understand why the House of Lords, with its bench of bishops, has offered such strenuous resistance to the legalization of marriage with a deceased wife's sister, and we can forecast the bitterness of the final struggle for disestablishment.

In a couple of pages of introduction, Bishop Potter has rendered a graceful tribute to the labors of Archbishop Benson, but it would have been in better taste had he not allowed the publishers to display his name so prominently on the title-page.

The Diseases of Plants Caused by Cryptogamic Parasites. An Introduction to the Study of Pathogenic Fungi, Slime-fungi, Bacteria, and Algae. By Dr. Karl Freiherr von Tubeuf. English edition by W. G. Smith, Ph.D., Lect. Edin. Longmans. 1897.

One of the most striking instances of rapid and satisfactory division of labor in scientific fields is presented by cryptogamic botany. Only a few decades ago, all that was positively known about the structure and habits of flowerless plants could be reasonably assigned to the keeping of those who were general botanists, but the development of the subject has been so rapid, and, on the whole, so satisfactory from the point of view of scientific accuracy and thoroughness, that successive reassignments have been found desirable from time to time. In the treatment of the single class of flowerless plants called fungi—a class which comprises within its somewhat uncertain limits mushrooms, rusts, moulds, bacteria, and all sorts of uncanny organisms—it has been absolutely necessary to divide and subdivide the work among specialists, and even now some of the newest comers in the field are looking anxiously for the relief which will follow further minute subdivision.

This tendency towards minute subdivision is sound and natural. Extreme specialists may be much narrowed by it in their outlook and their views, because they must confine themselves to a very limited district for study; but, fortunately, there still remain, in the Old World and the New, some who, by their training and strength, have been able to retain a hold on the different departments of cryptogamic botany as these successive separations have occurred. In our own country we have Dr. Farlow, whose grasp of the subjects of algae, and of fungi as well, enables him to preserve a sense of proportion and perspective with regard to all these minor groups. In the Old World there are, perhaps, not more than two or three of whom this can be said. The whole drift is towards minute specialization, and the specialist may be deemed happy who can look out clearly beyond his own borders.

Perhaps the difficulty which surrounds the investigation of the structure and what is called, for want of a better term, the life-history of any organism, will be better understood if we remind our readers that almost every step requires the assistance of the compound microscope, and that each step is time-consuming in its employment of a complicated technique. It might be thought that here, as elsewhere, many hands might make light work, but this is not so. Each one must complete his own task, and in his own way. Each of the many hands may undertake separate tasks, and then remains the important and oftentimes discouraging problem of coördinating the results which must be verified, but which, from the very nature of microscopic technique, can hardly be repeated with exactly the same conditions as before. In the work before us there is a well-planned attempt to accomplish this task of coördination in the department of plant diseases which depend on the invasion of cryptogamic organisms. On the whole, the treatise is very satisfactory. Facts have been gathered with thoroughness, transcribed with accuracy, and weighed truly. Moreover, the translation is good. It places in the hands of the student and general reader an immense mass of details arranged in convenient and telling fashion. We are not a little curious to see whether it will have the effect of repressing the somewhat abnormal activity in this department, especially in the case of those who are engaging in the work with too little preparation. Perhaps, however, it may wholesomely stimulate to better and more thorough work. This last was plainly the object of the author and of the translator. We feel sure that the reader who glances at a treatise like this for the first time will be greatly impressed by the diversity of effects which ensue on the invasion of destructive fungi and the like. Not only can cells and tissues be broken down, and organs practically annihilated, but there are instances where, through the marvellous reaction of the plant or its parts, new shapes are brought into existence and old shapes disguised. The changes go so far even as to effect the reappearance of lost parts, such as abortive or suppressed stamens, and so on. In a word, when the foreign influence begins to be felt, new growths follow, and these growths are by no means the same in all organisms, even when the exciting cause is the same. We wish we could bring from the perusal of this book better cheer as to the cure of this class of plant diseases. Much has been done by new methods of spraying poisonous liquids on the victimized and stricken plants in order to kill the invaders or their advance skirmishers, but very much more remains to be done. Fortunately, both in this country and abroad, the great zeal which characterizes investigation in the whole department of vegetable pathology gives ground for encouragement. We may hope that, at no very distant date, some of the most destructive maladies may be completely stamped out and others held in check.

Souvenirs d'Amérique et de Grèce. Par Pierre de Coubertin. Paris: Hachette & Cie. 1897.

M. de Coubertin has been prominent for several years as a promoter of international-

ism. The world is not so ungrateful as to have forgotten his energy in urging the revival of the Olympic games, and if he is as successful in his present enterprise, and manages to deflect the current of American students from Germany to France, he will have deserved even better of his country than he did in his more showy experiment, which did not redound to the especial glory of French athleticism. For, international as he is, M. de Coubertin is too much of a patriot not to put France in the first line, for which no one will blame him. But somehow these international promoters get scant thanks.

In less than a hundred pages M. de Coubertin leads us an international dance from Chicago to California, from the sesquicentennial of Princeton to the toboggan of Canada. In less than a hundred pages he unfolds his view of the Olympic games of old, touches off the main features of the Olympic games of 1896, and gives us a tourist's glimpse of Corfu—not the least attractive chapter in the book. In the American half, M. de Coubertin emphasizes the inevitable contrast between the feverish nightmare of Chicago and the tranquil dream of the World's Fair; between "the army of unhappiness recruited from all the shipwrecked of Europe" and the joyous crowds that filled the grounds of the Columbian Exposition; between the foreign stratification of the great city and the symmetrical incorporation of American idealism in Jackson Park. To this American idealism M. de Coubertin is eager to do justice. Perhaps he does it more than justice; but he cannot refrain from little skits at American peculiarities. Our way of decorating buildings he likens to the display of the wash of circus clowns, and he is evidently not much edified by President Harper's comparison of the working of the University of Chicago with the running of a railroad. President Harper's comparison not only lacks novelty, but fails to represent true American university ideals, and as to the adornment of buildings, it may be said that Americans find the European fashion of hanging old rugs out of the windows in times of rejoicing quite as absurd as M. de Coubertin finds our display of bunting. So hard is it to be cosmopolitan.

The chapter on the university movement in the United States leads up to a plea for closer interchange between America and France. France does not know the good work that is done on this side, and America has cooled towards France. The notion of French decadence has penetrated the university world. The French language has receded and French science has lost its prestige. Our historians underrate the part France has played in our past. Bancroft inaugurated this historical ingratitude, but McMaster has made an advance on Bancroft, and has managed to tell the story of the independence of the United States without pronouncing the name of Lafayette.

All this is more or less epigram. M. Brunetière would have a different tale to tell about the receding of the French language and the decline of our interest in things French. Paris swarms with American students of art, and no American scholar is ignorant of the remarkable work that is done in France. "Unfortunately," to quote the language of an eminent French classical scholar, "the French have officers enough, but they have no army." It is not the German professor alone, it is the university life of Germany, that has attracted and continues to hold the American student. If that life slacks (and it seems to be slackening), no amount of superior intellectual productivity will avail. It is, indeed, not unlikely that the French schools will have their day once more, and M. de Coubertin's efforts to bring about that good time are highly creditable to his patriotism; but these currents cannot be set up at will.

The chapters on the Olympic games are sad reading now in view of recent events, which have formed a bitter commentary on the well-known verses of Euripides, in which the atrabilarious poet follows the thinkers of his time in minimizing the importance of athleticism. M. de Coubertin is a believer in athleticism, in "sport," which, like all adopted English words, has a much more devil-may-care aspect in French than in its native habitat. The original institution of the Olympic games was, he contends, a glorification of "sport"; and he thinks that scholars have sophisticated themselves in their views of the games, and have tried to explain away the fact that the Greek people, "creator" as it was "of beauty, enamoured as it was of poetry, of dreams, of harmony, periodically forced all these divine gifts to do obeisance to the royalty of muscle." Hellenists, it seems, have sought the secret of the Olympic games everywhere rather than in the heart of things, in the "sport" itself. The so-called religious element is nothing but poetic gilding. The worship of physical beauty is naught. The athlete himself is not beautiful. There is no real beauty in the games as such. What is beautiful in them is ambition and will. In fact, all athleticism is summed up in the three words that Père Didon gave as a motto to a football team, *Citius, fortius, altius.* "These words form a programme of moral beauty. The æsthetic of 'sport' is an immaterial æsthetic." The motto is a good one, and will answer admirably for a variety of spheres. *Citius, fortius, altius* would look well as the device of a roof-garden, and fitly enshrine the moral beauty of the high kickers.

In pursuit of his theme, M. de Coubertin traces sympathetically the revival of athleticism, especially in the closing years of the century. American athleticism he thinks due to the "war of secession"; French athleticism to the "disaster of 1870." The resuscitation of the Olympic games is the consecration of the movement. This way of looking at the matter has the merit of extreme simplicity, and any commentary might break the charm. The account of the performances in Athens is much more meagre than was to be expected, and in the descriptive portions of the book it is only too evident that M. de Coubertin is an admirer of Pierre Loti.

Zwischen Alaska und Feuerland. Bilder aus der neuen Welt. Von Gustav Brühl. Berlin: A. Asher & Co. 8vo, pp. 722.

Any one desirous of becoming acquainted in a pleasant way with the more interesting points of both Americas, without the hardships of trudging through dry and treeless valleys, endless wastes and malarial swamps or of climbing rocky cliffs, should, if he have command of the language, read Brühl's book. It is written in a lively and attractive German style, and, though its author is a specialist in American archæology, it does not smack of book-learning of the dryasdust sort. A man of Dr. Brühl's extensive experience as a traveller and historic knowledge knows how to select from his wide and numerous peregrinations just those facts and sights which chiefly attract cultured readers; and after reading twenty pages of this volume they will no longer take fright at its bulk. Brühl's purpose was not to describe America as a whole in a uniform style of topography; we soon discover that he has an eye for what is grand and impressive in nature, extraordinary in quality and dimension, and also for what is characteristic respecting the tribes or nations inhabiting the different countries. This predilection it was that prompted the Cincinnati physician to visit and describe the wonders of the Yellowstone region, the Grand Cañon, and the smaller gorges through which the Colorado of the West pours its turbid waters. The writings of Charles F. Lummis probably caused him to explore Arizona's wildernesses and inspect the Natural Bridge and the petrified forest, which have had comparatively few visitors. Alaska, Niagara, and the Thousand Islands are too old a story for us to dwell upon. By this route we are brought to the sunny climes of Mexico and especially of Yucatan, where archæologic tastes may revel with the love of nature. The pyramid of Xochicalco, "at the flower-building," visited repeatedly by Dr. Brühl, and described as early as 1791 by the Padre Alzate, is situated in the wilderness southwest of the City of Mexico. In spite of its dilapidated state, it still extorts admiration by its beauty and huge dimensions. The upper part is almost gone, but what remains is covered with sculptures described in detail in the author's very circumstantial relation. When he reached Yucatan, the country was in distress, for the "Indios sublevados" threatened the peace of the state more than ever; but nobody interfered with his excursions to Aké, with its pyramid, to Labna, to the sculptures on the sugar-hacienda of Tabi, to Mani, the celebrated domain of the Tutul-Xiu dynasty, to Zangi in the centre of the forest, and to Kabah. The ruins most frequently visited by swarms of tourists are those of Uxmal. Not a single navigable river exists in Yucatan. Of curiosities Dr. Brühl notes a certain well or *pozo;* light or volatile articles falling into it in the morning hours will be brought up again in the afternoon by a change of the air-current. In Uayalceh there is a thick ceïba-tree, which grows out of a deep zenote or natural rock-well. Mitla, in the land of the Zapotec Indians, is famous not only for its temple, but also for its enormous cypress-trees.

Dr. Brühl's pen-pictures of South America are equally attractive with the foregoing, and readers will follow him easily through many valleys of the mighty Cordilléras, through Chili, around Cape Horn, and to the capitals of the eastern coast. His descriptions of Lake Titicaca and its island of the same name, and of the towering giant mountains Illimani and Illampu, possess a special and absorbing interest.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alden, Cynthia M. W. Manhattan, Historic and Artistic. The Morse Co.
Bellamy, Edward. Equality. Appletons. $1.25.
Comstock, Prof. J. H. Insect Life: An Introduction to Nature-Study. Appletons. $2.50.
Du Maurier, George. The Martian. Harpers. $1.75.

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 15, 1897.

The Week.

The Senate has, following the House, taken its leap into the dark, and the cry of the leading Republican organ is, "For Heaven's sake, let the conference committee put some revenue duties into the bill!" What conference committees usually put into tariff bills is jobs, not revenue; but the confessed exigencies of the situation are certainly greater this year than ever before. Such ludicrously varying estimates of revenue were never before made by the different cooks that have been spoiling the broth. Mr. Dingley said his bill would produce $269,000,000. Not so, said Mr. Aldrich, it will produce only $159,000,000; and he added $23,000,000 more to get his total estimate of $182,000,000. Mr. Allison knocked off the $23,000,000, but still asserted, though with confessed qualms, that the bill would yield $180,000,000. The only apparent motive for his choosing that figure was the desire to show that the new bill would at least surpass the Wilson tariff, which produced in the last fiscal year $176,000,000 from customs duties. Even so, the bill as it passed the Senate being substantially the Dingley bill, Mr. Allison is at variance with Mr. Dingley in his estimates only a little matter of $89,000,000. The funniest thing of all is, however, that Mr. Dingley now agrees with Senator Allison, but he explains this as a result of the "delay" in the Senate's action. But he cannot save his reputation as an expert in that way. He committed himself to the prediction that the effect of delay beyond May 1 would be a loss of "$1,000,000 to $2,000,000 of revenue for each week." Calling it $2,000,000 a week, we have had a delay of not over ten weeks, which would mean a loss of $20,000,000, thus leaving $69,000,000 of the difference between Senator Allison and Mr. Dingley still unaccounted for, except on the theory that the latter did not know what he was talking about. The conclusion of the whole matter is that this "most scientific tariff bill ever constructed" is a hopeless mess as a revenue measure.

Secretary Gage has made a most impolitic proposition to prevent the Sugar Trust from getting a profit of $12,000,000 to $16,000,000 out of tariff legislation. It was highly indiscreet to call attention to this state of affairs at all. Everybody knew, of course, that the Trust was going to make $16,000,000, but why blurt it out? Has Mr. Gage no dread of the way this will sound on the Western stump? He feebly says that it is "only a business proposition" for the Government to take this money instead of the Trust. This could be done, no doubt, by an internal-revenue tax, as the Secretary proposes, but Congressmen see fatal objections to this course, though a plain business man would never dream of them. In the first place, it would cause more "delay"; it would be "contentious matter" which Senators would want to talk about. Besides, it is too late now. Why didn't Mr. Gage think of all this before? Furthermore, the sugar schedule is all settled, and the Trust had a majority of only two votes; who knows but it would turn round and defeat the whole bill if its profits were now to be threatened? Foolish Mr. Gage to stir up this question and imagine that "business propositions" were the thing to lay before Congress. It was a business proposition which Mr. Cleveland laid before Congress to save $16,000,000 in interest by writing the word "gold" in bonds, and the way that was hooted out of the halls of legislation should have been a warning against supposing that anything more of that kind would be welcome there.

At the present juncture in the coal-miners' strike the *Tribune's* Washington correspondent produces a theory that all the trouble lies in the Wilson tariff. "It was in December, 1893," he says, "that the Congress which framed the Wilson tariff law met, and the work upon the bill which reduced the coal tariff 35 cents per ton was begun. It was promised that that bill should take the entire duty off coal, and, as framed by the ways and means committee and passed by the House, it did place coal upon the free list. The Senate, however, restored a part of the duty on coal, making the rate 40 cents per ton, and the bill when it became a law reduced the tariff rate on bituminous coal by 35 cents a ton, the rate under the McKinley law having been 75 cents a ton." Turning to the statistical abstract of the United States for 1896, we find that in 1892, under the blessed McKinley tariff of 75 cents per ton, we imported 1,331,964 tons of bituminous coal, and that in no year since the Wilson tariff went into operation have we imported so large a quantity, the importation in 1896 having been only 1,243,000 tons. In the latter year, however, we exported 2,246,000 tons of bituminous and 1,394,000 tons of anthracite—3,640,000 tons in all, against 2,508,000 tons of both kinds under the blessed McKinley tariff. So it appears that the tariff worked the wrong way in both cases. It is a great mystery. The only treatise that can adequately explain it is Grosvenor's 'Does Protection Protect?'

The Senate committee on foreign affairs intimates that it has ready another "strong report" on the case of an American imprisoned in Cuba. This is intended to "force the President's hand," or, at the worst (and this is most likely), bring on another "lively Cuban debate." We certainly need another debate of that kind to steady the stock market and hurry up prosperity. It would be deadly to so much as whisper currency reform in the Senate—that might strangle prosperity in its very cradle; but a loud call for war is just what we need to restore confidence and raise wages. What we wonder at, however, is that it does not occur to the Senate to pay these Cuban indemnities out of its own undistributed Cuban money. There is still, we understand, some $40,000 on hand out of that $50,000 voted in the dark for the relief of Americans in Cuba. Our consuls have made heroic efforts to find the Americans and spend the $10,000 drawn by Consul-General Lee; they have "relieved" several of their own employees, with many native Cubans, and, in one case credibly reported, a Chinaman; but a large balance remains in spite of all they can do. Why not use this money to pay the indemnity to Richelieu and Bolton, whose claim Lodge wants the President to collect by force? Otherwise it may remain indefinitely unexpended, or even covered back into the Treasury—either alternative something frightful to think of in the case of public money.

An address to their American "compatriots" was some time ago adopted by the Hawaiian branches of the Sons of the American Revolution, the Sons of Veterans, and the Grand Army of the Republic, and is now published in this country. It is of interest as stating the arguments in favor of annexation in their boldest form. In the first place, San Francisco, Honolulu, and Unalaska form an equilateral triangle. We infer from this that whenever an equilateral triangle can be constructed having two of its angles in the United States, the third angle, according to the Monroe Doctrine, must necessarily be included within our territory. To the astrological reasons implied in "manifest destiny," we may now add those of a geometrical character which are not only more comprehensible but also more conclusive. In the second place, spectacular considerations demand that the United States should be in possession of the Sandwich Islands. Mr. Seward announced thirty years ago that the Pacific Ocean, with its shores, its islands, and "the vast regions beyond," was to become the chief theatre of events in the world's great hereafter. Of course, the Yankee race

will want to see this future show, and if Hawaii is going to furnish them front seats, the sooner they are engaged the better. No one can tell when the curtain will begin to rise on the world's great hereafter; but it must be said that the Pacific Ocean is not yet so interesting as the Atlantic and the surrounding countries. Thirdly, there has been a movement in Hawaii to abolish the contract system of labor, and introduce profit-sharing as well as the importation of industrious farmers from the United States, and the benevolent purposes of those engaged in this movement will be abandoned unless annexation is carried out. Finally, if the United States does not "grab" the islands, the Japanese will. They already outnumber the Americans greatly, they are increasing rapidly, they are fitted for the climate and its industries, and their destiny is so much more manifest than ours that it will prevail if we delay any longer. The presentation of these reasons should appeal forcibly to the sense of justice which distinguishes the American people.

The Iowa Democrats who believe in Democratic principles held a State convention last week, and put a ticket in the field for the November election. It is the first convention for such a purpose to meet since McKinley's inauguration, and it will deservedly attract the attention of the whole country. The end of the Presidential campaign left the Bryanites in full control of the Democratic machinery. The new managers have recently made the surrender to Populism complete by joining that organization and the "Silver Republicans" in the nomination of a fusion State ticket on the Chicago platform. No sooner was this done than the Democrats who possess convictions resolved to hold a convention and make a campaign for a ticket and a platform which would deserve their support. The gathering was held at Des Moines, and it was notable for the presence of men of principle from all parts of the State who have been leaders in their sections. The ticket nominated includes the names of two men who were elected by the Democrats as Railway Commissioner and Superintendent of Public Instruction four years ago, another who was the party's candidate for Governor two years ago, and a fourth who has been chosen a District Judge by the Democracy in the past. All five are men of approved Democracy, while of the five on the fusion ticket two have been Republicans and another a Populist. The Indianapolis platform of last year was the basis of the declaration of principles adopted.

The business men of Philadelphia are stirred up over the discovery of a characteristic exhibition of contempt for their interests by the "Government" of the State of Pennsylvania. For several months the Republican leaders in the Legislature talked about passing what was known as the "Bliss beer bill," but the matter dropped out of sight toward the end of the session. Since adjournment it has been discovered that, during the closing hours, after three readings and final passage in the House and two readings in the Senate of the "Bliss beer bill," the measure was completely and radically altered, so as to change it from a bill providing for the imposition of a tax upon beer, ale, and porter to one imposing a mercantile license tax, enormously in excess of the present tax, and inflicting upon the merchants of the State a serious burden, without giving the class affected an opportunity to be heard. The bill was not even brought to the notice of Philadelphia merchants until it had passed the Legislature and was in the hands of the Governor. Representatives of twenty-five commercial organizations have held a meeting to petition him to veto it, "thus preventing the imposition upon our merchants of a burden which would seriously cripple them, if not drive some of them out of business."

This was all very well, but will these protesters, members of the dominant party, seize the chance to prove their sincerity? Senator Quay has announced that he will be a candidate for reëlection, and from this time until the Legislature shall ballot for the office a year from next winter, he will direct his energies towards securing another term. It rests with the business men of the State to decide whether he shall succeed. It is they who are chiefly responsible for the existing situation in Pennsylvania, for, as ex-Postmaster Field of Philadelphia said in his speech the other day, they "have committed the great interests of this State into the hands of a single individual." Will they commit those interests to the same hands again? Apparently they will. One of Quay's henchmen, State-Senator Durham, says that he has no doubt that the Senator will be triumphantly reëlected, and the Philadelphia *Ledger* says that "there is no apparent reason why any one else should have doubts upon the subject."

The Georgia Bar Association, after disposing of those lawyers who defended lynchings, took some positive action towards securing reforms in methods of procedure which will remove abuses that have often provoked the people to violence. Resolutions were adopted which declared it to be the sense of the association that criminal pleadings should be amendable, that the State and the defendant should be upon an equality in the challenges of jurors, and that prisoners who desire to make any statements on their own behalf should do so under oath and subject to cross-examination. The President was authorized to appoint a committee of nine to urge the adoption by the next Legislature of bills embodying these principles, and to present to the Association at its next meeting a report covering the whole subject of needed reforms in the criminal law and its administration. The press of Georgia has long urged the necessity of such action as this on the part of the lawyers, and the profession in other States may well imitate the example.

The decision of Justice Chester that the statute passed at the last session of the New York Legislature, known as the "Anti-Trust law," is unconstitutional. while not final, is very convincing in its reasoning. That statute was intended to correct the evils, or supposed evils, of combinations in restraint of trade by establishing altogether new methods of criminal procedure. It has been one of the distinguishing features of English jurisprudence that no one should be compelled to incriminate himself, or to give testimony tending to subject himself to penalties or forfeitures. This principle is recognized by the Constitution of the United States, and by the Constitution of New York, and has been generally supposed to rest upon an unquestionable basis of justice and expediency. While it may sometimes result in the escape of the guilty, it so clearly tends to protect the defenceless against oppression that few writers on jurisprudence have not given it their hearty approval. Apparently moved by the idea that trade combinations were beyond the reach of the established system of administering justice, the New York Legislature provided that no person should be excused from answering any question put to him in a proceeding under the statute in question on the ground that his answer might tend to prove him guilty of a misdemeanor as defined in that statute. With a view to avoid the constitutional provision, the statute further provided that the testimony given by a witness should not be used against him in a criminal proceeding, and that no criminal action should be brought against him on account of such testimony. As Justice Chester says, this would protect the witness against a prosecution for giving perjured testimony, but it would not protect him against prosecution for a violation of the statute disclosed by means of the testimony that he had been forced to give. "The act contains no immunity from prosecution of the witnesses for the crime which is sought to be discovered by the examination, and the discovery of which is the chief purpose of the examination."

The second ground on which the act

is held unconstitutional is more technical, but hardly less important. The procedure introduced imposes non-judicial functions on the courts, and thus violates the fundamental principle of the separation of the powers of government. The Attorney-General is empowered to call on a justice of the Supreme Court to assist him in discovering evidence. The justice has no function to perform in such a proceeding except that of a commissioner under letters rogatory. "There is no cross-examination of the witnesses; the testimony, if it can properly be called such, could not be used in an action or in any proceeding, and the application leads to no judgment or determination of the court." Such duties Justice Chester considers to be not judicial, but merely ancillary or auxiliary to the Attorney-General in the discharge of his functions, and as therefore not constitutionally devolved on the Supreme Court. So far as the substantive provisions of the act are concerned, Justice Chester intimates that they may be constitutional, for the reason that they simply reiterate the common and statute law on the subject of combinations in restraint of trade.

Those glowing predictions in the *National Review* of what England would do for silver, which were cabled to this country a fortnight ago, turn out to be, as we suspected, little more than the editor's fancy at work. He says he "should gather" from M. Méline's speech that the French Premier would do so and so, and that he "believes" the British bimetallists to be able to compel the Government to do this and that; also "our readers may take it from us" that the Indian mints will be reopened, etc. All this qualifying guess-work was left out in the despatches, as was also the editor's admission that "public opinion in England is not ripe" for coining silver at a fixed ratio with gold; in other words, the international bimetallists are fooling themselves if they think they are going to get anything from England. But the *Review* says one thing which there is no gainsaying. Referring to the rumors that President McKinley intends to do something to establish the United States more securely on the gold standard, it observes:

> "It would be difficult to conceive anything more absurd than that the President of the United States should accredit three Special Envoys to the heads of the chief foreign governments for the express purpose of negotiating a bimetallic settlement, and meanwhile depute his Secretary of the Treasury to take the necessary steps for establishing his country on a monometallic gold basis. There never has been such double dealing as between nation and nation, and there never could be, and President McKinley is the last man in the world to lay himself open to such vile insinuations."

This is the simple truth. Nothing could be more absurd than the bimetallic Special Envoys if the Administration is really for the gold standard. Somebody is being tricked—either the bimetallists or the sound-money men.

It should make little difference to England whether the seal question is formally reopened or not, for in some form or other it has been an open question ever since Mr. Blaine declared that it was *contra bonos mores* to kill seals unnecessarily. We doubt if any government in the world has ever shown such a determined disposition to do its duty in its foreign relations as ours has in the case of the seals. The case is all the more significant of our attitude because the court of arbitration, to which we got the matter referred, decided at the outset that "the United States have no right to the protection of or property in the seals frequenting the islands of the United States in Bering Sea when the same are found outside the ordinary three-mile limit." Nevertheless, we at the same time got the court to provide for joint fishing-regulations and a close season, established by elaborate rules, binding on fishermen of the United States and Great Britain and supervised by the governments of those countries. Such a police as this is a matter of daily and hourly regulation, and hence if we insist, as we do, that it is not effective, there is no reason why the expiration of the term of five years provided by the court for a reëxamination of the rules, should be waited for. England may say, "We will not reopen till the five years have elapsed"; to this no one can ever prevent us from replying, "You ought to reopen because the evidence shows that the police regulations are not effective." The fact is that the question is open; the difficulty is to close it.

The debate in the French Chamber of Deputies over the renewal of the charter of the Bank has already occupied many weeks, and is far from its conclusion. It has taken a very wide range, and many subjects not on their face germane have been touched upon. Some of them, however, have aroused discussions concerning questions of world-wide importance, not the least interesting of which is the status of the funds of the Bank under established principles of international law. In general, it may be said, war is regarded as carried on by one state or government against another, and not as waged between the individual citizens of the hostile states. Thus, at the beginning of the war of 1870, King William announced that the war was to be waged against French soldiers, not against French citizens, whose lives and property would be protected so long as they did not engage in hostilities against the German forces. In pursuance of this policy, Prince Frederick William ordered the restitution of the funds of the branch of the Bank at Rheims, which had been confiscated by an over-zealous German officer on the capture of that town. This officer assumed that these funds were the property of the French Government, but Frederick William declared that the branch bank was a private institution, and that as such, unless its funds were intended to support the French army, they were exempt from seizure. A still more significant episode occurred at Strasbourg. On the capture of that town by Gen. Werder, the vaults of the branch bank were broken open, the cashier refusing to produce the keys, and the contents were sequestrated. They amounted to 10,000,000 fr., of which 6,000,000 fr. was in bags, ticketed, "At the disposition of the General Treasury." These moneys were transferred to the custody of the Bank of Prussia, but the Bank of France at once claimed them. The matter was referred to the historian Von Sybel, who admitted that the Prussian Government had no right to the property of the Bank of France; but he insisted that money marked as belonging to the French Treasury was properly the subject of prize. On the other hand, M. Robert of the Bank of France maintained that, in the case of personal property, possession determined ownership, and that as the 6,000,000 fr. were in the hands of the Bank of France, they were at law its property. This position was finally sustained by a special article in the treaty of Frankfort, and the confiscated money was repaid to the Bank of France.

The bearing of these incidents on the present proposals of the French Socialists is very plain. They are doing all they can to convert the Bank into a state institution, and if they succeed they will necessarily expose its immense treasures to the fortunes of war. That these treasures would be used by the French Government, if it owned the Bank, is not a circumstance that would discourage the Socialists; but even they may be inclined to hesitate before taking a step that might put these vast resources at the disposal of a hostile Power. Possibilities of this character were considered in 1889, when the constitution of the Bank of Germany was debated; and the whole question was investigated recently in Switzerland, where a law establishing a state bank was rejected by the referendum. In the debate in the Reichstag, M. Thiers's declaration, that if the Bank of France saved the country, it was because it was not a state bank, was quoted with approval, and it was because of the possibilities of war that great care was taken to give the Reichsbank the character of a private institution. It is of the essence of socialism to despise the warnings of the past, but the magnitude of the danger that may be incurred in this instance is sufficient to daunt the most reckless fanatic.

THE SENATORIAL VETO.

Many truths and powers latent in the Constitution have been brought to light and put in action during the tariff debates in the Senate, and not the least important of them is the senatorial veto. This is a grant of power not expressly made in the Constitution; it comes under the head of "implied powers," perhaps, or is involved in the "general-welfare" clause, it may be. Indeed, it is difficult to see how the right of senatorial veto could be reduced to precise terms in writing at all. It is essentially a vague, a shifting, a will-o'-the-wisp right, now apparently vested in this person, now in that, never quite the same thing at two different times. Doubtless it would have been put in the Constitution if the framers had known how to do it; and so, applying the great legal (or Jesuitical, we forget which) "doctrine of intention," we may say that the senatorial veto is, or should be, one of our most cherished constitutional rights, privileges, ægises, and palladia.

The particular senatorial veto to which we refer should not be confused with other varieties. It is wholly distinct from the senatorial veto on the President's appointments to office. The latter right being now so well recognized, being accepted and acted upon by Mr. McKinley, whom some foolish people thought to be himself in possession of the veto power, surely needs no further arguing with intelligent people. Nor do we allude to the veto which the Senate may exercise on ill-judged treaties looking to peace and civilization. It is well known that, as Selden said the whole divine sanction of the decision of a general council rested in "the odd man" whose vote carried it, so the right of making treaties really rests, not in the President, but in the one man in the Senate over or under a two-thirds vote. No, the new senatorial veto we have in mind is one relating particularly to legislation, more narrowly to tariff legislation, closer still to tariff legislation openly and weightily affecting private interests.

Examples being always the best definitions, we will show this senatorial veto in actual exercise. The Senate finance committee proposed an increased tax on beer. This appeared to be wholly within their constitutional rights, and the tax looked very pretty on paper, promising a snug revenue. But the committee had omited to look into Story on the 'Conflict of Laws,' and so had forgotten the fact that the right to veto a tax on beer was vested in Senator Platt. Thus he was compelled to go to them and tell them that he was very sorry, that he wanted revenue as badly as any of them, but that really this was his affair, and his own oath of office and the oaths of the brewers would not permit him to approve of this tax. The committee saw that they had run up against a senatorial veto, and gracefully withdrew the tax.

Many other cases could be cited of the use of this veto. All of them were not in open Senate. To make it as easy as possible for the committee, vetoing Senators used often to go to them at dead of night and beg them not to force a veto, under unpleasant circumstances, in public. There seems also to be a species of the senatorial veto closely allied to what the commentators call, in the case of the President, the "pocket veto," though it seems to be something else than a bill (of Congress; we cannot vouch for the legal-tender kind) that is, in this instance, put in the pocket. But, in spite of all that kindness and forethought could do, the finance committee had often to be vetoed in the full light of day. Again and again Senators had to rise with a pained air and say, "The committee appear to have overlooked my right to veto taxes on soda-ash [or silk handkerchiefs, or pineapples, or white pine, as the case may be]. Far be it from me to keep the spindles from singing again, but I must draw the line here. The committee may tax anything else they please, from argols to Zante currants, and never a murmur will they hear from me; but this tax is a blow at my privileges, and I stand here to say that I never receive a blow without paying it back with interest. So I must return the bill to the committee without my approval."

A tabulation of articles as to which various Senators hold the right of veto would be of great value. It would be an indispensable guide to the framers of the next tariff. If they could know in advance what taxes would be vetoed, by what Senators, they could make a great saving of time and temper. As the list of vetoable taxes is rapidly extending, the time should not be far distant when we can have no tariff at all, as some Senator will be found to veto every item of it. This would leave us rather worse off for revenue than we are now, but it would establish the senatorial veto as thoroughly constitutional. The Washington correspondents, it seems to us, have been neglectful in not compiling a tariff classification of this sort. The form should be something like this:

Article.	Veto vested in
1. Beer	Tom Platt.
2. Soda-ash	Orville Platt.
3. Pineapples ..	Mat. Quay.
4. White pine ..	Spooner-McMillan, ½ vote each.

Carried out through the entire tariff, such a tabulation would be simply invaluable. It would be instructive, too, and fit to do fine work in a campaign of education, if we ever have another. Moreover, it would show how great a triumph it is for Senator Allison to have actually carried a bill over, not one veto, but ninety vetoes, including his own. The vetoes have, to be sure, knocked all the revenue out of the bill, but there is the bill, and it is more than doubtful if the Senate has a constitutional right to raise revenue anyhow.

ANARCHY.

President McKinley's surrender has now become an abdication. He has finally divested himself of his last remaining constitutional power, and the country is practically without a President. Like a Merovingian king, he retains the semblance of a ruler, but really holds office only to sign the decrees which other men impose upon him. He is a highly respectable figure-head; he is an excellent royal-progress kind of Chief Magistrate, travelling about to lay corner-stones and wish his people prosperity; but a President in the constitutional sense—a President of independent initiative, jealous of his prerogative, direct representative of the people—he is not.

Four short months have seen him strip away one power after another of his great office, and throw it to the clamorous bosses. First came the surrender of his constitutional power to "appoint . . . . officers of the United States." He is now simply a pen to sign the commissions which Senators thrust in his face. Next came his abandonment of the power "to make treaties." The Hawaiian treaty was not made by the President, but by a clique of bargaining Senators. Finally, he has given up the right to "recommend to Congress such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient." Congressmen visited him on Thursday, and demanded the surrender of this Presidential function. Mr. McKinley turned it over without a murmur. He prefers to have the country know that he is but the simulacrum of a President.

His retreat on the currency question was most undisguised and cowardly. It was no mere rumor that he was proposing to send a message to Congress urging a first step towards currency reform. There was a formal cabinet meeting. It was formally decided by the President and his official advisers that a message should be sent. The message was actually prepared. The Secretary of the Treasury gave out a glowing interview about it. Anxious friends of sound money were saying, "At last!" Suddenly all was changed. A hurried visit of Congressmen to the White House led to the announcement that the President would hold back his message and probably not send it at all.

No secret is made of what was back of all this. Simply another shameful bargain had been struck to save the tariff. Here is the *Tribune's* unblushing account of the intrigue:

"It is known that the Republican managers in the Senate agreed three weeks ago not to press any measure providing for a

currency commission at the present session. The promise was made at a time when the fate of the tariff bill was by no means certain, and when it was in the power of the Opposition at least to delay action on that measure indefinitely. The agreement provided that there should be no effort on the part of the opponents of the tariff bill to delay action unnecessarily, and that the Republicans should not urge the currency-commission scheme at the present session, even if the President should send in a message recommending such a commission."

And the *Tribune's* cynical comment on the whole disgraceful transaction is that the message would not have amounted to anything, even if it had been sent, as it was intended only as "a soothing dose for inflamed nerves"!

We seem to remember that the *Tribune's* nerves were somewhat inflamed, along with those of the rest of the community, when the great fight for sound money and the nation's honor was waging last summer. We have not forgotten, if others have, the appeals, the promises which were made in Mr. McKinley's name. He asked for and received the support of thousands of Democrats and tens of thousands of Independents, on the ground that he would move speedily and vigorously for a reform of our vicious currency system. As late as in his inaugural address he made fair promises on this subject. Now, at the first fire—before the first fire—at a mere hint—he runs away. It is a fearful blow, not to his own prestige—that is hopelessly broken—but to the whole cause of currency reform. If Senators can veto a message now, they can next December. The silverites control the situation, and they control it just as they did in 1890—through a wicked betrayal. Dead currency reform is the price paid for the tariff of 1897, as the silver profligacy was for the tariff of 1890. And the men who made Mr. McKinley President are taunted, in the face of this monstrous treachery, with being victims of "inflamed nerves"!

But there is something deeper and worse in all this than the fate of any particular message or measure. It signifies that constitutional government has ceased to exist at Washington. No organ or exponent of the popular will now remains there. If it were simply the fact that Congress had become supreme, and that the President had consented to be effaced, the situation would be deplorable. Congress has undoubtedly been pushing its usurpation of power during the past twenty years. The secret of its ferocious hostility to Mr. Cleveland was more than personal—it was due to its perception that in him a rugged and outspoken opponent of its unconstitutional pretensions had been found. He excited the wild rage of Congress not so much by what he did, as by the fact that he dared to do anything independently. Mr. McKinley has changed all that. He and Congress are harmoniously at one, but Congress is the one. Harmony is always attainable by surrender, and the President has now not only surrendered, but abdicated.

This of itself, we say, would be most deplorable and alarming. But the desperate nature of the situation is fully seen only when we consider the fact that it is not Congress, but the clique of bosses in control of Congress, that is now supreme. What are the Republican Representatives from New York, Pennsylvania, and Ohio but so many puppets in the hands of Platt, Quay, and Hanna? What does the Republican caucus in either House or Senate register but the decree of these men and their fellow-conspirators? That is what our representative system has come to in practical operation. By denying the people the right to nominate, by blackmail and intimidation, a group of political bosses has been enabled to bestride Congress. And it is to them, not to Congress, that the President is really surrendering his constitutional rights and powers. It was Quay—not on the finance committee, not on the conference committee, having nothing to do directly with the fate of either tariff or currency—it was Quay who went to the White House and told the President his message must not be sent. Of course, the American people have got to find some way of restoring their government. But they will have to get along without Mr. McKinley's help. He has extinguished himself.

REACTION.

The Republican party has always posed as the especial friend of civil-service reform. In the first national convention after the passage of the act of 1883 it declared that this reform had been "auspiciously begun under the Republican administration," and advocated its completion "by the further extension of the system to all the grades of the service to which it is applicable," as well as the observance of "the spirit and purpose of the reform in all executive appointments." In the convention of 1888 this declaration was readopted, with a contemptuous allusion to the desertion of the reform cause by those who had abandoned the Republican party in 1884, and with the boast that "we will not fail to keep our pledges because they have broken theirs, or because their candidate [Cleveland] has broken his." The platform of 1892 commended "the spirit and evidence of reform in the civil service [under Harrison], and the wise and consistent enforcement by the Republican party of the laws regulating the same."

The Republican national convention of 1896 "pointed with pride" to the party's share in promoting civil-service reform, and committed the organization anew to the further extension of the merit system. This was the brief but comprehensive declaration on the subject:

"The civil-service law was placed on the statute-book by the Republican party, which has always sustained it, and we renew our repeated declarations that it shall be thoroughly and honestly enforced and extended wherever practicable."

The candidate nominated upon this platform had been a supporter of the reform while he was in Congress. As "leader of the House" in 1890, he had opposed an attempt by Republican spoilsmen to "starve out" the commission by refusing any appropriation for its expenses; had expressed his "regret that the committee on appropriations did not give to the commission all the appropriation that was asked for, for the improvement and extension of the system"; and had declared that "the Republican party must take no backward step," because "the merit system is here, and it is here to stay, and we may just as well understand and accept it now." Six years later, in accepting his nomination for the Presidency, Mr. McKinley pledged himself thus solemnly to maintain and extend the reform:

"The pledge of the Republican national convention that our civil-service laws 'shall be sustained and thoroughly and honestly enforced and extended wherever practicable,' is in keeping with the position of the party for the last twenty-four years, and will be faithfully observed. Our opponents decry these reforms. They appear willing to abandon all the advantages gained, after so many years' agitation and effort. They encourage a return to methods of party favoritism which both parties have often denounced, that experience has condemned, and that the people have repeatedly disapproved. The Republican party earnestly opposes this reactionary and entirely unjustifiable policy. It will take no backward step upon this question. It will seek to improve, but never degrade, the public service."

The professedly "authoritative" announcement has been made from Washington, by the chief organ of the Administration, that "important modifications of the civil-service rules will be made by the President at an early day," which will exempt from competition the employees of the Government Printing-Office; deputy collectors, and other minor employees of the internal-revenue service; the sub-officials and employees of federal marshals and district attorneys; and probably also "the chiefs of divisions and chiefs of bureaus, and so forth." The impending "modifications" are reported by the *Tribune's* correspondent as likely to take effect on or about the 20th of July.

It would be hard to exaggerate the seriousness of the proposed changes. The "modifications" outlined would be a step very far backward. Hitherto, under Arthur, Cleveland, Harrison, and Cleveland again, each administration has extended the scope of the merit system. The gains made during Mr. Cleveland's second term were the most important of all. The bringing of the deputy collectors and minor employees in the internal-revenue service within the classified service had been strongly recommended

by a Republican Civil-Service Commission while Mr. Roosevelt was at its head; the extension of the reform system to cover chiefs of division and other similar officials had been expressly and repeatedly urged by Mr. Roosvelt; the inclusion of the Government Printing-Office in the classified service had been long advocated by Republican reformers. Experience has vindicated every extension of the reform, and disproved all the charges made by its opponents.

Every excuse which has been put forward to justify the President's alleged intention to break into the classified service and restore something like 5,000 places to the disposition of the spoilsmen, is based on falsehood. Mr. McAneny, Secretary of the National Civil-Service Reform League, has shown this in two letters published last week in the *Evening Post*. If, in the face of these letters, President McKinley and Secretary Gage carry out the plans attributed to them, they will do so with full knowledge of what their acts mean. They will be taking the first retrograde step which any administration has taken since the classified service was established under President Arthur in January, 1883. From that date to the present time there has been a steady and unbroken progress onward, each successive administration extending the classified service until its membership, which was 15,000 under President Arthur, had been swelled to nearly 90,000 when President McKinley entered upon office, leaving less than 800 places outside civil-service rules.

"The large inclusions," says the *Tribune's* "authoritative statement," "embracing some of the best-paying places, which were made in the last few months of Mr. Cleveland's administration, were clearly of a partisan nature, and not in the line of civil-service reform. Restoring them cannot injure the cause of reform. On the contrary, the rebuke administered to partisan Democracy by their reinclusion in the list of appointive offices will be an efficient factor in the genuine reforms instituted by President McKinley."

There is not one word of truth in this justification. The employees of the Government Printing-Office were placed in the classified service in June, 1895, at the request of the Public Printer. The clerks, storekeepers, and gaugers in the internal-revenue service were classified in December, 1894, and the deputy collectors in May, 1896, mainly through the efforts of Theodore Roosevelt. The subofficers and employees in the marshals' and district attorneys' offices were classified in May, 1896. There were no orders issued "in the last few months of Mr. Cleveland's administration," nor were there, as the *Tribune* also charges, any "midnight orders" issued either in the "last months" of the Cleveland administration or at any other time. This is the favorite lie of the spoilsmen, harped on with especial emphasis by Senator Gallinger of New Hampshire. The latest order issued by President Cleveland was dated May 6, 1896, long before the nominating conventions of last year's Presidential campaign were held, and consequently months before any one could have foreseen the result of the election in the following November. The other lie, which invariably accompanies this one, is that the various orders which President Cleveland issued swept into the classified service a "great army of partisan Democrats." The facts are, as shown by the records, that there are today more Republicans than Democrats in all branches of the service.

The true spirit of these assaults upon the classified service is revealed in this passage from the *Tribune's* "authoritative" statement: "The President is not a dreamer or a doctrinaire. With the eye of a practical statesman—one devoted at all times to the cause of civil-service reform—he has studied since his election what should be done to make the service what it ought to be." That is precisely the language which Gov. Black used in defence of his plans for "taking the starch out of the civil service." He is not a "dreamer or a doctrinaire," and he approaches the law with the "eye of a practical statesman." So do Platt and Quay and all the other despisers of "dreamers and doctrinaires." Mr. McKinley did not speak about the law and the reform in these terms when he made his pledge in his letter of acceptance; neither did such language about them find its way into the platform upon which he stood, nor has it ever found its way into any Republican platform. The party is in power now, and its bosses are demanding more spoils than are accessible. These demands can be met only by breaking into the classified service, and hence the President's preparing to make the assault.

POOLS, TRUSTS, AND MONOPOLIES

There is one point connected with the crusade against capital that has been raging for the past year which seems to have attracted little attention, yet which lies at the heart of the matter—what system would the reformers substitute for the existing arrangement? Debs and the Populists, of course, know what they want; the former is quoted as saying last week that inasmuch as under the present régime capitalists can get no profits, and labor can get no wages, the only way for industry to make any advance is for the whole to be worked by the State for joint account, after which he thinks that the troubles would disappear. This semi-insane declaration is only a burlesque of the actual ideas which underlie the populistic movement.

We do not refer to those ideas, but rather to the whole scheme of criminal legislation against Trusts and monopolies, federal and State, which has all been enacted within a few years at the demand of agitators, and which forms a totally new page in our criminal code. Those who pass and apply such statutes must have, one would think, some idea of what would or might take the place of the vast network of charters, Trusts, contracts, and pools through which capital now operates the agencies of trade and commerce. They can hardly suppose that treating the whole present arrangement as a mass of crime will answer; even if you can both indict a whole community, or a whole generation, and also convict it, the evil is scotched, not killed. You must have some system in mind which is to take the place of what you would destroy.

This is a question which particularly addresses itself to the minds of judges who have to look into these new laws, because criminal legislation is all based on the idea of a possible alternative. It is idle to make offences out of acts which are necessary, and hence the first question underlying the whole debate about Trusts, pools, monopolies, and contracts in restraint of trade is not merely whether they produce inconvenience, now and then enrich men whom we should prefer to see poor, or impoverish men whom we should like to see rich—these consequences have attended the progress of civilization since the dawn of history—but whether pools, Trusts, monopolies, and contracts in restraint of trade are not really a necessary part of our civilization, which cannot be superseded without the disappearance of civilization itself.

Strangely enough, although this matter is vitally involved in our system of constitutional law, it has not yet been thoroughly discussed in this country. Next autumn it will come before the courts in a variety of forms, notably in the argument of the Joint Traffic case before the Supreme Court at Washington. It has, however, been canvassed in England in a great judicial argument, to the full importance of which Mr. W. L. Royall of the Richmond and New York bars invites attention in a pamphlet called 'The Pool and the Trust; Their Side of the Case.' The English case was not a criminal proceeding, although it would have been in this country, but it involved a discussion of the "policy" underlying all interference by the courts with contracts.

The facts were much blacker from the anti-monopolists' point of view than any involved in the trans-Missouri case or in the recent cigarette trial in this city. We give them in Mr. Royall's own words:

"Several lines of steamships traded to China all the year. The trade was unprofitable, except in the so-called 'tea season,' when it was very profitable. The losses of the year were made up and a profit gained by the freights on tea in 'tea season.' Another line of steamers traded to Australia all the year until 'tea season' came on, when its steamers were diverted to Hankow

to get a part of the profitable tea trade. The lines which traded to China all the year entered, thereupon, into an agreement, called there a conference, which was in all essentials one of our 'Trusts,' or 'pools,' or 'monopolies,' or 'boycotts,' or 'contracts in restraint of trade,' or whatever else of the same sort can be suggested. They agreed together to divide out freights among themselves, and they published a notice to all merchants in China that if they would ship everything all the year by one of the conference lines, they would be allowed a rebate from all freights at the end of the year of 5 per cent., and whenever one of the steamers of the Australian line came to Hankow the conference had a steamer there to underbid it on freights; so that whatever the Australian got caused it a loss. Thereupon the Australian line applied to the English courts for protection, upon the ground that this combination of many against one was contrary to the principles of our laws."

Now all the English judges but one, from the trial court up to the House of Lords, sustained the agreement, and they sustained it on the ground that they could not help themselves. "It is not illegal," Lord Morris said, "for a trader to aim at driving a competitor out of trade, provided the motive be his own gain by appropriation of the trade." And it is clear from the case, as Mr. Royall very justly says, that "the alternative idea, which turns courts loose to judge of the validity or invalidity of each particular agreement accordingly as the judge may think it is in harmony or out of harmony with his ideas of public policy, leaves the question of the citizen's rights to the discretion, and the arbitrary discretion, of a judge." This is really the alternative. And if we extend the principle to this country, and imagine the present crusade successful, we should find that our substitute for our present commercial system was the despotism either of court or Legislature.

The trans-Missouri case and Judge Peckham's opinion in it were a perfect illustration. All contracts, he declares, "in restraint of trade" are illegal, because the Legislature has said so. It may be reasonable, or unreasonable, enforceable or unenforceable, but the rule is final. The English case just referred to was, we believe, quoted in the argument, but it made no more impression on him and the majority judges than if it had been blank paper, evidently because the idea is firmly lodged in their minds that arbitrary edicts or decisions are to be substituted in these matters for the free rules of the common law which have made our civilization what it is to-day. Of course, this is only the first step. The last would be the reintroduction of the old despotic control of trade by Government under which free competition would disappear, and the right to buy and sell and manufacture and exchange would become again privileges granted and sold by the Government. Is it possible that we have forgotten already that it was by Government that "monopolies" were introduced, and by freedom not only in competition, but in combination, that they were destroyed?

LONDON DECORATED.

LONDON, June 24, 1897.

So much has been written about the Jubilee that one hesitates to add to the columns of special reports and correspondence on the subject. And yet there is a certain aspect of the celebration to which little reference has been made, though it is distinctly interesting enough not to be passed unnoticed. From the political, sentimental, personal, domestic standpoint, everything that could be has been said. But, while even our own "Greatest Show on Earth" never drew such crowds as the spectacle of London's streets decorated, almost everybody has been content to stare and maintain a discreet silence. There have been only a very few bold voices to tell the truth, aloud and without fear, and to pronounce the decorations abominable.

It might be suggested that the abomination was merely what was to be expected—was merely in keeping with Victorian taste: a fitting tribute to the period commemorated. But it must not be forgotten that the English artist is supposed to have changed all this, and it is really because one has heard lately from all sides of his admirable achievement in the decorative arts that the amazing display London has been making of itself seems the more significant. Within recent years, has it not been to England that the designers and decorators of the Continent and of America have been turning for inspiration? The Salon de l'Art Nouveau in Paris depends upon English Arts- and Craftsmen for its chief attractions. Belgians adorn their houses with bewildering exaggerations of English models. Germany sends enthusiasts to spy out the new Promised Land. The name of Morris is a household word everywhere, and the *Studio* has become the universal organ of artist, art student, and amateur. Nor is the Englishman too modest to admit and glory in the proud position he holds as decorator. It may be that to many an unknown, nameless artisan from abroad he owes the beauty of his old cathedrals; it may be that to Van Dyck and Rubens he must attribute the greatness of the greatest school of English painters; it may be that for the Chippendale chair, the Sheraton table, the Adams mantle, that now make the fortune of the dealer in antiquities, he is indebted to France. But to-day, at last, does he not boast that it is he who sets the standard of decoration for the world? And, as his Arts and Crafts Exhibitions explain, there is not a branch of the ornamental arts which he has not had the time and the ambition to study and develop. Nor does his activity cease here. Technical schools have multiplied in order that among the many as well as the few taste may be cultivated, the early Victorian errors rectified. South Kensington spreads its schools in all directions. The County Council has its art advisers and art classes, and, indeed, at the very moment that London was adorning itself for the feast, I am told that a technical congress, within sound of the decorator's hammer, was calmly and solemnly discussing the beautifying of cities.

And now consider the use London has made of the first great opportunity to prove its decorative powers—for the decoration of a city gives wider scope to the artist than the ornamentation of a single house. An imperial pageant, surely, offers fewer restrictions than the domestic stage. And there was plenty of time for preparation: long months to evolve and perfect a scheme, long weeks to carry it out. Moreover, there was wealth and to spare—money pouring like water into the capacious pockets of builder, contractor, and decorator. Finally, there was a fine background waiting; one, it is true, without the classic elegance of Paris, without the flamboyant color and warmth of Rome or Seville, but still a background with a certain dignity and impressiveness, with a richness and mystery of which the thick London atmosphere holds the secret. When, more than a month before the appointed day, London began to turn itself into a hideous labyrinth of scaffolding and steps; when Trafalgar Square—"the finest site in Europe"—became for the time a huge carpenter's shop; when the National Gallery, the beautiful churches of the Strand, St. Paul's, gradually disappeared behind a network of poles and planks, one bore it in patience, even though one lived in the very midst of the colossal confusion, reserving one's criticism until the builder had been replaced by the decorator.

The decorator appearing, his first care was to put up a sign announcing himself. He came from Tottenham Court Road, from Westbourne Grove, from Oxford Street, from Pall Mall—from a shop, not a studio; the task was in the hands of tradesmen, not artists. And with the first touches of color on the bare wooden structures, the first suggestions of ornament, it was clear that each was working for himself alone, without thought of his neighbor. The Londoner was carrying the English love of personal liberty even into his manner of receiving the Queen. Where principles are at stake, what matter if discord be the result? Paris, little more than a year ago, gave a reminder of the stateliness and splendor with which a great capital can decorate itself on a state occasion. There, authorities did not put their confidence in chance, but in a general scheme of decoration. In London there was absolutely no scheme. The artist was not consulted, so far as I can find out, save in a solitary instance, and then by no means to his credit. Mr. Legros designed a large allegorical group—"Great Britain, Labor, and Commerce"—for the front of the Bank of England; but whether he was hindered by the nature of the commission, or whether he was unused to open-air conditions, certainly the design, when in place, was dull and uninteresting in color, and no more effective than the scene painter's devices for a theatrical spectacle. Elsewhere, however, with two or three notable exceptions, the loyal Londoner relied chiefly upon red bunting, the old familiar V. R., the thistles and symbols that have done duty for so many countless royal birthdays and weddings, ugly little clusters of glass globes, cheap, dreadful portraits of the Queen, all stuck up here and there and everywhere, according to the convenience of the contractor. Beauty, apparently, was left out of the reckoning, except at the *Daily Telegraph* office—its effort deserves to be recorded—which embowered itself in palms, and greens, and purple orchids, and at one of the Pall Mall clubs, which relied also upon fresh flowers and a fine arrangement of flags—among them the Confederate flag waving gayly.

Nor was the mere gorgeousness, beautiful or otherwise, the occasion seemed to demand, taken into consideration. The Baron-

ess Burdett-Coutts made one brave effort with a regal arrangement of purple velvet curtains and gilded columns that disguised the bare ugliness of her Piccadilly mansion. But, for the rest, as a rule, cheapness struck the keynote. And matters were not improved when the City and the different vestries vied with each other in their efforts to disfigure the streets. Across Piccadilly were strung lines of dangling glasses, suggestive of the rows of bottles in a cheap shooting-gallery. The Strand was bridged over by a series of strange erections bearing what looked like red, green, and yellow toy balloons and money-lenders' signs, as primitive and barbaric in design as any ornament you could hope to find in a Central African village. In Fleet Street garlands of artificial flowers and greens swung from purple pillars. Up Ludgate Hill stretched a line of gallows-shaped columns, from which were suspended dried palm leaves, while above each rose a Japanese fan rampant.

So one might go on, describing the marvels of the route. From end to end, the artlessness of the display was simply incredible, though there is a rumor that for the little that was done by the authorities Paris was, in a measure, responsible. But if it be true, as is said, that some of the Jubilee street decorations had already served on the other side of the Channel to welcome the Czar, then in Paris they must have been arranged to far better purpose. London, arrayed in gala dress for the mightiest ceremonial it has been its privilege to hold for many a year, seemed to have borrowed the cheap finery of the travelling show or the country fair. There were places, indeed, where you had but to strew sawdust along the street to imagine yourself in the circus-ring. The wealthiest city in the world, the city that to-day pretends to set a decorative example to two continents, could not vie with the quietest little French town when it makes the feast solely for its own pleasure and delectation. Why, if nothing had been done until the last moment, and if then the City Companies had hung out some of their tapestries and banners, the spectacle would have been worthy of the reception of a Queen and Empress, on her way to return thanks for the sixty years of peace and prosperity her reign has secured to her people.

But really, the fiasco of the decorations—that is, of course, artistically—is the more unpardonable because of the money and material at the command of the people who prepared them. In the procession itself there was the same waste, the same failure to make the most of things. No one has denied that as a pageant it was a disappointment, imperial triumph as it proved from the loyal or political point of view. The elements of magnificence and grandeur were all there; the old Roman conqueror celebrating his victories might have envied the peaceful English Queen the resources at her disposal; but these were sadly squandered. The white, yellow, and black men from the colonies were so massed together that the picturesque costume and bearing of each were lost in the hurried general impression formed as they passed. There was a lavish excess of dazzling uniforms and official robes; indeed, one felt, with perhaps a thrill of patriotism, that the severe civilian dress of the United States representative was a distinction in itself. But it is curious how ill at ease and ashamed the English officer appears to be when he shows himself to the public in his military capacity, while in the jumble of princes only the solemn beautiful Indians and the charming operatic Montenegrins could be distinguished. The one person in all that long array who seemed to understand what was expected of him—except, of course, the Queen, who managed to be as queenly as if bonnet and parasol had been exchanged for crown and sceptre—was the Lord-Mayor on his way to Temple Bar to receive her Majesty, and again as he returned, bearing his sword, to the Mansion House. He wore robes of velvet and ermine, he rode a fine horse, he held himself with dignity, and he beamed in such unaffected delight, he bowed so gayly, as the people greeted him with deafening shouts, that it was a pleasure to see him. If kingdom and empire fail in time of rejoicing, the City of London, at least, still knows how to conduct its ceremonies with proper dignity and display.

Again, with the illuminations there was the same waste, the same thriftlessness, the same reliance upon chance. Again there was the same individualism revealed in the scheme, or lack of scheme, adopted. Naturally, even this haphazard arrangement sometimes produced beauty. There is no finer river than the Thames as it flows through London, and when, in the blue night, the dome of St. Paul's rose white and shining above it; when, as a strong searchlight fell upon them, the buildings on its banks became so many palaces; when boats with red and blue and gold lights floated across its waters—why then it was more like a river in fairy land—the "River of Dreams" that Mr. Henley calls it. But this beauty, after all, was not designed; it happened, as beauty always does in London. And now that the Jubilee is over, one realizes that thousands and millions have been spent, and actually nothing remains to show for them. Not that one is so sordid as not to believe that nations and cities, like individuals, are all the better for letting themselves go now and then, for a little generous outburst of extravagance. But there is the regret that in this case the extravagance did not fulfil its object at the moment, and has left no triumphant trophy behind—not a building, not a statue, not an archway, not a monument to remind the generations to come of the way the sixtieth anniversary of the Victorian reign was kept. The Hospital Fund is supposed to be the noble monument erected. But there was a time when those who gave to the poor and the weak could house their charity becomingly, so that the artist now rejoices in the hospital, as he sees it from without, no less than the sick rejoices in the shelter and comfort it affords within. But in our utilitarian age there is no thought for art. Besides, the Jubilee policy seems to have been, save for this Hospital Fund, to enjoy to-day and let to-morrow look out for itself. Were not the thousands presented to the Princess of Wales to feed the poor, eaten up in an afternoon? Such a policy has its own splendor of recklessness; there is always a something of romance about the spendthrift. But why not, to borrow a phrase from Ibsen, be reckless beautifully?

N. N.

A PSYCHOLOGICAL MUSEUM.

FLORENCE, June 25, 1897.

Florence is so preëminently a city of historical and artistic interests that the average tourist does not suspect the wealth of its splendid scientific collections; hardly even their very existence. The immortal Baedeker, it is true, mentions several modern museums, but these are not granted the double stars which point to the sight-seer's true goal; and the only indication of the very curious rooms of which mention will presently be made, seems to be that of a "musée indien fondé par A. de Gubernatis" (Baedeker, 'Italie Septentrionale,' pp. 365 and 410, ed. 1895). This museum, which is reached from the Via Gino Capponi, and not through the main University entrance, in reality forms part of the Section of Anthropology in the Instituto dei Studii Superiori, and should be so described; for although the "Indian curiosities" include several interesting relics from one of the voyages of Cook (the navigator, not the tourist agent), the ethnological and anthropological purposes of the display are its chief grounds for existence. Further, the museum has long been superintended by Prof. Paolo Mantegazza and his distinguished assistant, Signor Ettore Regalia. Count Angelo de Gubernatis left Florence some years ago, in order to fill the chair of Italian Literature in the Sapienza at Rome.

There are in this museum two small rooms and a cabinet to which an unusual measure of interest attaches, both because of the original idea implied in their foundation and from the number of singular objects they contain. These constitute the "Psychological Museum," established by Prof. Mantegazza in 1889, under the sanction of a royal decree of that date. The present writer remembers reading, a few years ago, a somewhat inadequate notice of this collection in the Italian correspondence of the oldest of European reviews. The sex of the writer was unfortunately betrayed by the tone of a comment on one of the divisions. Prof. Mantegazza's intention is to illustrate, or symbolize, human passions, sentiments, and so forth, with the help of objects which serve in their expression or their gratification, or both. In view of this, human feelings have been divided into the Sentiments of Religion, Cruelty, Vanity, Caricature, Property, and *Sentimenti Diversi*, to each of which one or more cases in the museum have been allotted. The most obvious commentary on this arrangement would bear on its doubtful scientific accuracy and usefulness; but until we have, as Mill said, a "Science of Human Nature," all such classifications are bound to violate the rules of formal logical division, nor will the ordinary visitor give much thought to the general plan of a collection whose details are in themselves sufficiently odd and fascinating.

As the manuscript catalogue shows, the whole exhibition consists of some 1,487 numbers. By far the largest part of this collection consists of objects illustrative of the religious sentiment, with the subdivision of superstition in some of its commonest forms. As will readily be understood, we find here not only religious emblems, such as crosses, etc., but the various artificial aids to worship in ordinary or extraordinary use. Here, therefore, are rosaries, medals, scapularies, chaplets, taliths, phylacteries, etc.; while the influence of superstition may be held to be amply represented in charms, amulets, works on the interpretation of dreams or other omens, recipes for love-philters, the familiar coral branchlets still used in Italy

as a protection against the *jettatura* or evil-eye, and so on. One of the most curious things I discovered in this department was a special form of prayer for curing babies of worms. It would, however, be rather hard to explain the presence on the same shelves of a little paper ticket (No. 443), which is said to have been used by students in Berlin under circumstances rendered plain enough by the accompanying inscription: "Ich kneipe diese Nacht. Sollte ich meinen Weg nicht mehr finden, so befestigen Sie mir gefl. diesen Zettel im Knopfloch und *senden mich heim*. Name :.... Wohnung ....." Another puzzle was the catalogue-description of a large rosary made of wooden beads (No.1433) said to have been "usata dai *Protestanti* negli Stati Uniti d'America," the italicized word having been substituted for *Cattolici*, which is scored out in the manuscript list. I had not the courage to ask Signor Regalia any further details concerning the worship of the sect to which the use of this chaplet is ascribed. As an illustration of the unexpected way in which a familiar and venerable superstition may be applied to thoroughly modern conditions, one notices, close by, the badge or ticket of Bed No. xiii. in a hospital at Florence, which a woman refused to occupy.* Less easily accounted for is the belief among Ligurian sailors and fishermen that two plain unblessed bits of string (No. 293), when tied around the ankles, are a guard against cramps. In the present writer's school days, it was generally held among the boys, on equally warrantable grounds, that two crossed horsehairs in the palm of the hand would not only prevent pain altogether, but infallibly break the cane.

Symbolical expression of the gloomy element of intense religious belief is found in a case filled with hairshirts, scourges (*discipline*), and other ingenious devices against physical comfort, many of which still show bloodstains from old use. Here, for example, is a belt of iron wire bristling inwardly with sharp points, and admitting of tight or loose buckling to suit the severity of the penance. The buckle is cruciform and has little attachments in the shape of small serrated disks, which swing about under the penitent's gown and describe arcs of circles on the skin. One sometimes reads of mock flagellations inflicted with lashes of tow, but the scourges displayed here are undeniably serious. They consist of a dozen or more small metal plates, shaped somewhat like the patent tag on a key-ring, and arranged in the form of a triangle, to the apex of which the thong was fastened. It is a genuine relief to turn from all this to a neighboring shelf, on which stands an original toy—a small wooden church with altar and benches but without a cross, bearing on its façade the inscription, "Maria Mater Grazie." How far such a plaything would foster the growth of religious reverence in the mind of a child would be an interesting subject of experiment for students of what Max Müller contemptuously terms "Nursery Psychology." *A priori*, I should be disposed to place this in the same category as No. 1434, paper money devised by the late Arturo Issel, professor of geology, for the dissemination of useful knowledge, each denomination being a separate booklet setting forth the elementary principles of some science.

* If we are not misinformed, several of the leading hospitals of New York, in deference to this superstition, omit 13 in numbering their beds.—Ed. Nation.

After the remarkable collections of instruments of torture in Munich and Nuremberg, Prof. Mantegazza's rather meagre array of inventions illustrating cruelty attracts but little attention, save for two or three of its items; such, for instance, as a sword-belt of tanned human skin (No. 812), and a mummified forearm (No. 858) from New Caledonia used as a summons to a cannibal orgy. Among the prison-chains, also, one sees (No. 645) a set of gyves, said to have come from the hideous prison of the Bargello, where visitors are now shown Giotto's celebrated fresco-portrait of the youthful Dante, so long hidden under a coat of whitewash. Not less interesting is a set of woodcuts representing conventional modes of torture, and others not known even to readers of Fox's 'Book of Martyrs.' Side by side with these, I found the bound numbers of *La Lidia: Revista Taurina* (Madrid, 1888), and one or two cheap handkerchiefs from Seville with pictures relating to bull-fighting. It need hardly be added that poniards, stilettoes, and iron-knuckles find their proper place in this department.

Much the weakest part of the museum is that relating to Vanity, in two or three cases imperfectly filled. The specimens for the most part might be considered as a sly satire on women, for they include chiefly mechanical devices for aiding or correcting nature in the matter of beauty of figure, most of which, by the way, are now lamentably out of date—even in the eyes of a man. It was this department which stirred the susceptibilities of the correspondent above referred to. Masculine vanity, however, comes in for its share in an exhibit which the reader will be surprised to hear was bought for one hundred francs. This is the outfit and insignia of a grand master of the Masonic Order, of the genuineness of which there can be no manner of doubt. Freemasonry still plays so important a part in the political affairs of Italy that one might almost suspect a covert sarcasm here; but the seriousness of the collection puts this out of the question. Still, without any injustice to the teaching profession, it will readily be believed that No. 1487 (the last in the catalogue) gave the dignified curators of the museum a little thrill of malicious pleasure, as it did, indeed, the present writer. It consists of a thin pamphlet setting forth the testimonials received by Professor G. C. of Turin, on the twenty-fifth anniversary of his occupancy of a chair in the University—all these honors, from the crowned heads of Europe and the highest of academic dignitaries, having been decreed to himself (*decretati a se stesso*) by the alleged recipient. There can be no indiscretion in revealing to American readers the existence of a bogus manifesto which a short time ago increased considerably the labors of several hundred postmen on this continent.

According to the founder of this museum, the Love of Property admits of illustration by means of locks and keys, and also by "burglarious" contrivances for overcoming these obstacles. Although several of the specimens have artistic merit as examples of forged ironwork, it is a surprise to the visitor not to find among them a single product of contemporary locksmithing; nor, so far as one unlearned in these matters could judge, would the pick-locks and skeleton keys be likely to do dangerous service in our day.

As for Caricature, which appears as a separate division, in two large cases, the principal result on the visitor's mind is to confirm his belief that there is no accounting for the vagaries of the sense of humor in the human race. Even Callot's sardonic distortions of his fellows' countenances, and still more the clever series of drawings by Cham, entitled "Les Tortures de la Mode," fill one with wonder that such exaggerations could ever have raised a smile, and almost with regret that such artistic skill should have been wasted on subjects so hopelessly ephemeral in their interest as the fashions of a day. The impression is deepened by the collection of political satires and caricatures, chiefly relating to Italy. In our eyes there is neither very bitter satire nor profound humor in a coin of ten centesimi, bearing an effigy of Victor Emmanuel in full pontifical canonicals; and probably in a few centuries such a joke as this will appear quite as vapid as a comedy of Aristophanes now does to the uninitiated. Besides these, the department of Caricature contains a set of small terracotta busts, each of which represents a human type, of a disposition or a profession—the haughty man, the drunkard, the angry man, the waiter, and so on. This collection was rather dear at one hundred and fifty francs, for a more undeniably conventional set of faces it would be difficult to find; they remind one of the plates in Lavater's 'Physiognomy.'

"Sentimenti Diversi" is a most convenient expression for lumping together a large number of odd objects not readily classifiable; and the reader must not imagine that the title stands for "Mixed Motives." Had such a denomination as the latter been adopted, probably not a single specimen of the museum but would have admitted of classification under this head, thus producing in the catalogue a perfectly bewildering labyrinth of cross-references. But there is obviously some difficulty in deciding the exact place to be occupied by such an object as the following: A small casket containing relics of the "illustrious martyr," accompanied by a letter dated "Longwood, 18th June, 1861," and signed "Gauthier de Rougemont." Its contents are:

"1. Une petite bouteille d'eau puisée à la fontaine où allait se désaltérer le César des Césars, dans sa promenade à la vallée du Géranium, aujourd'hui vallée du Tombeau.

"2. Feuilles de saule du tombeau du plus grand des capitaines.

"3. Morceau de bois de la muraille contre laquelle s'est appuyée la tête de l'Empereur.

"4. Un second morceau pris au niveau de la tête de l'Empereur," etc., etc.

In default of immediate personal relics, such as hair, buttons, or shreds of clothing, the sentiment of hero-worship attaches value to strange things indeed; but one feels inclined to recommend to collectors of this stamp the careful perusal of Calverley's poem on the cherry-stones dropped by H. R. H. the present Prince of Wales, which some of his loyal subjects, one day to be, picked up as they fell from the august lips.

Passing by the beginnings of an Advertisement collection, from which Chéret and his imitators are rather conspicuously absent, one is attracted by a large case in the middle of the front room, which, in spite of the gruesome nature of its contents, no one can fail to examine with very particular attention, for, so far as the present writer knows, this is absolutely unique. It is an array of bits of human skin admirably mounted,

varying in area from two to three or four inches square, tattooed in a great variety of patterns, and representing the custom of dermal inscription both in savage and in civilized countries. The ticket, *Sentimento Religioso*, at the end of the case, does not refer to all of these; tattooing, as every one knows, being practised from a great variety of motives, among which vanity plays a prominent part. This collection is so complete, and the specimens with their inscriptions are so excellently preserved, that a separate paper would be required to do it appropriate justice.

Lastly, in a cabinet which is very judiciously closed to the public, there is found a small exhibition of objects representative of the human appetencies, normal and abnormal, which the French fiction of the last 150 years has exploited, for literary and business purposes, with so much regrettable pertinacity and still more regrettable success.

It would be quite foreign to the purpose of this sketch to offer long discussion on Prof. Mantegazza's scheme and its execution. The museum is admittedly a mere beginning, which in all likelihood is destined to be an end also. Who, indeed, would have the courage to undertake the complete exposition of human character and disposition with the help of purely objective, symbolical means? The world is all before him, where to choose. Doubtless, from time to time, presentations and gifts will add to the collection, but the practically minded men who direct the application of the finances of public instruction in Italy are much more inclined to notice what seems chimerical in the plan than to recognize the singular originality of the conception. Besides, for actual teaching purposes, the most perfect of "psychological museums" would be little better than useless. Here would certainly be the occasion for echoing Prof. Ladd's warning, "If you would be true psychologists, leave your books, laboratories, and museums, and study the daily life which your fellows lead alongside of you." The true psychological museum is the world itself, of which uniform classification remains impossible, since, as has been said, no two human beings ever dichotomize the universe at the same point.

In conclusion, the writer desires to offer his very sincere thanks to Signor Ettore Regalia, assistant curator of the museum for the generous way in which catalogue, keys, etc., were placed at his disposal. This is only one item in the large debt of gratitude owed by the writer to several of the eminent men composing the staff of the University of Florence. P. T. L.

Correspondence.

WILL AND SHALL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: All lovers of correct speech and writing will have read with pleasure the remarks of "A Super-Octogenarian" on the misuse of *will* and *shall*. This misuse is perpetually cropping up, sometimes in the most unexpected places. I could name more than one "monthly" of large circulation and good standing which misuses these little words about as often as they can, and, to judge by the correspondence in its educational journal, one of our largest cities has a number of high-school teachers who hold themselves *super grammaticam* with respect to *will* and *shall*, *would* and *should*—if they know it; while too many school-teachers everywhere seem to consider such sentences as "We *will* confidently expect you" correct in both speech and writing.

But I would venture to ask "A Super-Octogenarian" whether, when he wrote "Schoolmasters *had* made haste to make (the correction), . . . fearing their pupil *will* be told," it would not have been more grammatical to write "fearing" they "*would* be told"? It may also be observed that neither the mnemonic quatrain nor the Scotsman's mistakes furnish a complete guide to the proper use. The use in interrogative clauses, for example, requires special treatment.

Yours very respectfully, C. J. Gedge.

Berkeley, Cal.

Notes.

Memorials of William Cranch Bond, Director of the Harvard Observatory, 1840-59, and of his son and successor (1859-65) George Phillips Bond, drawn from the family papers, have been prepared in a single volume, well illustrated, by Prof. Edward S. Holden of Lick Observatory. It will be issued in a small edition by C. A. Murdock & Co., 532 Clay Street, San Francisco (New York: Lemcke & Buechner).

Henry Frowde, 91 Fifth Avenue, is about to publish for the Egypt Exploration Fund part of a papyrus book found some 120 miles south of Cairo on the edge of the Libyan Desert; a single leaf, consisting of *Logia*, or Sayings, of Jesus, detached and without context. The writing is uncial and very clear, and will be reproduced by the collotype process. A cheaper edition for wide circulation is contemplated. The collection may date from the second century.

The Clarendon Press is publishing a short account of the newly discovered portions of the Hebrew text of Ecclesiasticus (xxxix., 15—xlix., 11). Dr. Neubauer and Mr. Cowley, the editors of the recently issued facsimile, are the authors of these prefatory remarks, and of a prose translation from the Hebrew original which they introduce. This translation is printed with the revised version of 1895 on the opposite page. The two versions are placed so as to correspond line for line as far as possible. By this means certain omissions and blunders committed in the Greek translation and inevitably reproduced in the revised version, become apparent. In chapter xliv., v. 4, the second part of the second couplet was omitted in the Septuagint; a whole couplet is lacking in xlii., v. 11, so that verse 12 seems to introduce a new subject, and is hopelessly obscure. The most important further omissions appear in xxxix., vs. 20 and 21, in xli., v. 9, xiv., v. 25, and in xlvi., vs. 13 and 19.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. have seized the opportunity to present to English readers the remarkable Polish novel, 'Demoiselle Micia,' by Mrs. Margaret Poradowska, of which mention was lately made in these columns. Miss Hapgood will be the translator.

The Century Company will issue in the autumn Bishop Potter's 'The Scholar and the State,' Mary Hartwell Catherwood's 'The Days of Jeanne d'Arc,' and a child's book on the same heroine, illustrated in color by Boutet de Monvel.

The first fall publications announced by G. P. Putnam's Sons are 'Impressions of Turkey during Twelve Years' Wanderings,' by Prof. W. M. Ramsay; 'The Story of the Palatines,' by the Rev. Sanford H. Cobb; 'Some Colonial Homesteads and their Stories,' by Marion Harland; 'Chronicles of Tarrytown and Sleepy Hollow,' by Edgar Mayhew Bacon; and a 'Life of Ambroise Paré,' by Stephen Paget.

Henry Holt & Co. have just issued a book of some 280 pages that will be greeted with joy by those French instructors who use, or are intending to adopt, a scientific method of teaching French pronunciation. The work is called 'Chrestomathie Française,' and has been prepared by Professor Rambeau of Johns Hopkins and Jean Passy, a brother of the distinguished French phonetician. It consists of assorted texts, representing many styles and various degrees of difficulty, printed both in the standard spelling and in a phonetic transcription, and preceded by a brief introductory chapter on French sounds. The phonetic alphabet used is that of the *Maître Phonétique*. The composition of a work of this sort demands an enormous expenditure of time and careful labor; and as the sales will necessarily be (for a long time, at least) extremely small, the gratitude of all phoneticians is due to the disinterested efforts of the compilers.

We are reminded afresh by 'The Story of Butte,' an illustrated special edition, in pamphlet form, of the Butte *Bystander*, of the opportunity such crude histories afford foreign students of our growth and institutions of getting at the very pulse of the machine. Where the greatest mining city in the world now stands, there was not a habitation in 1864; and in 1875, as a panoramic photographic view of the period shows, the settlement numbered probably less than a hundred houses. Its population now numbers 45,000, and it has in thirty years produced $300,000,000 in precious metals. But most valuable in this history is the long line of portraits, with biographic sketches annexed, in which the American physiognomy and character as affected by the Western environment are so instructively exhibited. They typify the men who are now in the saddle, politically speaking, wielding through the Senate of the United States an utterly disproportionate power to shape the national policy and to fix the national tone. They are worth scrutinizing even to the very cut of their hair.

The ready-made reading-notice sent out with the July number of *Godey's Lady's Book* asserts that the magazine celebrates the beginning of its sixty-eighth year by the issue of an anniversary number, the title cover of which is a reproduction of the first cover ever used by the magazine. But the cover so reproduced in no way resembles the original, which was a plain piece of printer's work without aid from the engraver, the only words in large type being "The Lady's Book." "Godey's" did not form part of the title till several years later. The cover now given, with the interpolation of the original date (1830), was first used about 1855.

The new fortnightly review, *La Diplomatie* (Paris, 50 Boulevard Haussmann), appears to have taken its crease, and is to be described as a quarto, with a pictorial cover containing the portrait of some sovereign or other personage; and made up in-

ternally of an editorial review of the politico-diplomatic situation the world over, regular foreign correspondence in the same line, and an agreeable miscellany concerning "mundane life," Parisian life, the theatre, finance, trade, science, literature, in a certain irregular constancy. This lighter portion is often illustrated with portraits. The recording of diplomatic documents the review will perhaps leave entirely to the *Mémorial Diplomatique*.

The railway from Loando into the interior of the Portuguese colony of Angola is now running as far as Ambaca, a distance of 225 miles. The construction of the road, according to the *Revue Scientifique*, has been entirely by negroes, under the direction of European engineers, mostly French. At the same time, technical instruction was given to the negroes so successfully that "it may be said that they manage the line at present," as well as form the personnel of the telegraph service and are the artisans in the workshops.

The progress made on the Great Siberian Railway during the year 1896, according to the official report to the Czar quoted in the Consular Reports for June, consisted mainly in the construction of 878 miles of roadbed, making the whole length of rails already laid, excluding stations and sidetracks, 2,262 miles. The work of providing for steam transport across Lake Baikal was also begun, and will be finished in 1898, when the railway will probably be completed to Irkutsk. Up to the present time, $38,045,388 has been appropriated.

In the same publication is an interesting account of the successful prevention of hailstorms by means of explosions. An owner of extensive vineyards in Austria has erected six stations on six prominent heights about his land, and commanding a territory of about two miles in extent. These stations each contain ten mortars loaded with 4¼ ounces of powder. At the first indication of a storm a corps of volunteers, consisting of neighbors who are also owners of small vineyards, hasten to the stations and shoot the sixty mortars regularly and simultaneously until the clouds are scattered. In one of six instances last summer "the cloud wall opened up funnel-like, the mouth of the funnel began to rise in the form of consecutive rings, expanding gradually until all of the clouds scattered and entirely disappeared. There was no hail or even a sudden downpour of rain."

The annual report of the State Geologist of New Jersey for the year 1896 is a thick volume of varied contents and exceptional interest. Much of it (and not the least valuable part) is in continuation of past research. Such is the report of progress in the investigation of the surface geology of the State, conducted by Messrs. Salisbury and Knapp and now practically concluded; the fresh list of artesian wells by Lewis Woolman, accompanied by an account of recent significant discoveries of fossils in the Fish House black clays; Mr. Vermeule's notes on the great flood of February 6, 1896, in northern New Jersey. Quite new, and possessing a real economic and sanitary importance, is the last-named writer's engineering scheme for the drainage of the Hackensack and Newark tide-marshes—a problem of a kind in which New Jersey abounds, viz., How far is this a State matter, properly to be executed at the general expense? Or, if a local concern, how to unite in it the communities directly interested? There can be little doubt that the proposed redemption of the marshes would be a profitable undertaking apart from its indirect beneficial effects. Numerous maps and sections and other illustrations enrich this volume.

While our effete republic is first filling the new posts in the National Library politically and then "covering them into the civil service," the effete Italian monarchy is holding a competitive examination for assistant librarians in the Government public libraries, under article 122 of the statute regulating those institutions.

The valuable Necrology annually prepared for the Alumni Association of Andover Theological Seminary by its Secretary, the Rev. C. C. Carpenter, records the death of thirty former members of the institution, the smallest number for any year hitherto reported. Owing to three deaths at unusually early ages, the average duration of life is reduced to seventy years; but there were nine deaths at over eighty and seven between seventy and eighty. Perhaps the best known of those who passed away was Dr. A. H. Quint; but Prof. Blaisdell of Beloit College and the Rev. Luther Farnham, the Secretary of the General Theological Library in Boston, filled important positions. A list of the addresses of the present members of the Association accompanies the Necrology, and if the membership can be enlarged to an extent sufficient to justify the expense, a full list of the addresses of all living alumni will be prepared for publication next year. The annual fee of membership is one dollar, the payment of which entitles the member to receive the publications of the Seminary, including the next general catalogue, to be issued probably in 1900. Remittance may be made to the Treasurer, the Rev. W. L. Ropes, Andover, Mass.

Among the Jubilee honors given in England, some are not without interest to Americans. Mr. Maxwell Lyte, the deputy keeper of the records, has been made a Knight of the Bath. The Grand Cross of the same order has been conferred upon Sir Arthur Haliburton, the Under-Secretary for War, who is a son of "Sam Slick." Sir Arthur is a native of Nova Scotia.

—The *Century* for July contains some entertaining illustrated articles on Sport—"After Big Game in Africa and India," by H. W. Seton-Karr; "Hunting the Jaguar in Venezuela," by William Willard Howard; and "Sports in the Seventeenth Century," by W. A. Baillie-Grohman. The jaguar is not usually a very terrible beast, though Mr. Howard makes the most of him, and describes a curious way of destroying him, which sounds thoroughly Venezuelan. The hunter directs at him a long spear, at an angle of forty-five degrees, the butt of the shaft planted in the ground. The animal springs at the hunter, and impales himself on the spear, while his crafty enemy "dodges to one side and rolls over out of harm's way." The contrast of the popular European sports of the seventeenth century with those which Europeans to-day pursue in Asia and Africa, shows that we have opportunities of which our hunting ancestors hardly dreamed. John C. Van Dyke's "William Hogarth" is written to accompany three of Cole's new series of wood engravings after Old English Masters. There are a good many pictures by Joseph Pennell in this number, some illustrating a sketch by Mrs. Pennell, called "Play in London"; others, and better ones, an article on "The Churches of Poitiers and Caen," by Mrs. M. G. Van Rensselaer.

—Dr. Edward Waldo Emerson, in the *Atlantic*, publishes a correspondence between Sterling and Emerson, with a short sketch, which altogether reveals clearly not only these two idealists of a day now past, but, by way of vivid contrast, their friend Carlyle. The letters breathe an atmosphere of friendship and purity and at the same time of complete abstraction from the world. As we get further away from the period to which they belong, we grow more and more out of literary sympathy with the feelings and conceptions that underlie what is said. We clearly comprehend that Sterling thinks that "there are hardly, perhaps, three Englishmen living with the slightest thought of what art is," and cannot help thinking that he felt that he stretched a point in admitting that there might be more than two. Then we read what Dr. Emerson calls Carlyle's "dismal summary" of Sterling's life, and wonder whether Sterling himself knew what art was. Aspiration is the one quality which breathes through the letters—the aspiration of lonely, yet humane saintship, eager for sympathy; and, perhaps, in a world that goes generally on its belly, this ought to be enough. But there is much more in the letters than this. Sterling's two Englishmen seem to have been Tennyson and Carlyle, though the former, he fears, "will hardly wake out of tobacco smoke into any sufficient activity"; the latter he calls "a gigantic anti-poet." Alvan F. Sanborn has a paper on the "Future of Rural New England," in which he describes the dead New England town—the antithesis of the "live" New England town as described by him in the May number. He adverts to one new feature of New England life which must in the course of time have a considerable influence on its character, though its full importance he does not, perhaps, appreciate—we mean the permeation of New England by city life, which establishes itself side by side with the old New England and more or less swamps it. "City people" are making homes in many parts of it for half the year, and thus bringing in capital and taste; the Episcopal Church, coming from the cities, is building pretty churches, and alienating the parishioners from the old barn-like Congregational church with its horse-sheds; dairy farms are being established which supply the city; good roads are demanded by "summer residents," and are being supplied by the State, a distant corporation, having its capital in a city. Yet the old political town-meeting machinery is still managed by the local assemblages of half-educated farmers, who look askance at all these innovations.

—The most important articles in *Scribner's* are on John Cabot, by the Marquis of Dufferin, who is chairman of the Cabot celebration committee, and on William Morris, by Walter Crane. Both are illustrated, and the former is accompanied by curious maps and facsimiles. Besides these, "Cavendish" gives utterance to some wisdom on the subject of "Whist Fads," which will probably please equally well those who play a good game and those who play little and care less. "The Modern Business Building," by J. Lincoln Steffens (illustrated), is the

fifth of a series of papers on the "Conduct of Great Businesses," by various hands, all of which are more or less entertaining. Mr. Steffens touches on the extraordinary changing "sky-line" of New York, such as, thanks to the topography of Manhattan Island, in combination with tall buildings, exists nowhere else in the world. Another paper on "Undergraduate Life," this time at Yale, by Henry E. Howland, gives a good deal of amusing local information. Mr. C. D. Gibson's "London" continues to be illustrated by sketches from life.

—Capt. James Parker, U. S. A., contributes to *Harper's* for July an interesting article on West Point "as an element in the system of national defence." Assuming that the object of a military academy is not simply to furnish officers for our little regular army (it is also assumed that a large standing army is out of the question), but to furnish a reserve of highly educated officers in case of need, he says that we have no adequate reserve. In 1812 the maximum of cadets was fixed at 260, the population being then 7,500,000, or at one cadet for every 30,000 population. The population is now not far from 75,000,000, while the maximum number of cadets allowed is only 370. In time of war we should have only some 1,400 West Point officers to count upon, and as the size of armies has enormously increased in the last thirty years, we may be said to be worse equipped for war in this important respect than we were in 1860. Capt. Parker thinks that in case of any actual fighting we should require at least 16,000 officers (*i. e.*, to officer 400,000 troops) of which the Military Academy ought to supply half. To produce 8,000 available graduates, six times the present number of cadets should be under instruction. To accomplish this end, he would have two additional military academies, one in the West and one in the South, for he says "the facilities at West Point could not easily be enlarged to accommodate this number of cadets"; and he would have appointments based on competitive examinations, as in the civil service. All this seems, on paper, plain sailing, but the difficulty arises when the question is asked, How are we to dispose of the graduates? As the army is not to be increased, there will be something like three graduates for every commission. Now a commission is the prize which draws young men to West Point, yet the author sees no way out of his difficulty but the discharge of all the superfluous cadets as soon as they shall have completed a term of service, say six months, with their regiment. This inevitably suggests a doubt whether the diminished chance of getting anything more than an education out of the course would still be sufficiently attractive to draw young men. Capt. Parker makes several suggestions of detail, but evidently speculation will not solve the main question, which is, how far the success of West Point is dependent on what is now its main feature—the certainty that a young man who succeeds there will get a commission for life. Capt. Parker's arguments apply, *sub modo*, to the army itself, as well as to the academy. That is, if our reserve of officers should grow, so should our *cadre* of men. In actual war a trained professional nucleus in the ranks gives steadiness to raw soldiers, just as trained officers create the army. The whole question is interesting, but Capt. Parker's treatment of it is not for Jingoes.

—Students, teachers, and readers of history will alike be grateful to Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart for his 'American History Told by Contemporaries' (Macmillan), of which the first of four volumes has recently appeared. If we may judge from the present volume, the plan of the series contemplates a collection of extracts from representative contemporary writers, arranged at once chronologically and topically, and intended to illustrate the social, economic, and political life of the people rather than to narrate the events of their history. The first volume deals with the era of colonization, from 1492 to 1689, the illustrative selections being grouped under the heads of Norse, Spanish, English, French, and Dutch discoveries, the conditions of colonization (as regards its reasons, its regulation, and the character of the emigrants themselves), and, finally, the separate colonies in order, and the general characteristics of the Southern, Middle, and New England sections. The extracts, of which there are one hundred and fifty-seven, are short, few exceeding three or four pages in length. Each is prefaced by a few lines of introduction, with bibliographical references; there is also a useful general introduction on the sources and their use. Legal and constitutional documents are, as a rule, excluded, and the purely literary merit of the pieces chosen has been a secondary consideration. The volume has a good index, and a consolidated index to the series is promised. It is, of course, obvious that the preparation of a work of this character is primarily a matter of selection, for the available material is very great, and the judgment and skill of the editor will be shown as much by what he omits as by what he includes. Professor Hart has drawn his illustrative extracts from a wide range; we have most of the better known pieces, besides many familiar only to students, while the selection as a whole calls only for praise. Some more general comments suggested by the appearance of the work we reserve until the publication of the series shall have reached a more advanced stage; we do not hesitate, however, to commend the undertaking as likely to prove of indispensable usefulness in the study of American history.

—Writing from London, on the 2d inst., a correspondent says:

"The executive committee are busily engaged in making preparations for the coming conference of librarians, at which about 300 librarians from the United States are expected to be present. The meetings of the conference will take place in the famous Guildhall of London. Sir John Lubbock will be the President, and, in his absence, it is probable that Mr. Justin Winsor of Harvard will be moved into the chair. About thirty-seven papers have already been set down on the agenda. Twenty minutes will be allowed for a paper, and five minutes to a speaker taking part in a discussion. The conference will be opened at the Guildhall on Monday, the 12th, with a *conversazione*, and the reading of a paper by Dr. Garnett, C. B., the Keeper of Printed Books at the British Museum. The members will on the same evening be entertained by the Savage Club. On Tuesday they will be given a welcome by the Lord Mayor of London, at 10:30 A. M. From four to seven P. M. there will be a reception by the President and Court of Governors of that clerical institution known as Sion House, where are many old books relating to the English colonies in America. That same evening there will be a reception, by the Lord Mayor, at the Mansion House, from nine to eleven. On Wednesday, the 14th, the members will be entertained at a garden party, from four to seven, by the Marchioness of Bute. From ten to twelve o'clock that evening they will be given a reception in St. James's Square by Lady Lubbock. On Thursday, the 15th, there will be a visit to the library of Brook House, Park Lane, the town residence of Lord Tweedmouth, brother of the wife of the Governor-General of Canada. During the same hours there will be a visit to Apsley House, the residence of the Duke of Wellington, and there will be afternoon tea at Grosvenor House, with the Duke of Westminster, London's principal landlord, as host. At eight that evening there will be a special performance of 'The Merchant of Venice' at the Lyceum. On Friday, the 16th, there will be a visit to Lambeth Palace, the Archbishop of Canterbury's London house, where will be an exhibition of books and manuscripts. During the same hours Stafford House will be thrown open to members by the Duke of Sutherland, and London House by the Bishop of London. These are not all the junketings that are contemplated. Moreover, the department of science and art of the British Museum and the Public Record Office are to be made specially accessible to the participators in the conference, and they are to be made free of the Zoölogical Gardens from Sunday, the 16th, to the Saturday following. Of London clubs, the City Liberal, the Junior Athenæum, the National Liberal, and the Savage will open their doors to the male members, and the gentler sex will be welcomed by the Alexandra."

MASPERO'S STRUGGLE OF THE NATIONS.

The Struggle of the Nations: Egypt, Syria, and Assyria, by G. Maspero, Hon. D. C. L. and Fellow of Queen's College, Oxford, Member of the Institute, and Professor at the College of France. Edited by A. H. Sayce, Professor of Assyriology, Oxford. Translated by M. L. McClure. D. Appleton & Co. 1897. Pp. xii, 794. $7.50.

This book continues 'The Dawn of Civilization,' by the same author. It begins with the period of early contact and conflict between Babylonia and the western edge of Asia, and between Asia and Northern Africa. The date cannot be precisely fixed. When all the witnesses shall have been heard, it seems probable that a much earlier time will be accepted for these first contacts (at least those between Babylonia and the west) than Maspero contemplates in this volume. Professor Sayce, in his preface, refers with reason to the increasing antiquity of our sources, and the increasing clearness with which authenticity and trustworthiness may be ascribed to them. Dates of 5000 B. C. for early Babylonian civilization, and of 4000 for regular intercourse with Syria, in war and peace, now seem moderate. It is not a ground of criticism that Professor Maspero's statements already need modification here. It is only an evidence of the restless and rapid course of enlarging knowledge in our time. The author's endeavor has been to make use of the latest discussions. To a remarkable degree he has done so. All the recognized authorities in Assyriology and Egyptology are represented in his abundant notes; the references are given with care, and various opinions fairly stated. Even Mr. Petrie's discovery of "Israilû" on an Egyptian stele of Minephtah's time finds a place (pp. 436-443).

Maspero has some unusual qualifications for such work as he has undertaken. He has large knowledge as an Egyptologist, familiarity with the literature bearing on the rest of his field, the historical instinct, the power of combination, the gift of

pictorial narrative. The result is a work of comprehensive scope and sound basis, truthful, in the main accurate, and in a high degree attractive. Its abundant maps and illustrations—four hundred and more—increase its fitness for the intelligent public for whom it is designed. Some of them have exceptional value, even for those already well informed. Notwithstanding the abundant footnotes and citations of authorities, the aim of the work is essentially popular. The author does not usually debate points about which scholars are disagreed. He gives different views, and often selects one, but does not argue it out. His work is not of the same kind with that of Wiedemann, Tiele, and Müller; Eduard Meyer's 'Geschichte des Alterthums,' which covers much the same ground, is more suggestive and stimulating for students, and a better guide to investigation, although a book a dozen years old is in this field no longer modern. Maspero attracts by the breadth of his canvas and the interest of his subjects, by the artistic grouping of his materials, the lucidity of his style, and the aptness and profuseness of his illustrations. His, then, is a book for a gentleman's library more than for a specialist's table or shelf.

It is noticeable that Egypt occupies the largest amount of space. This is due partly to the fact that the period covered in the volume includes the golden age of Egypt, the time of its greatest glory, political, architectural, literary. It is due partly to the resulting abundance and variety of material at hand, inscriptions, public and private, secular and religious, drawings and carvings of many kinds, objects of use and of ornament, permitting a fulness of description of military operations, household life, and common social phenomena such as we have as yet from no other ancient people. The unwrapping of the royal mummies, of itself, gives an opportunity for individual portraiture and characterization which no writer is at liberty to neglect. If an additional reason for the prominence given to Egypt be found in the special familiarity and independent competence of the author with reference to this department of his subject, it is only natural that it should be so. No doubt he has conscientiously endeavored to be impartial, and do full justice to each branch of his subject. The wonder is not that he occasionally fails, but that he so largely succeeds. It is in no fault-finding spirit that we express the wish that he might, *e. g.*, have dwelt a little more upon the early Babylonian culture, even if he could not portray it with the lingering affection which he devotes to that of Egypt in the long chapter entitled "The Close of the Theban Empire."

The pages occupied with Phœnicia and Syria (in the broad sense) are sufficiently full for the purpose. The author assumes a modest attitude toward the "Hittite" question. He seems rather less at home in Hebrew history than elsewhere. His work here contains frequent quotations and paraphrases from the Old Testament, and, for the rest, follows to a large extent Renan's 'Histoire du Peuple d'Israël,' although mildly, and without the ostentation of patronage which marks the attitude of that charming writer toward the Scripture narratives. He carries the Hebrew history down to the death of Ahab. The building of the nation, with its preliminaries, and the first two hundred years of the monarchy are covered, in a painstaking way. But the treatment is rather meagre and sometimes external. For example, we ought to hear more of the conflict between the unifying influence of the Yahweh religion and the centrifugal force of tribal and local prejudices. Besides things of this kind, in the author's desire not to bring in critical discussions which are still *sub lite*, he (or the translator for him, see below) leaves it sometimes obscure how far the paraphrases and quotations he makes from the Old Testament represent his view of the real history, and, on the other hand, while no one would ask for an equal space in such a work as this for the Hebrews as for the Egyptians, it would seem that some of the critical positions taken demand, for consistency, more statement of reasons or reference to authorities than we actually find.

One single danger Maspero has escaped. His general critical attitude is well known, but Prof. Sayce's name on the title-page occasions the fear lest that scholar's opinion as to the opposition between archæological science and the literary criticism of the Old Testament might have found a representative in France also, in Maspero's person. Happily there is no indication that this is the case. He does not even allude to the possibility of the acquirement of literary culture by the Israelites on their march from Sinai (!), nor in any other way do his own views lend aid to the reactionaries.

A few details may be noticed. One is surprised to read that the submerging of the cities of the plain "doubled the size of the" Dead Sea (p. 63). Maspero can hardly be thought wise in following Renan with the identification of the Haran of Gen. xi. 31, 32 and "the Syrian town Haurân": on the other hand, he shows a discreet caution in saying (p. 325) that a "monotheistic conception" of the religious innovations of Amenôthes IV. "does not seem to me [him] to be fully justified, at least at present, by anything in the materials we possess." The "Israîlû" of Mînephtah (p. 443) is presented with its variety of possible interpretations, but the impression left is one of uncertainty, and indeed the whole section dealing with the Exodus is vague. On pp. 479, 480 it takes a second reading of the account of the punishment denoted by the phrase "they died of themselves" to perceive the relation between the opinions expressed in the note and that of the author in the text. Pages 573 ff. contain a brief account of views as to the origin of the Phœnician alphabet. No decision is announced, but the only table given is that of the hieratic signs with alleged Phœnician and Greek equivalents. We miss on p. 787 some allusion to the connection between Ahab's treaty with Benhadad and the impending Assyrian invasion, but perhaps this will be considered in a later volume. This seems to be promised (p. 786), and may be expected to carry on the history from the ninth century B. C., of which the present volume touches only the earlier part. The sequel is sure in advance of a hearty welcome.

The translator's work is for the most part done so as to make the book very readable, and seldom to suggest the foreign idiom. "Traitorously" (p. 687) should rather be "treacherously." The attempt of the translator to stem the tide of criticism as to the mode of Sisera's death is rather plaintive and ineffectual. The reference to "C. Trumbull" and the PEF Quarterly Statement (p. 447) instead of to Dr. Henry Clay Trumbull's elaborate volume on Kadesh-Barnea is apparently from the original.

An article in the *Athenæum* for January 2, 1897, under the signature "Verax," charged upon the translator various omissions and alterations in parts referring to the Bible, made apparently in the interest of traditional as opposed to critical opinions. The existence of these omissions and alterations is unquestioned; they have been justified (in the *Athenæum* and in the London *Daily News*) by the Secretary of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, under whose auspices the volume appears, on two grounds: first, that "it was our desire merely to soften certain expressions out of regard for the susceptibilities of English readers"; and secondly, that Prof. Maspero gave permission to make the changes. If Prof. Maspero accepts the changes as representing his views, the translator must be absolved of the charge of *mis*representing him. But there is still a responsibility to the English-reading public, and a curious question as to the reason for certain discriminations. Enough criticism is left to make sad havoc with the views currently understood to be represented by the S. P. C. K., and one wonders whether these slender modifications mark the limit of Prof. Maspero's good-nature. On the other hand, the effect of the changes is to weaken the statement of critical positions and to introduce a mistiness of view. That this has been done in the translation ought certainly to have been stated, at least in the preface. But what a commentary it is upon the confidence of good people in the truth of history that a great publishing society thinks it necessary to coddle and protect its grown-up readers by devices like this!

THE WIFE OF WASHINGTON.

Martha Washington. By Anne Hollingsworth Wharton. With portrait and facsimile. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1897.

Out of a few letters, most of which have been "edited" beyond recognition, a few relics, and many legends, the life of Martha Washington must be written. From material so slight as to give only occasional glimpses of the wife and almost no indication of the real woman, her character and equipment for the positions she was called upon to fill must be inferred, and without regard to the husband from whose light she derived her lustre. A mere clothing with all graces and fine qualities will result in presenting a puppet or overdressed doll; an intimation that she was a commonplace housekeeper will be resented as unpatriotic as it is unjust. Somewhere between these extremes the truth lies, and this latest attempt to draw an accurate picture of Martha Washington may be praised for its serious tone and its appreciation of feminine qualities. One essential is wanting, for it is the "Lady Washington" of tradition rather than the mistress of Mount Vernon and the wife of the first President that is delineated.

Nor is it strange that the attempt should fall short of success, for a good biography needs something more than mere research and a record of dinners and levees. Martha Dandridge was not different from other Virginia women of the last century. The social system of the colony was not calculated to

produce great as well as good women, and it is ridiculous to reason that because Washington was a great man, his wife must have been an extraordinary woman. Of the many great men that Virginia produced in the last century—the product, it must be remembered, of conditions peculiar to the colony—nearly all possessed as good wives as Washington, and yet it does not follow that there is abundant material for a new "Female Plutarch." The woman was the helpmeet, and doubtless bore her share in the anxieties and perils of the day; but her part is not to be described in the formal periods of history, however lovable may have been her qualities or noble her sacrifices.

In this respect Martha Dandridge stands in no prominence among her companions. Of a family which did little to distinguish itself, and which did not rank among the leading families of the colony, her early life was spent in the surroundings of a slave plantation. That fine women could come from that atmosphere, we know; but little attention was paid to education beyond the household arts of sewing and managing the shiftless and wasteful service of negroes, with dancing and a little music as accomplishments. A round of visits among the neighboring planters, an occasional visit to Williamsburg, with a presentation at the court of the often not very savory representative of the King, completed the necessary education of a girl, and she was then ready to receive offers of marriage. The glamour thrown by romance around the life on a tobacco plantation is dispelled by an examination of the farm accounts which reveal the pressure of the almost inevitable debts of the planter. Martha Dandridge was fortunate, for she early married a plain planter of New Kent, who inherited property, and, on his death, left her so well provided for that she was known as the "richest widow" in the colony. Of four children by this marriage, two died in infancy, and the two who lived became the wards of Washington when, after two years of widowhood, Mrs. Custis married the young Virginia officer.

Obscure as had been her life before this event, it became eventful only through Washington's career. The loss of her daughter and marriage of her son were the only notable events before the Revolution. From that time, mention of her doings becomes more frequent, and some little evidence is given of the impression made upon those who met or knew her. Her simple manners, plain style of living, her industry and perfect sincerity, and her compassion for the trials of the soldiers in the time of war are the prominent characteristics most dwelt upon. Later, and on the return of peace, as mistress at Mount Vernon, or as wife of the first President of the United States, she lived more in public view, but no additional characteristics are developed. Her home duties were many and exacting, and there is no question of her having performed them completely and without complaint. As the "lady of the President" she was somewhat isolated socially, and a natural reserve added to the dignity which appertained to the station. But it is not true that "the Washingtons quietly and unostentatiously mapped out their social duties according to their own ideas of propriety." That matter was made the subject of solemn questions submitted to the Cabinet and the Vice-President, and was determined by equally solemn answers and opinions; and the result tended to excite that scurrilous journalism of the day which believed that the charge of being "monarchical" was fatal, and yet in attacking the President on that charge, spared the wife—an example which the scribblers of modern sensations might do well to imitate.

The restraint imposed upon her by these rules of etiquette, and the heavy demands made upon her time by the almost ceaseless round of visitors, proved irksome to Martha Washington, and it was with relief that she returned to Mount Vernon, where the care of the house and of her grandchildren was so congenial to her tastes. In her whole life there was no event worth relating; and in her character it is only the sterling qualities possessed by every good woman that call for notice. As an example, it is well to direct attention to her as a type; but it is hopeless to invest her career with an interest peculiar to herself, or to distinguish her from the many whose fame as beauties or wits depends upon family tradition. As a result, it is still Washington who is the prominent figure in the book, and the uncertain tales of tottering memories serve only to pad out a story of the wife's uneventful career.

The most valuable part of the book is a very small number of Mrs. Washington's letters. That she wrote with difficulty is so well established that hardly a production of her own exists. It was her husband who drafted the letters for her use, and the formal sentences are very remote from her curt and easy phrases. What are properly attributed to Mrs. Washington prove her to have been devoid of humor or imagination, and are the straightforward and unadorned notes of one to whom composition was painful. Not a few of those printed in this volume have been so recast into modern form as to be unrecognizable as her own utterances, while others are clearly not of her writing. Some of the records of contemporaries are interesting, but the recollections of aged servants and of those who belonged to the succeeding generations are as uninteresting as they are unreliable. One such recollection is so little known that it will bear repeating, if only to serve as an example of what is gravely handed down as fact. Mrs. Boudinot, on being asked what she remembered of "Lady Washington," replied: "Oh, a child's recollections, my dear. I remember saying to my mother that I thought Lady W. a very dirty woman. She asked me why, and I said, 'Because she spits on the carpet, and her servant wipes it up with his pocket-handkerchief,' and she explained to me that it was not a handkerchief, but a napkin that he carried for that purpose." When the story of Mary Washington being in the habit of smoking a pipe is put with this, we begin to doubt the wisdom of written biographies that contain so large a proportion of oral tradition as does the work under review.

It is because the author of this biography has treated of historical records in other works that we are inclined to be severe on the many errors to be found in the present volume. The greatest freedom is taken with names, and the errors are such as could have been easily avoided. It is too late in the day to excuse Thompson as the spelling of the well-known Secretary of the Continental Congress. Lady Temple was not the wife of the "British Minister," for no minister of that name was appointed. The name of Mr. Daniel Huntington is twice misspelled. "Bouchier" is an incorrect spelling; G. W. P. Custis was not the "adopted son" of the General, but is three times described in the will as "my ward." "Fontleroy" is not the spelling given by Washington to his early flame; and the assertion that certain remarkable letters were addressed by Washington to Miss Mary Cary is against all evidence. It was Col. Wood, not "Ward," who represented Washington in his early election contest; the Bryan Fairfax place was Towlston, not "Towelston"; Magowan, Miralles, and Patey are the proper spellings for "Magowen," "Mirailles," and "Patcy." The author has discovered a number of officers, "favorites" of Washington, who have hitherto escaped the record of history—as, for example, Jacob Ford and Benjamin Grymes. It was Hodijah Baylies, not "Henry," who was an aid of Washington. The borrowing of "£10,000 for Washington's expenses before setting out for the capital" is magnified just one hundred times.

Bird-Life: A Guide to the Study of Our Common Birds. By Frank M. Chapman. D. Appleton & Co. 1897. Small 8vo, pp. xii, 269, pll. 75, figs. 25.

Wild Norway. With Chapters on Spitsbergen, Denmark, etc. By Abel Chapman. Edward Arnold. 1897. Large 8vo, pp. xiv, 350, with 63 illustrations.

Mr. Chapman's recent 'Handbook,' which we found we could hardly praise too highly, is speedily followed by another volume of similar purpose, addressed to more juvenile readers. It is a good book—any book which this author should write about birds would be a good one—but it is less maturely considered than his former treatise, and must stand in the shadow of a standard of excellence which the author can accuse only himself of having already set up. Neither work will be likely to help the other much; they are too much alike not to interfere with each other, and the exceptional difficulty of writing acceptably for children may not prove to have been wholly overcome in this instance. How it has been met may be said in the author's own pleasant words (p. vi):

"The following pages are not addressed to past masters in ornithology, but to those who desire a general knowledge of bird-life and some acquaintance with our commoner birds. The opening chapters of this book briefly define the bird, its place in Nature, and its relation to man, and outline the leading facts in its life-history. The concluding chapters present the portraits, names, and addresses of upward of one hundred familiar birds of Eastern North America, with such information concerning their comings and goings as will lead, I trust, to their being found at home."

This plan is admirably conceived and well carried out; there is a particularly pleasing daintiness in its execution. The author has also been fortunate in his artist, Mr. Ernest Seton Thompson, who can draw birds with a technique superior to that of Mr. Fuertes in most respects, though lacking in a certain touch the latter can give his compositions. The work may be commended without reserve to those who, not finding their needs fully met by the same author's 'Handbook,' may desire something superior to the numerous ebullitions of diluted popular ornithology we have had recent occasion to criticise.

Mr. Abel Chapman's three previous volumes of adventures in wild lands have made his name familiar as that of one of the keenest of sportsmen, who writes vividly of his experiences. The present work represents the mature results of sixteen years' exploits in the wilds of northern Europe, during which the Anglo-Norseman has made the most of his opportunities, and become a veteran whose story is well worth attention. "As regards salmon-fishing," he says, with rare modesty, "I write as an amateur, and the chapters thereupon should be read as the impressions of an enthusiast, rather than of an expert. In big-game hunting, having graduated in the craft since boyhood, I write with more confidence"; and, we may add, he can be followed with entire confidence in the verisimilitude of his narrative, regarded as a contribution either to adventure or to natural history. Reindeer and elk are of course the game which towers above all others in Norway; and the way in which these great creatures are brought before us, both with pen and pencil, is equalled only by the manner in which they were brought to book with the author's unerring rifle. The illustrations given of these animals are stronger and more life-like than any we remember to have seen before; the author says truly that "ten years ago nothing that was artistic was correct, and *vice versa*"; but Mr. Whymper has changed all that with remarkable fidelity to nature.

The necessary hardships of 'Wild Norway' can hardly be appreciated by one unfamiliar with the leading physical facts of that "land of fjeld and fjord." Half of it lies at an elevation of 2,000 feet or more; two-thirds of it is unproductive, and only an insignificant three per cent. of the whole country has been subdued by the agriculturist. To hunt there at all demands sacrifices which the author styles "infinite," and should be undertaken, or could be successfully prosecuted, only by the hardiest sort of men, who are careless of hardships, rough living, "and disappointments without end." Reindeer shooting is difficult enough to try any one's nerve and endurance, but there is hardly any large game in the world so difficult to overhaul and secure as the elk. Perhaps this is one of the reasons why, as we note with satisfaction, every part of these animals is utilized when one has been killed —in striking contrast to the wanton killing and woful waste which have always been the rule in our country, where elk and moose have been decimated, and buffalo practically exterminated. Statistics show for Norway for the years 1889-93 a yearly average of only 1,122 elks and 591 reindeer killed, not in the least endangering the perpetuity of either of these animals.

There is a curious little beast in Norway which does not loom up on the horizon like the giant elk, but has his points nevertheless. This is the lemming, whose portrait we must transcribe (p. 280):

"If his powers were proportioned to his pluck, the lemming would make things lively for the hunter. Had the bear, the lynx, or the mighty elk but a thousandth part of the lemming's aggressive ferocity, the relative positions of hunter and hunted would be reversed, and an expedition to the fjeld would require an advance guard of cavalry and a support of Maxim guns. The lemming attacks with reckless fury the harmless passer-by. One small creature (smaller than a rat) will assail, without second thought, a couple of human beings weighing 150 pounds apiece; it will spring to one's knees, biting and barking, and in purblind fury fall back all-ends-up to earth, only to renew the attack again and again."

This is the engaging creature so long famous for the irrepressibility of its migrations on so vast a scale that it was formerly fabled to fall from the clouds: witness the grave 'Historia animalis quod in Norvagia e nubibus decidit' of Olaus Wormius, 1653.

Mr. Chapman's book contains among other good things a great deal of ornithology, from the standpoint of the field naturalist. It would take us too far to specify his experiences with birds, game or other; but we must advert without animadversion to some remarkable statements he makes concerning migration. His position is substantially that of the late Herr Gätke regarding altitudes, velocities, and distances attained by many feeble-winged migrants. Here we must quote once more (p. 337):

"I am convinced that many birds of migratory habits are absolutely incapable, under normal conditions, of flying 300 miles, or anything like it. Among such I would include all short-winged warblers, chats, and goldcrests, quail, landrail, etc. . . . Yet, on the other hand, we have confronting us the solid fact that twice in every year these tiny creatures do traverse Europe from end to end."

He supports his contention with some remarkable facts concerning insect migrations over seas, and comes to the conclusion that some of the factors governing migration "have been overlooked, or yet remain to be discovered." This is scientific heresy; and orthodox believers will continue to hold the bird-seer of Heligoland for a Roman augur.

'Wild Norway' is certainly brought to us in a way which will make us glad to stay at home and read what Mr. Chapman has to say about it. The volume is well written, handsome in all its appointments, and well worthy of its place in the long series of fine books on similar subjects which the same publisher has issued.

Oberlin Thursday Lectures, Addresses, and Essays. By James Monroe. Oberlin, O.: Edward J. Goodrich. 1897.

From these unpretentious discourses and articles one learns incidentally not a little concerning the author's personal history. He was a native of Connecticut, and was still in his father's farmhouse, a boy of eight, when Benjamin Lundy, in May or June, 1828, halted at the door in his pedestrian anti-slavery propaganda which was to bear its richest fruit in Boston. It bore good fruit even in the boy's case, for he was delivering anti-slavery addresses at twenty, and continued in that line till he sought education at Oberlin in 1844. In 1855 he was elected to the Ohio House of Representatives; in 1860 we find him a member of the State Senate. In 1862 President Lincoln appointed him Consul at the port of Rio de Janeiro, and he remained at that post till 1869. From 1871 to 1881, a stirring period, he was a Representative in Congress. He is now one of the professors of his alma mater.

We pick these items out of the truly impersonal reminiscences because the mere enumeration of them shows that Prof. Monroe's experience has many historical relations; and we will say at once that his book is of the sort which usefully supplement formal histories. For example, if one wished to gain an idea of the repressive influence commonly and professionally exerted by the Northern clergy upon the nascent anti-slavery movement, he could not do better than read of the way in which the "venerable Dr. Dow," in his own Congregational pulpit in Thompson, Conn., snubbed our youthful lecturer in 1841. It was as if, said the Doctor, the zealous stripling had awakened him at midnight crying "Fire!"

" 'Young man,' I ask, 'is the fire on this street?' 'No; fire! fire!' 'Is the fire anywhere on Thompson Hill?' 'No; fire! fire!' 'Well, is the fire in the State of Connecticut?' 'No; fire! fire!' Growing impatient, I exclaim, 'Well, young man, where *is* the fire?' At last the answer comes, 'Why, Dr. Dow, the fire is in Lou-is-i-a-ny!' As the Doctor concluded, the old church rang with peals of laughter."

We do not know whether there is a soldiers' monument in Thompson (one such hopelessly disfigures the neighboring village of Brooklyn), but if there is, it shows that the Louisiana fire reached Thompson Hill under circumstances not conducive to hilarity.

The "Thursday Lectures" open with portraits and estimates of the early abolitionists, the successors of Lundy; and these chapters, if not above criticism as a judgment of the lecturer's first associates, are to be praised for candor, and are especially valuable as a record of what is most elusive —the personal quality of public speaking. So far as the abolitionist speakers are concerned, we have no exception to take. Here is a very discriminating word concerning "the prince of all anti-slavery orators—I had almost said, the prince of all the orators I have ever known":

"Mr. Phillips was never described by the reporters and reviewers as being a logical speaker. I do not remember to have seen the familiar epithet 'argumentative' applied to his efforts, and do not suppose they suggested it. He was impatient of the slow, syllogistic processes. Such terms as 'major premise,' 'minor premise,' 'à priori,' 'à posteriori'—I might almost add 'therefore' and 'consequently'—he never used."

In fact, acting upon this hint, we have discovered but one *then* and one *therefore* in Mr. Phillips's unusually argumentative speech on the "Philosophy of the Abolition Movement." But it probably pertained to his rhetoric that he did not knit his logic with the common signs of nexus.

In a later chapter Prof. Monroe performs a similar service for the leading speakers in Congress in his time, giving first place to Blaine as the orator for immediate effect; ranking Garfield, who was no debater, high among the teachers, in which class he rightly places Sumner, who, too, "was not a debater, nor was he, in the sense used here, an orator," but a marvellous rhetorician.

For clear exposition, the chapter on the Hayes-Tilden Electoral Commission is to be commended; and that on Seward's conduct of foreign affairs does not exceed a fair measure of eulogy, though it overlooks the politician's frailties. We are glad to find our author perfectly alive to the hollow pretence of a continuity of principle between the Liberty party and the Free Soil and Republican parties. He was not himself ready to vote the Free Soil ticket in 1848, but he found the path to political satisfaction and optimism when he subsequently concluded to vote even with a half-loaf party, rather than eschew party instrumentalities altogether. His new resolution was severely tested when he went up to the first Republican General Assembly in Ohio in 1856. His

abolition and Liberty party blood made him introduce an amendment to the State Constitution striking out the word "white" from the suffrage qualification. But Ohio Republicanism was by no means on that level, any more than Ohio lynch law is to-day.

"There were perhaps twenty-five Republicans in the House who would have voted with me in favor of this amendment, and it had been my intention to demand the yeas and nays upon its passage, and put everybody upon record. As the time approached, however, to do this, earnest representations were made to me by Republican members that it would do no good to call up the amendment for a final vote; that I knew as well as they did that it could not pass; that to insist upon a vote now would divide the party and produce bitter feeling; that it would commit against the amendment some candid men who were rather friendly to it, but had not yet fully made up their minds; that it would injure the prospects of some young members whose districts were so divided in opinion that for them to vote either way would be political ruin; that to push the issue further would drive the conservatives from our party, and give the next election to the Democrats; in fine, that public opinion was not ripe for negro suffrage, and that I must have the grace to wait. These arguments did not sound very satisfactory. They were not altogether to my taste at the time. But they are very familiar to a man who has acted with any party numerous enough to control legislative bodies."

Thanks to Shermans and McKinleys, they have remained familiar to Ohioans particularly; and, contrasting these trimmers and time-servers, plus the Grosvenors, Forakers, and Hannas, with Chase and Giddings and Wade, with Hayes and Cox and Garfield, one might well look in Prof. Monroe's pages for some sense of a cloud upon his "cheerful yesterdays." But we discern none, nor any evidence of self-restraint in forbearing to compare our present state with that earlier when, as the Italians say, times were better albeit worse—*Si stava meglio quando si stava peggio.*

The First Crossing of Spitsbergen. By Sir William Martin Conway. With contributions by J. W. Gregory, D.Sc., A. Trevor-Battye, and E. J. Garwood. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1897. 8vo, pp. xii, 371, with maps and illustrations.

Spitsbergen was discovered by Barendszoon and Heemskerk in 1576, revisited and further explored by Hendrik Hudson in 1607, after which it soon became the seat of important fisheries of the whale and walrus. While these lasted, Spitsbergen was a busy and populous place during the summer months. Dwellings, storehouses, and try-works for boiling blubber were set up, and Smeerenburg, the principal place of resort, is said to have had a summer population of 18,000 people. By the middle of the seventeenth century the whales had been driven out of the waters adjacent to the island, the fisheries declined, and a few years later Smeerenburg was abandoned to ruin. About the middle of the eighteenth century Russian trappers from the Archangel district made the archipelago the scene of their activity, wintering in scattered huts, and, until the supply of bears and foxes, which formed the staple of their catch, was exhausted, they did very well. About 1830 the last of the Russians disappeared to return no more. They in their turn were succeeded by Norwegians, who now alone make these islands and waters the home of any industry. Sloops and cutters from Hammerfest and Tromsö still visit Spitsbergen in small numbers to secure mixed cargoes of anything which comes to hand, such as eider-down, seals, white whales, shark's livers, and occasional bear or walrus, but chiefly reindeer, the meat of which fetches a good price in Norway. Thus hunters of all the Northern nations have at one time or another sought Spitsbergen for industrial purposes, and, by their ruthless methods of extermination, have left it almost destitute of important animal life. At present it is a No-man's Land, annexed to no state and governed by no laws, without permanent inhabitants. There is no close time for bird or beast, the fisheries are unregulated, and the extermination of its fauna threatens to become complete.

The scientific exploration of Spitsbergen has been the work of the present century. Keilhau, a Norwegian, began the study of its geology in 1827, but the real originator of its systematic scientific exploration was the late Prof. Sven Lovén, who visited it in 1837. He was followed by Torell and Nordenskjöld in 1858, since which time Sweden has sent no less than nine scientific expeditions to the archipelago, while from England and Germany have come Lamont, Leigh Smith, and Von Heuglin. Most of the work was coastwise and but little exploration of the interior was attempted. Up to 1896 the interior of Spitsbergen was practically unknown; the island had never been crossed, and, from the best information he could gain, Conway was led to believe that, after passing a few miles of peripheral bogs, a general smooth area of snow would be found covering the main portion of the interior. The northern and southern portions of the island were supposed to be wholly buried under huge ice-sheets, and in the central portion, where many valleys were recorded as penetrating the hills, it was thought that easy access might be had to the hypothetical snow-covered plateau continuous to the eastern coast. Under this impression Conway provided himself with sledges and ponies to draw them—a combination which proved eminently unsatisfactory. The main object of the journey was to cross the island and reveal the character of its interior. The method originally proposed was that of striking across the island on two or three lines. After a few days' experience this was found impracticable. The intricate nature of the topography involved detailed study of a specific area, and this was successfully carried out.

The plans were approved, and the expedition subsidized by the Royal Geographical Society. A grant from the Royal Society enabled a geologist, Dr. J. W. Gregory of the British Museum, to be added to the party. Other members of the party were Mr. A. Trevor-Battye, known from his exploration of the Kolguieff Island and as an ornithologist; Mr. E. J. Garwood, an expert mountaineer; and Mr. H. E. Conway, artist, whose industry is abundantly in evidence in the numerous illustrations of this volume. It happened that the Vesteraalen Steamship Co. of Norway undertook to establish a tourist service to Spitsbergen, including the erection of a small inn at Advent Bay. The author was able to engage transportation for the party, together with two Norwegian ponies, on the steamer which carried material for construction. They reached Advent Bay June 20, 1896, and here their inland explorations began. Almost immediately it was found that instead of hard rocks and frozen soil, capped inland by a continuous ice sheet, the region to be explored consisted of a congeries of hills composed of rotten and disintegrated material affording neither hand nor foothold. In various places large, nearly level, deeply crevassed glaciers impinged upon the valleys or lowlands, covered with a mantle of snow or slush which, under the continuous arctic daylight, maintained a semi-fluid condition calculated to allow the limbs of man or beast to penetrate indefinitely. From the deliquescent margins of these glaciers issued streams of water which spread out over the boggy lowlands, saturating them until they formed little more than a series of unbroken quagmires, with here and there a patch of sedges and other arctic vegetation. Unprovided with suitable snowshoes, or sledges appropriate to the conditions, our explorers floundered through mud, slush, and water with all the annoyances incident thereto. The record of their experiences appears to exhaust all conceivable aspects of the combination of mud, water, ice, men, and ponies. The tale, in fact, becomes wearily monotonous long before the record is exhausted.

To sum up, the party explored the region about Icefiord and its arms, Advent and Sassen Bays; crossed the island between Sassen and Agardi Bay on the west coast; ascended many hills, none reaching the minimum mountain height of 3,000 feet; and surveyed an area of about 600 square miles in a fashion sufficiently accurate for all practical purposes. Subsequently, in a little twelve-ton launch, they visited the northwest, north, and northeast shores of Spitsbergen, entering many of the fjords, and seeing the whole western coast of Northeast Land. On the 16th of August they sailed for Hammerfest, arriving in time to welcome Nansen back to civilization.

As a piece of literature, the book is overloaded with uninteresting personal detail, though it is a decided improvement on Conway's account of his work in the Himalayan region. It is difficult to make interesting a narrative in which the explorer is chronically up to his knees in mud and water. There are many sketches and a multitude of "process" pictures, mostly very similar to one another, and none of them strikingly picturesque. To accommodate them the book is printed on heavily weighted paper, which makes it impossible to read for more than a few minutes without a book-rest. The publisher has done his part handsomely, but the author needs lessons in condensation. A book one-third the size would have easily contained all the novel and essential facts, as well as a sufficiency of pictures. It would then have interested without wearying, mentally or physically. Books of exploration have of late been growing in size quite disproportionately to their intrinsic interest, and the present volume is an awful example. It is quite time somebody called a halt.

Johnsonian Miscellanies. Arranged and edited by George Birkbeck Hill. 2 vols. Harper & Bros.

It is a curious fate that Johnson, the ostentatiously careless, the man impatient of "minute accuracy," as Boswell tells us, should have become the critical preserve of

so painstaking and precise an editor as Dr. Hill. Everybody remembers how Johnson would not correct palpable errors in his Dictionary, when getting out the second edition, on the ground that he "would not flatter" the impudent fellows who had called attention to his blunders. In his Life of Savage he speaks with pitying wonder of that author's "superstitious regard to the correction of his sheets," and thought the anxiety with which he dwelt upon "the minutest and most trifling niceties" something almost uncanny—it "deserved no other name than that of fascination." For such a champion of the off-hand and the inaccurate to have fallen into the hands of a man who, after working three years on the elucidation of these two volumes, looks his labors over only to sigh, "What improvements could be made!" and to confess that "I have never yet finished an index without wishing that by the help of it I could at once reëdit my own editings"—for such an author to have become the chosen subject of such an editor shows what strange turns literary affinities may take.

Still, Dr. Hill might assert that he had found authority for his methods in his author. Writing of Addison, Dr. Johnson said: "Not to name the school or the masters of men illustrious for literature is a kind of historical fraud, by which honest fame is injuriously diminished: I would therefore trace him through the whole process of his education." But such a tracing through the whole process as Mr. Hill has done must have been beyond dreaming of in Johnson's philosophy. One can only think of the question which Mrs. Piozzi once addressed him: "Will *any* body's mind bear this eternal microscope that you place upon your own so?" The same microscope which Dr. Hill had turned upon Johnson in his monumental editions of Boswell and of the 'Letters,' is here applied in close scrutiny to the 'Miscellanies.' Under that name are included the "Prayers and Meditations" (carefully collated with the original manuscript in Pembroke College), Johnson's own bit of autobiography, the "Annals," Mrs. Piozzi's "Anecdotes," Murphy's "Essay on the Life and Genius of Samuel Johnson," together with a vast range of "Anecdotes," "Narratives," "Extracts," and "Apophthegms" derived from contemporary writers and diarists. All is beautifully printed and commented upon with what can only be called editing raised to the *n*th power.

Dr. Hill's method aims at both the convenience of the student and the delight of the reader. Swarming cross-references put masses of material before the inquirer and apt illustrations light up the page. Thus Johnson's boast of indifference to criticism at once leads our editor to give us in footnotes the views of Addison, Voltaire, Hume, Scott, and Darwin on the same subject. Chesterfield's not very Chesterfieldian phrase applied to Lyttleton, "a respectable Hottentot," sets Dr. Hill off on notes concerning the early use of that word in English—as if he were writing for Dr. Murray and the Dictionary greater than Johnson's. Besides correcting old material so as to make it almost as good as new through new accuracy, he gives us some unpublished matter (mostly letters) and some extracts from rare sources. One of especial interest to American readers was furnished the editor from Philadelphia, and was taken from a book not in the British Museum, Stuart's 'History of the Rise of the Arts of Design in the United States.' It is as follows:

"Dr. Johnson called one morning on Mr. West to converse with him on American affairs. After some time Mr. West said that he had a young American [Gilbert Stuart] living with him, from whom he might derive some information, and introduced Stuart. The conversation continued (Stuart being thus invited to take a part in it), when the Doctor observed to Mr. West that the young man spoke very good English; and turning to Stuart rudely asked him where he had learned it. Stuart very promptly replied, 'Sir, I can better tell you where I did not learn it—it was not from your dictionary.' Johnson seemed aware of his own abruptness, and was not offended."

Dr. Hill informs us that he turned aside from another task to edit the 'Miscellanies,' at the suggestion of Leslie Stephen. But as the other work was a contemplated new edition of Johnson's 'Lives of the Poets,' we may hope that Dr. Hill will now return to his first intention and thus complete his Johnson cyclus.

Hosea Ballou, 2d, D.D., First President of Tufts College. By Hosea Starr Ballou, Member of Rhode Island Historical Society, etc., etc., etc. Boston: E. P. Guild & Co. 1896.

Mr. Hosea Starr Ballou has brought together a great mass of materials out of which a skilful biographer might have made an interesting and effective story of the life of Hosea Ballou, 2d, but his own performance cannot be so estimated. Interesting his narrative is, but more in spite of the biographer than because of him, so little has he done to exhibit his facts in their due coördination and progression. He had an excellent subject, and has given us many incidents and traits, but they are not combined in any shapely presentation of the man or any adequate account of his most characteristic work, the starting of Tufts College on its honorable career.

Mr. Hosea Starr Ballou's connection with a number of historical and genealogical societies does not much profit him when he sets out to clear up his family pedigree. The line, so far as it is given here, is given confusedly. The founder was apparently Mathurin Ballou, a French Huguenot, who came to Providence in 1646, if not earlier. His Christian name, somewhat varied in the spelling, has been a favorite with his descendants, and to him it is not unlikely that they owe a certain tendency to be off with the old opinions and on with the new; else why did he cast in his lot with the "discordant band of anti-errorists" which gathered together about Roger Williams in the Providence settlement? That there was preaching in the blood as well as heresy is evident. "Father Ballou," the celebrated great-uncle of Hosea Ballou, 2d, had three brothers who were preachers. Hosea, 2d, was born in Guilford, Vt., in 1796. He had no college education, but studied theology with Father Ballou in Portsmouth, N. H. He began to preach before he was twenty-one, and in 1817 was settled as minister of the Universalist Church in Stafford, Conn., the only Universalist church in the State. His habit was not only studious, but scholarly, and in Roxbury and Medford he attracted to him many young men as special theological students—a method which had been much in vogue in all the New England sects and which had great advantages. We have an interesting chapter about these students, one of whom, Starr King, had for Dr. Ballou the warmest possible regard. Relating an imaginary visit to Gehenna he said, "Not daring to go alone, I obtained the guidance of Dr. Ballou, knowing that in his society I should be safe from evil spirits."

Dr. Ballou was very influential in helping on the formulation of Universalist thought, and in freeing it from the more obvious crudities which it had taken up from the doctrine of Father Ballou, and more especially from that of John Murray, who, not inaptly, might be called the grandfather of American Universalism. Dr. Ballou's principal contribution was a 'History of Ancient Universalism,' of which Origen was, of course, the figurehead. His scholarly reputation and his residence in Medford made it inevitable that, when Charles Tufts resolved to "set a light on that bleak hill" on which Tufts College now stands, Dr. Ballou should be used to initiate the enterprise. Moreover, he had been one of the most strenuous in the demand for denominational education. The story of his presidency has much of the pathos which inheres in all the small and brave beginnings of enterprises that attain to dignity and power. The contrast between those beginnings and the present standing of Tufts is well brought out. It was a happy fortune for the institution to have for its first President a man whose character will shed a benignant ray on its whole history, however long and honorable it may be. Many estimates of his character are given, some of them pardonably extravagant, while the most infelicitous is that of Dr. Oscar F. Safford, who says: "His name among Universalists is like that of Socrates in the world of letters."

Kajakmänner: Erzählungen Grönländischer Seehundsfänger. Herausgegeben von Signe Rink. Berlin: S. Fischer. 1897. 8vo, 214 pp.

It would generally be supposed that if books by civilized people about Greenland and the Greenlanders were excluded, an account of Greenland literature would resemble the celebrated chapter on snakes in Iceland. We do not remember seeing, in any of the numerous works in which life in Greenland is described, any intimation that a printed literature, written by Greenlanders for Greenlanders to read, has ever existed. Previous to 1850, the only printed books in the Greenland dialect were of a religious or educational character—Testaments, hymn-books, primers, etc., with a few translations into Greenlandic of stories selected from European literature and suitable for reading-lessons. In the next decade the number of works of the latter class was increased, always with a view to their use in the theological training-school for natives at Godhaab. Only three really popular works were available for Greenlanders up to 1860, namely: Wieland's 'Oberon,' and the 'Holger Danske,' and 'Räst i Orkenen' of Ingemann, manuscript translations of which had been made and passed from hand to hand until they literally dropped to pieces.

The universal popularity of the ancient legends orally transmitted from one generation to another, of which a selection has been printed by the late Dr. Henry Rink ('Tales of the Eskimo,' with illustrations by native draughtsmen), indicated a taste for literature among the people, and in 1861 the

first printing-office was established in Greenland. It was planned by Dr. Rink to print an annual volume, the work being done during the winter months, so that the bound copies might be ready for distribution when the season of navigation opened at the beginning of summer. Dr. Rink, being at that time Governor of South Greenland, had unusual facilities for carrying out the project. The Greenlanders throughout the region were requested to send in contributions, out of which the periodical should be made up, such as descriptions of their adventures, hunting by sea or land, or, in fact, original contributions of any kind. The publication was entitled *Atuagagliutit* (literally, "A means by which to induce people to read"), and proved a complete success, having now been regularly issued for thirty-five years. It is edited, illustrated, printed, bound, and published by one man, a native, Lars Möller Arkaluk, who is not unknown to travellers in Greenland. The annual is distributed gratis throughout the colonial administrations, which receive yearly from Godhaab a certain number of copies for distribution in their respective districts, in return for which voluntary contributions flow in to the editor from all parts of the country.

From these simple tales Madame Rink has made a selection, believing that it would have not only an interest for civilized readers, but also some scientific value, as an illustration of the first and only collection of independent Greenland literature, illustrating the lives, customs, and intellectual status of the present Greenland people in the manner of the tales published by her lamented husband respecting their less civilized forefathers. The work was originally written in Danish, but the German translation above cited will be more accessible to most readers. The book contains seventeen sketches or tales, all of which, notwithstanding their apparently Scandinavian authors' names, were written by native Greenlanders. Owing to the differences of construction between the two languages, an absolutely literal rendering was impracticable, but only such modifications have been made as would be necessary on this account, and obscure points are cleared up by the editor's foot-notes. We believe that Madame Rink's little book should find a welcome, not merely from ethnologists and psychologists, but also among those who enjoy the illustration of our common humanity wherever found, even among the glaciers of the frozen north.

The Chances of Death, and Other Studies in Evolution. By Karl Pearson. Edward Arnold. 1897.

In two handsome volumes, amounting to more than 800 pages, that most militant of modern mathematicians, Prof. Pearson, keeps up the tradition of a certain class of scientists by making his modest contributions to omnisciolence. His topics are various, but they may be grouped under three heads. The first exhibit Prof. Pearson as the statistician and constructor of diagrams and frequency curves, and display a robust faith in his powers of manipulating a material which is proverbially treacherous and is often admitted by him to be qualitatively and quantitatively inadequate. His most suggestive results under this head are that 27 per cent. of the married population produce 50 per cent. of the next generation, that society at present recruits itself from below, and that consequently we are threatened with a survival, not of the fittest, but of the most fertile. He also has some interesting remarks on the woman question. Perceiving that the "new woman" cannot flourish unless she can get effective protection against the disabilities of childbirth, he holds there should be an outcry for "some form of national insurance for motherhood" (i., p. 253). This, however, he is confident woman will secure in the socialist state of the future, the inevitable advent of which he paints in the usual optimistic colors. He also defends woman against the attempt of modern biologists to deprive her of her proud preëminence in variability, and denies, on the strength of a laborious analysis of elaborate statistics, that man has been shown to be more variable—a result that should go far to rehabilitate the reputation for scientific accuracy and caution of the royal poet who declared that "souvent femme varie."

The essays of the second class are polemical, and are directed against the anti-scientific and anti-liberal doctrines, as the author esteems them, of Kidd's 'Social Evolution,' Lord Salisbury's British Association Address, and Arthur Balfour's 'Foundations of Belief.' It cannot be said that Prof. Pearson is at his best as a controversialist; for though he can hardly help making some points, he gets too angry with his opponents and is too liberal of abuse, and so in the end he by no means always succeeds in bringing out the enormity of their offences against the spirit of science. This last failing is perhaps most conspicuous in his attack upon Mr. Balfour, whom he takes to task severely for treating as a positive dogma of science what is merely a use of convenient conceptual formulas. No doubt "science" ought never to be more than a description of the concrete in terms of the abstract (for purposes of practical manipulation of the former), and should leave assertions about the ultimate realities which correspond to its formulas to metaphysics. But unfortunately, in ordinary life habitually and in science generally, we unwittingly turn our science into metaphysics, and so need a philosopher to point this out to us; in fact, it would not be altogether easy for Prof. Pearson to clear himself of the charge of sinning with the rest. Hence Mr. Balfour's criticism of the dogmatizing of the methods of science is by no means inopportune, while it must be considered a great mistake to give a political twist to the discussion of question-begging remarks about "reaction" and "the new bigotry." We suppose that when Prof. Pearson makes himself familiar—as for the good of his soul it may be hoped he will do speedily—with the very similar attitude towards the methods of science exhibited in Prof. James's new book of essays, 'The Will to Believe,' he will also resent, as a reactionary outrage to science, what is merely open-mindedness, and cannot by any possibility be brought into connection with the party strife of British Liberals and Conservatives.

In his third section, comprising the whole of the second volume, Prof. Pearson turns anthropologist, and discusses the traces of "matriarchy" and "endogamous group-marriage" among Aryan peoples. He is an ardent believer in the discovery of civilization by primitive womanhood, and draws a vivid picture of the early matriarchy, with its mother-goddess, communal life, and "sex-festivals." The evidence which he adduces for this state of things is derived partly from folklore—he argues that the *Mährchen* date back to such a period, and that the witch was but the degraded priestess of a superseded cult—and partly from philology. But though his researches are laborious and his arguments are frequently ingenious, he does not manage to keep clear of two fallacies which almost always beset the reasoning of his school. The one consists of the assumption that the ancient Aryans were savages, and that we have a right to expect to find in their language and customs "fossils" of truly primitive life. Yet it is quite clear that, geologically, the Aryans are a very recent stock of comparatively civilized warriors, and that an argument which ascribes to them the practice of general promiscuity less than 2,000 years ago proves altogether too much. Yet this is what Prof. Pearson does, *e. g.*, in his derivation of the witches' cats from their sacredness to the mother-goddess of matriarchal times, in spite of the fact that these animals were late importations from Egypt in northern Europe. And, secondly, we find also the assumption that the various forms of sexual relation must have succeeded each other in an orderly evolution, and cannot have coexisted. Judging by the facts of the present day, nothing seems more improbable—unless, possibly, it be the supposition that in a rude age the strong could ever permanently have submitted to be deprived of the exclusive ownership of their wives and children by a social prejudice in favor of promiscuity. The universality of matriarchy can never be established by sporadic traces of past promiscuity. We have no right to argue from the practices of the common people to the habits of the chiefs. And, inasmuch as the Aryans were a ruling race, and the "patriarchal" system was, as Prof. Pearson admits, more efficient and therefore survived, and since, moreover, there is such a thing as "reproductive selection," which in ancient times probably recruited society from above rather than from below, the anthropological evidence does not as yet really render untenable the view that modern man, with his decidedly monogamous instincts, is predominantly descended from the tribes, or classes within the tribe, which were always substantially monogamous in their habits. On the other hand, malice might suggest that the life of the minority and the interest taken by some in the *chronique scandaleuse* of anthropology afforded prima-facie proof of descent from the lower strata of early society.

The Out-of-Door Library: Angling. Hunting. Athletic Sports. Mountain Climbing. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1897.

These four volumes are composed of thirty-two articles, by nearly as many different authors, that have appeared in *Scribner's Magazine* between July, 1887, and September, 1896. In most cases the illustrations have not suffered from the necessary change in size; the text is worth reprinting; and with large type, heavy paper, and an appropriate cover of dark green, the publishers have made an attractive set of books. Their title, however, is somewhat of a misnomer. They do not tell us how to fish, to hunt, to engage in athletic sports, or to climb mountains. They are not that much-desired series of carefully written monographs on the various phases of American out-door life, a second Badminton Li-

brary prepared from the cis-Atlantic standpoint. They are best read at home, and need not be taken into camp. Mr. Rogers's adventure with the wounded grizzly, and Mr. Grant's capture of the tarpon—to cite two out of many equally interesting papers—can hardly fail to quicken one's pulse and kindle one's enthusiasm as he sits by his fireside. Yet the various chapters, with the exception of that on surf-bathing, do not render much assistance when one starts to put into experience the inspiration they have aroused.

This is particularly true of the volume on mountain-climbing. The nature-lover who reads Mr. Wilson's picturesque account of the birth of a snow-squall over Tuckerman's ravine, his description of the fascinating forms of the huge frost feathers that grow on Mount Washington, and the glories of the winter sunsets and the wondrous sundogs to be seen there, resolves forthwith to visit the "crown of New England" while it is adorned with its ermine robes. On perusing the chapter again, he is perplexed to find on page 5 that "it would be madness to make the winter visit at the present time, however, for the Government station has been abandoned, and there is no place of refuge there"; while on page 52 he learns that "a winter ascent should not be attempted without a careful guide." Nowhere is stated the essential truth that one unused to snow-shoes and unable to make both the ascent and descent in one day without excessive fatigue, has no right to be on the mountain in winter, whether a house of refuge is open or not. Since the signal station was closed the summit has been visited in midwinter by an increasing number of tourists, and the entire Presidential range has been repeatedly traversed by amateur climbers. The reward is great, the danger lies in the weather. Having some skill with snow-shoes, and a thorough knowledge of the range, a good walker can witness in safety a sunset from the summit any fortnight in the year, provided he has the self-control to turn back at the first indication of an approaching storm.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors and Publishers: A Manual of Suggestions for Beginners in Literature. 7th ed., rewritten. Putnams. $1.75.
Barbèra, P. Ricordi Tipografici di un Viaggio agli Stati Uniti (Marzo-Giugno, 1892). Florence: S. Landi.
Clarke, M. Stories from the Arabian Nights. American Book Co. 60c.
Cook, Lady. Essays on Social Topics. London: Roxburghe Press.
De Garmo, J. M. The Hicksite Quakers and their Doctrines. Christian Literature Co.
Deussen, Prof. Paul. Sechzig Upanishad's des Veda aus dem Sanskrit Uebersetzt. Leipzig: F. A. Brockhaus.
Essays in Liberalism. By Six Oxford Men. Cassell. $1.25.
Ferry, Jules. Discours et Opinions. Tome V. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Field, Michael. Attila, My Attila! A Play. London: Elkin Matthews.
Garbe, Prof. Richard. The Philosophy of Ancient India. Chicago: "Open Court" Publishing Co. 50c.
Glanville, A. "An Eye for an Eye," and Some Reprinted Pieces. Chicago: A. Francoeur & Co.
Hubbell, Walter. The Great Amherst Mystery. American Publishers Corporation. 25c.
Jordan, Prof. D. S. Matka and Kotik: A Tale of the Mist Islands. San Francisco: Whitaker & Ray Co. $1.50.
King, Capt. Charles. A Garrison Tangle. F. T. Neely. 50c.
Kipling, Rudyard. The Jungle Book. [Outward Bound Edition.] Scribners.
Mather, Prof. F. J., jr. King Ponthus and the Fair Sidone. Baltimore: Modern Language Association of America.
Merrill, Prof. E. T. Fragments of Roman Satire. American Book Co. 75c.
Noble, Annette L. The Professor's Dilemma. Putnams. $1.
Norton, F. H. The Malachite Cross. F. T. Neely.
Piccinelli, F. Valori Pubblici e Operazioni di Borsa. Milan: Hoepli; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Platt, Guy X. The Story of Butte. Butte, Montana: Standard Printing Co. 50c.
Pollard, Percival. Dreams of To-Day. Chicago: Way & Williams. 75c.
Radford, Dollie. A Light Load: Poems. London: Elkin Matthews.
Rambeau, Adolphe, and Passy, Jean. Chrestomathie Française. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Read, Opie. Bolanyo: A Novel. Chicago: Way & Williams.
Seton, William. A Glimpse of Organic Life, Past and Present. New York: P. O'Shea.
Speer, W. W. Elementary Arithmetic. Boston: Ginn & Co. 55c.
Stuart, Mrs. Ruth McE. In Simpkinsville. Harpers. $1.25.
Taber, H. M. Faith or Fact. New York: Peter Eckler. $1.
Tarr, Prof. R. S. First Book of Physical Geography. Macmillan. $1.10.
The American Chess Code. Revised ed. Brentanos. 75c.
The College of St. Francis Xavier: A Memorial and a Retrospect. New York: Meany Printing Co.
The Private Life of the Queen. By a Member of the Royal Household. Appletons. $1.50.
Thiery, Jean. Monsieur le Neveu. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Thomas, Bertha. Camera Lucida; or, Strange Passages in Common Life. London: Low, Marston & Co.
Tracy, Louis. An American Emperor: The Story of the Fourth Empire of France. Putnams. $1.75.
Warner, C. D. The People for Whom Shakspere Wrote. Harpers. $1.25.
Weld, S. F. The Eastern Question and a Suppressed Chapter of History. Boston; G. H. Ellis. 35c.
Wells, J. Oxford and its Colleges. London: Methuen & Co.
Wise, J. S. Diomed: The Life, Travels, and Observations of a Dog. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $2.
Zola, Emile. His Excellency. Macmillan. $1.50.

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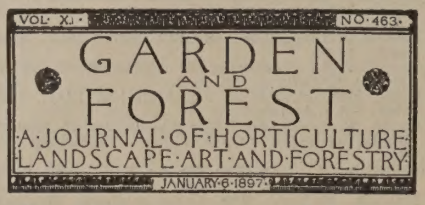

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[*Educational continued on page 78.*]

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 22, 1897.

The Week.

While Chairman Dingley was explaining on Monday how the House conferees on the tariff bill had got the better of the Sugar Trust, Wall Street was betting millions of dollars that the Sugar Trust had got the better of Dingley and of the United States of America—betting and putting up the money. It is impossible for anybody but experts to understand what is meant in the way of protection to the sugar-refining monopoly by the conference report on this subject. Dingley himself does not know, but the sugar-refiners and speculators knew perfectly well, and when they put up the price of Sugar stock 11 points in a single day, it may be assumed that they had good reasons for doing so. In the babel of tongues at Washington an idea seems to prevail that the Trust and their speculative following, including Senators themselves, are trying to make it appear that they have won a victory when they have not; that they are boasting on the streets and in the hotel corridors how they kept up the fight in the conference and finally got all that they expected, with a mere change of words which was not a change of substance. Such boasting, of course, excites the ire of the Dingleyites, and they "hurl back" the insinuation.

Undoubtedly there will be much hurling of charges and epithets on the stump this fall apropos of the sugar tariff, but all arguments will sink out of sight in presence of the fact that when the present Congress took hold of this subject American Sugar Refining common stock stood at 110, and that when the conference report was made it stood at 146. Result: net gain of 36 points on $37,000,000 of stock, mostly water, or a gain of $13,000,000. It may be said, and it is doubtless true, that a large part of this gain is due to the stock of sugar that these people have imported in advance. For this also Congress is responsible. The McKinley bill of 1890 set out with the proposition of a free breakfast table, a free sugar-bowl, and all that. The Dingley bill has ended with a tax of nearly two cents per pound and a bonus to the Sugar Trust of $13,000,000 in one lump. That is a free sugar-bowl with a vengeance. The truth is that the sugar-refiners do not need one atom of protection and ought not to have it. The one-eighth differential that the Dingley bill proposed was a sheer gratuity, all the more outrageous since the Trust itself was a confessed monopoly. Even if we allow Mr. Dingley's claim that he has defeated the unholy conspiracy in the Senate, he has still to answer the charge of putting an unnecessary burden on the consumers of sugar for the benefit of millionaires. The only excuse for this act is that he was obliged to do this in order to make the bill consistent with itself. That is to say, the bill was a device to make a distribution of the national earnings among private individuals, with the possible chance of getting some more revenue for the Government, and it would not be fair to leave out anybody who had contributed largely to the funds of the last campaign.

Mr. Dingley finally abandoned his absurd contentions about books, and consented to allow their free importation when twenty years old or when printed in languages other than English. It must have been hard for him to drop his powerful argument that we printed in this country "an abundance" of books in foreign languages. But we are too much pleased to see the proposed tax on knowledge disappear to care very much who plucked this feather out of Mr. Dingley's headdress. The tax on art is still proudly waving in it, however, and this should be enough to reconcile the party of intelligence to free books. Free books and free art too would be a concession to the educated and to the interests of popular culture quite indefensible on the stump.

The Paris award as printed on page 112 of the Diplomatic Correspondence of 1894, shows that there is no requirement or even advice to either of the parties to maintain ships in the waters of Bering Sea. The first article provides that the Governments of the United States and of Great Britain shall forbid their citizens and subjects respectively to kill, capture, or pursue at any time or in any manner whatever the animals called fur seals, within a zone of sixty miles around the Pribilov Islands, inclusive of the territorial waters. The second article says that they shall forbid their citizens and subjects to kill, capture, or pursue in any manner whatever, during the season extending each year from the 1st of May to the 31st of July, both inclusive, the fur seals on the high sea in the part of the Pacific Ocean, inclusive of the Bering Sea, which is situated to the north of the 35th degree of north latitude and eastward of the 180th degree of longitude from Greenwich till it strikes the water boundary described in article i. of the treaty of 1867 between the United States and Russia, and following that line up to Bering Straits. The remaining articles provide that only sailing vessels shall be employed in the fur-seal fishery, that nets, firearms, and explosives shall not be used in said fishery, that these regulations shall remain in force until abolished or modified in whole or in part by common agreement between the Governments of the United States and Great Britain, and that the regulations "shall be submitted every five years to a new examination, so as to enable both interested governments to consider whether in the light of past experience there is occasion for any modification thereof." These are the only provisions of any importance, and the only ones of which we need to take account in the present controversy. There is no provision requiring any patrol whatever. If any subsequent agreement has been made between the two governments in reference to a patrol, it evidently did not specify any particular number of vessels, since no such number is mentioned in Mr. Sherman's alleged dispatch. Yet that despatch conveys to the mind of the uninstructed reader the idea that Great Britain has violated her duty in this behalf—not what we consider to be her duty, but a duty expressed and defined in the award; which is false.

If the announcement by the *Tribune's* Washington correspondent a fortnight ago that the President intended to make wholesale modifications in the civil-service rules was put out as a "feeler," it has not taken long to show that the country would not condone such a repudiation of the most binding personal and party pledges. The *Tribune* itself upon reflection has become convinced that the step proposed would be a dreadful blunder. In an excellent article on Wednesday week it exposed the humbug of the spoilsmen's talk about Cleveland's "midnight order," pointing out that it was issued on the 6th of May, 1896, "and met with the general commendation of the press of both parties, including the *Tribune*"; showed that even if the charges of partisanship in the Government Printing-Office are true, they constitute no argument for abolishing the competitive system, since "the power to dismiss men and fill their places by impartial examination—thus at once rebuking favoritism and vindicating the merit system—may give a satisfactory solution of the difficulty"; justified the present inclusion of chiefs of division in the classified service; and concluded with the declaration that "the extension of the merit system is a Republican policy, and spoilsmen might as well reconcile themselves to the fact." This is the right sort of talk, and will show Mr. McKinley how utterly inexcusable and indefensible would be the surrender to the spoilsmen which

he was reported to be on the point of making.

"Labor" has been insisting that it was high time it got some "recognition" from the Administration, and on Saturday Mr. McKinley tendered it the nomination of the notorious Powderly as Commissioner of Immigration. But "Labor" is more indignant with the President now than before he had done anything for it. The Central Labor Union, at its meeting on Sunday, adopted a resolution declaring that the nomination of Powderly "is the greatest official insult ever offered by the federal Government to organized labor." The President of the American Federation of Labor explains the opposition by saying that "Powderly is not a man who is in touch with the labor organizations of this country, or who can be trusted in a position of such responsibility." But neither does his nomination command the endorsement of people outside the ranks of these organizations, since everybody knows that he would never have been thought of as Commissioner of Immigration except for his claims as a representative of "Labor."

The new Librarian of Congress has at least shown that he knows the absolute need of expert knowledge in his chief subordinates, even if the President was willing to overlook that requirement in his own appointment to the head of the Library. Mr. Young evidently perceives that there are positions into which the ordinary politician's man could not be put without bringing disaster to the whole institution. His choice of Mr. Hutcheson to be in charge of the reading-room was made strictly on the standard of merit, and so was his appointment of Mr. Solberg, announced on Monday, to be Register of Copyrights. This official has varied duties to perform requiring technical skill and executive capacity beyond the ordinary; and Mr. Solberg's training and studies and writings prove him to be a master of the intricacies of copyright law. He will, as Register of Copyrights, have to answer all communications relating to the subject (now numbering, it is said, about 140 letters each day); to record, index, and classify all copyrights granted; to receive, receipt for, and deposit all moneys transmitted for copyright (upwards of $50,000 annually); to prepare the weekly catalogue of title-entries of copyrighted articles; to take charge of copyright business with citizens of foreign countries; with many other kindred matters. The unusual attainments obviously needed for the proper discharge of all these duties are possessed by Mr. Solberg in so eminent a degree as to make his appointment ideal. It must be set down greatly to the credit of Librarian Young.

The platform adopted by the National League of Republican Clubs, a notorious organization of office-seekers, contains an extraordinary assortment of absurd and mischievous propositions. Most political platforms contain some suggestions of statesmanship, some recognitions of the existence of rational principles of legislation, some endorsements of established rules of political wisdom. These asseverations may be perfunctory, but they at least throw a mantle of decorum over the low and selfish purposes of politicians. But the platform of this League contains nothing to which the epithet statesmanlike could be applied without doing violence to language. It would be regarded as a discreditable production by any backwoods debating society, and in its complete omission of everything rational and inclusion of all that is dangerous, it is perhaps unsurpassed. The mere enumeration of its "planks" is enough to discredit it with all unbiassed citizens. As to the achievements of President McKinley and a Republican Congress, they enumerate two, and two only, and these they praise without stint—the sending a Monetary Commission abroad to keep up the agitation for bimetallism, and the presentation of a scheme for seizing the Sandwich Islands. For the future, they propose intervention in Cuba, discriminating duties on freight brought here in vessels of foreign ownership, a bounty on beet-sugar, woman suffrage, "modification of the civil-service law," and the exclusion of "unworthy" immigrants. We venture to suggest to intelligent Republicans that they should compare this programme with that adopted at the same time in Kentucky by the National Democrats. It will be an exercise that may involve some humiliation of spirit, but the results cannot fail to be salutary.

The resolutions adopted by the bankers of New York State at their annual convention in Saratoga on Friday have the true ring. They do not mince matters or deal in roundabout phrases. They recommend the retirement of all Government paper and the substitution of a safe bank currency under Governmental control. The time has gone by when there was anything to be gained by the policy of silence or of half-measures on the part of the banks. At this time, when the politicians at Washington are eating their own words and shrinking from any reform whatever, firmness of tone is more than ever necessary on the part of those who understand the dangers of the present currency system. The New York bankers know that the policy of timidity never makes friends or accomplishes any good in this world. Hence they have spoken the truth with clearness and emphasis. For so doing they are entitled to the thanks of all intelligent men, whether Congress agrees with them or not.

The report of the Bureau of Statistics on the export and import trade of the United States for the fiscal year ending June 30, makes in many respects the most remarkable showing in our history. The country's merchandise exports during the past twelve months have outrun all precedent. They cross the billion-dollar mark for the first time since 1891, and exceed the total even of that year by $21,708,943. The year's enormous total of exported merchandise, $1,051,987,091, passes no less than $169,380,153 beyond the total in the fiscal year 1896. Simultaneously the country's import trade has decreased $15,350,769 from 1896, and falls $102,000,000 below the total of 1893, the maximum in our history. As a result, the excess of exports over imports rises this year to $287,613,186; a balance twenty-three millions greater than the highest previous record—that of 1879—and nearly eighty-five millions in excess of 1892, a year comprising the enormous cereal exports after the foreign harvest failure. But for the abnormally heavy import movement since last March, forced by the threat of increased customs duties, the balance in our favor would be very much greater. Had imports during March and the three ensuing months continued, as they usually do under normal circumstances, in a volume no greater than the February import movement, the total export balance for the fiscal year would have exceeded $394,000,000.

It is hardly necessary to add that exporters were greatly helped by the tariff act of 1894, which, with all its imperfections, gave raw materials on advantageous terms to some of our most important industries. How widely the extension of export in manufactures has gone this year may be judged from the fact that up to the close of May (the detailed report for that month is just at hand) exports of machinery increased $7,073,000 over 1896, or 36 per cent.; exports of copper $10,962,000, or 67 per cent.; exports of bicycles $4,740,115, or 340 per cent.; exports of cotton-seed oil $2,559,000, or 50 per cent.; exports of wood and wooden goods $6,299,000, or 21 per cent., and exports of cotton cloths $4,923,000, or 10 per cent. The clever search for markets is illustrated by the fact that export of cottons to China and the other Asiatic states ran up $4,975,000 over the year preceding, and that shipments of bicycles to Great Britain itself rose from $324,312 in 1896 to $2,082,963 in the same eleven months of 1893. On the other hand it is evident that consumers in the United States have faced the problem of hard times with courage and honesty, and have cut down heavily on luxuries. Such shrinkage, during the eleven months ending May 31, as the $3,487,000 decrease in imports of jewelry, the decline of $8,-

791,000 in raw silk imports, and of $3,266,000 in imports of manufactured silk, with the fall of nearly a million dollars even in import of foreign-made gloves, is conclusive on this point.

The Supreme Court of Kansas has just come to the rescue of the people from the serious trouble threatened by careless law-making in that ill-ruled State. The last Populist Legislature passed a bill which was designed to repeal many redundant, obsolete, and inoperative provisions, about 300 pages of which had accumulated on the statute-book. After the session had closed, the discovery was made that, if the new law should stand, it would abolish half-a-dozen judicial districts, embracing many of the most populous counties in the State, and involve the courts in great confusion. The matter was carried to the Supreme Court, and that tribunal was fortunately able to set the law aside as plainly unconstitutional, since it contained a multiplicity of subjects which were not expressed in the title, whereas the Constitution expressly provides that a bill shall contain only one subject, which must be so expressed. An amusing feature of this decision annulling the action of a Populist Legislature is the fact that it was rendered by the new Populist Chief Justice, who has earnestly protested against the encroachments of courts and their tendency to defeat the will of Legislatures by a resort to technicalities.

The attention of Mr. Bryan and ex-Gov. Altgeld should be called to an extraordinary revelation of the enormities of the "money power" which has recently been made in England. A select parliamentary committee appointed to inquire into the practices of money-lenders had before it Isaac Gordon, a native of Russia and still a Russian subject, but who has resided in England for some fifteen years. This enterprising person carried on business in several different places and under eight different names, his reason, as he frankly stated, being that if he traded under the same name everywhere, his customers "would not be likely to enter the trap again." The plan seems to have worked very well in some ways, as one unfortunate dressmaker borrowed from Gordon three times, supposing that she was dealing with three different money-lenders; but as she eventually became bankrupt, the profits of the transaction were not as large as the rate of interest would indicate. Another customer borrowed £395, and, after repaying £445, became bankrupt, being still indebted in the amount of £362, of which Gordon succeeded in recovering more than three-fourths. The witness displaying some signs of pleasure in relating this transaction, the chairman severely observed that he seemed to be delighted at his customers' bankruptcy, to which the witness cheerfully replied: "Oh dear, no. It is only a matter of business."

Mr. Gordon testified further that he exercised much discrimination in selecting loans. Clergymen he had dropped; "they were an awful lot." Young officers and undergraduates he would none of; nor did he condescend to the "ignorant, common class," or have dealings with members of Parliament. Women owning annuities and tradesmen were his favorites, and he had sometimes made loans to persons of this class at 3,000 per cent. Security Mr. Gordon never demanded, for the excellent reason that when people had securities they knew better than to come to him. He expressed a willingness to comply with the law if it limited the rate of interest, provided he found business still profitable, but was strongly opposed to having the courts review his transactions. As he admitted that he had been imprisoned for "fraud, or misrepresentation, or something of the sort," his aversion to courts need not excite surprise. It was shared by another witness, Mr. Isaac Samuel (doing business under the name "Fielding's, Limited"), who disapproved of the propensity of judges to calculate interest by the year. If he lent £5 on condition of being repaid £6 5s. in a week, his profit would be 25 per cent., but the courts would call it 1,000 per cent. per annum. This practice tended to create a prejudice against money-lenders, some of whom the witness admitted were beggarly people, who had no money of their own to lend, and charged a commission for introducing borrowers to substantial concerns like his own. Dickens has sometimes been accused of exaggeration, but he left no description of the extortions of usurers that equals the evidence presented before this parliamentary committee. It is probable that a recommendation will be made that professional money-lenders shall take out licenses and give bonds for good behavior.

Some weeks ago the House of Commons, in a moment of hilarity, passed on first reading a bill to extend the suffrage to women. But it fought shy of so much as taking it up on second reading; in fact, showed a disposition to burke the measure altogether. This male cowardice brought out at last the following petition, signed by a number of ladies, and presented in the House on July 6:

"That your petitioners view with indignation and alarm the existing procedure of the House of Commons, which reduces legislation to a mere game of chance, and permits the repeated and insulting postponement of the consideration and satisfaction of the just claims of women to citizenship. Your petitioners therefore humbly pray that your honorable House will so reform your procedure as to secure in the future fair consideration of public questions with some regard to their relative importance, and will on Wednesday, July 7, affirm the right of women to citizenship by passing through the stages of committee and of third reading the parliamentary franchise (extension to women) bill."

An old member rose to ask if a "petition couched in language of this sort ought to be received by the House." The Speaker said it was for the House to say. Then somebody else inquired whether the honorable member who presented the petition was not answerable for its language. Speaker Gully said that honorable members presenting petitions must exercise their own discretion in doing so; and added impressively: "The right honorable gentleman has in this case exercised his own discretion." The bill was withdrawn.

The fate of Greece is discussed in the *Contemporary Review* by Mr. E. J. Dillon in a long and, on the whole, instructive and suggestive article. The truth is that the Government of Greece, like that of the United States, is in such a condition as to make the annexation of outside territory inexpedient. The internal problems are so serious as to demand the employment of all the available political virtue for their solution. But a few years ago the interest on the public debt was "scaled down," while at the same time extravagance prevailed in every department of the Government. The "spoils system" flourishes luxuriantly, and the number of office-holders is frightfully large. The entire adult male population of Greece is about 500,000, and over 17,000 of these are Government functionaries. The army numbers at the highest estimate 80,000 men, but the civilians employed in the War Office are nearly 5,000. The Department of Finance has over 2,700 functionaries; that of the Interior has nearly 4,700. Under such an incubus of public servants taxes have been doubled within a few years, in spite of the repudiation of the debt. As Mr. Dillon points out, the Greeks can hardly be regarded as inferior to the Rumanians; but the Rumanians have succeeded in maintaining a respectable government and in securing material prosperity. It is a deplorable thing that Greece should become tributary to Turkey, as is proposed by the Powers, for no more taxes can be wrung from the people without oppression. But it is clear that the amount of the tribute could be raised without increasing the taxes simply by reforming the Government, and if the exaction of the tribute should have that result, it might eventually be for the advantage of the Greeks. If they will learn to govern themselves, they will have opportunities enough for expansion in the future.

"DIGNIFIED" DIPLOMACY.

The Republican platform called for a foreign policy which, while "firm" and "vigorous," should also be "dignified." Reduced to practice in its four months of being in power, the party's theory of dignified diplomacy seems to be a mixture of deceit and slang-whanging. Secretary Sherman's two exploits up to date are his deception of the Japanese Minister in the Hawaiian affair, and his hectoring letter to Lord Salisbury about the sealing regulations, which an English newspaper characterizes as "an explosion of bad manners," and goes not wide of the mark. Mr. Sherman's method of presenting his case is itself irritating because it imputes bad faith to the British authorities. Thus he says, near the beginning of the despatch:

> "It is not pleasant to have to state that the impartial character which it has been the custom to attribute to the reports of naturalists of high standing, *has been greatly impaired by the apparent subjection of this report to the political exigencies of the situation.* It is further to be regretted that the report was so long delayed that no opportunity was afforded this Government to examine it before the definite and final rejection of the President's proposals, based mainly upon its conclusions, was communicated to me. This conduct recalls the incident which preceded the arbitration at Paris, and which came near rendering that arbitration abortive, when a similar report of a British commission was withheld until after the case of each Government was exchanged and the report of the American commission made public."

"Political exigencies of the situation" is a phrase imputing bad faith. It is a locution not used in diplomacy, except where one party wishes to make the continuance of the correspondence difficult. If Lord Salisbury had used it, it would have been considered impertinent and insulting. If it is not so considered on the other side, it must be because they think that the Americans are not used to refined manners and do not recognize the force of words. After beginning his discourse in this offensive way, Mr. Sherman concludes by saying:

> "We have felt assured that, as it has been demonstrated that the practice of pelagic sealing, if continued, will not only bring itself to an end, but will work the destruction of a great interest of a friendly nation, her Majesty's Government would desist from an act so suicidal and so unneighborly, and which certainly could not command the approval of its own people."

Here we have it again. Not only is the kind of sealing authorized and fixed by the Paris tribunal "suicidal" and "unneighborly," but it "could not command the approval of its own [the British] people." In other words, we know better than Lord Salisbury does what the British people approve of. No wonder that such language results in a polite refusal to reopen the question at this time.

There are some most curious circumstances attending the publication of the document. If it was an explosion, it was an unexpected explosion, and the question is, Who fired the mine? Some weeks ago there was much Jingo chuckling over a forthcoming seals correspondence. It was hinted that Mr. Sherman had written a peppery letter of which the Administration was very proud, and it was said that the whole thing would soon be laid before Congress to show what a "sassing" Salisbury had got. But suddenly there was a cooling down at the State Department. Mr. Sherman had not been so merciless to poor Salisbury, after all. Anyhow, the correspondence would not be given out just yet. You see, there was a very delicate bimetallic negotiation going on in England, and she might not be willing both to change her standard of value and to submit to a public slapping of her face. Besides, Special Agent J. W. Foster was still negotiating about the seals, and he had a notion, foolish but traditional, that to call a man a scoundrel was not the best way to win him over to your way of thinking. Oh no, no inflammatory correspondence would be given out, and President McKinley had a message all written informing Congress that it was "not compatible with the public interest" that the correspondence should be laid before it.

At this interesting juncture, off went the "exclusive" bomb in the very *Court Journal*—we would say the *Tribune*. There was Sherman's letter in all its senile fury—*Sir Anthony Absolute* bursting into diplomacy. Everybody was set guessing how the *Tribune* got it. All the world wondered, too, how the *Tribune* could think the publication of a document which McKinley wanted suppressed a good way to back its friends. The conviction that Mr. McKinley is absolutely wise, great, and good is, we know, firmly entrenched in the *Tribune* office—at least it was until Platt ran off with all the spoils. How could it be wise to give to the public what Mr. McKinley thought it unwise to give? There is a mystery here—perhaps several mysteries.

One ingenious theory is that the Envoy-editor's getting his luncheon every day at Windsor Castle had something to do with the case. Naturally Lord Salisbury would appeal to him for help. The British Premier must, of course, have read the *Tribune's* rebuke of Mr. Foster for being "needlessly aggressive" in his statement of the sealing difficulty, and what more likely than that he should want the *Tribune* to rebuke Secretary Sherman also? Surely a paper edited by so polite a diplomat and such a great favorite with the Queen would expose and resent such boorish manners. In this way, some able reasoners maintain, Secretary Sherman's letter found its way "exclusively" to the columns of the *Tribune*. We hesitate to pronounce judgment on this theory. Unaccustomed as we are to royal circles and the subtle methods of editor-diplomats, we can only record the theory, express our simple-minded wonder, and pass on.

Another theory is that Mr. Sherman himself gave out the letter. He is still fond—perhaps fonder than ever—of seeing himself in print. It would be well, too, to put an end to the unpleasant rumors that his powers were failing. Just read that letter! Could a man in the prime of life be more insulting? Besides, the occasion called for something vigorous. It had just been announced in London that the British Government had declined to reopen the sealing question until the *modus vivendi* should expire in 1898. Declined, have they? Well, at least the country ought to know that the Secretary made faces and shook his fists at Salisbury. Whatever the President might think of what was or was not compatible with the public interest, the main thing was to let the people know that there is life in the old man yet.

A more commonplace and, we regret to say, more likely view is that the *Tribune* was simply carried away by the temptation to score a "scoop." Confronted with a "scoop," the most diplomatic and statesmanlike editor in the world trembles and yields. It may be bad policy; it may offend the President, before whom it is the paper's duty to grovel; it may embarrass the party and make its diplomacy ludicrous rather than dignified; but a "scoop" is so glorious that policy, President, and party have to take second place. This must be the *Tribune's* excuse. It will be sufficient in the newspaper world, but we fear that in the political world it will hardly pass. The many "original McKinley men" on the *Tribune* must sadly think so as they see Platt bagging office after office which they had intended for themselves.

THE LOUISVILLE CONVENTION.

The convention of the National (sound-money) Democrats held at Louisville on July 14 was a success far exceeding the hopes of its promoters. It was in that respect akin to the turn-out of the same party in the recent election in the State of Michigan. In the latter it will be recalled that a few men on the State committee, contrary to the advice of the party leaders, decided to make a separate nomination for Judge of the Supreme Court, merely to keep up the appearance of an organization. To the great surprise of those who had opposed this policy, and of themselves as well, their ticket received nearly 35,000 votes, against less than 7,000 cast for Palmer and Buckner in the Presidential election. This fact proved that at least 28,000 Sound-Money Democrats in Michigan had voted for McKinley. This number taken from Bryan and given to the Republicans was just sufficient to account for the 56,000 majority by

which the latter carried the State. The probability is, however, that a much larger number of Sound-Money Democrats voted for McKinley in the fall of 1896 than voted for their own ticket in the spring of 1897, as the latter election did not attract general interest.

The Louisville convention was remarkable for the number and spirit of those attending it, but no one should have been surprised by the strength and national reputation of those who took the leading part in it. It was well known beforehand that Mr. Carlisle, Mr. Watterson, and Mr. Breckinridge were unswerving supporters of the movement, and that they would never yield an inch to the demands of the silverites. It was not known that the masses who went with them last year were equally firm. The usual result of a party split is a compromise and a coming together of the broken parts. It is much easier to "make friends" after the bitterness of the strife is past, after personal animosities are healed, and after the fact has become clear that offices are not to be gained by fighting each other. Consequently there is always a drift toward peace and harmony after an internal contest which has resulted in defeat. Many predictions had been made that peace and harmony would be found in Kentucky this year. The chances of such a result were greater there than in Michigan because the Kentucky Democrats really forfeited State control and the local offices by their division. United, they were the majority party, whereas the Michigan Democrats were the minority party and had nothing to lose in any case.

When we contemplate the powerful reasons making for "harmony" in Kentucky, we are all the more impressed with the noble devotion to principle which inspires the National Democrats of that State and holds them true to their convictions. At this juncture, when the Republicans are doing everything possible to alienate their Democratic supporters of last year by tariff legislation little short of infamous, such devotion is all but heroic. We express our own admiration for it, and we draw new hope from the promise which these men bring, of the ultimate downfall of both free silver and the robber tariff. Mr. Carlisle is right in saying that those two heresies go together. The Bryanites in both House and Senate have, with a few honorable exceptions, concurred with the Republicans in passing the Dingley bill. That is, they have opposed it in such a way as to secure its passage, and some of them have even voted for it outright. Evidently such men are not to be relied on for any share in the battle royal which is still to be fought in order to emancipate the people from the slavery of protection.

Mr. Carlisle usually makes the best speech of any occasion in which he participates. It was so at Louisville. He said that there was not a genuine Democratic sentiment in the Chicago platform, and that no Democrat was bound by it, no matter how many State or national conventions endorsed it.

"You are here to-day," he continued, "to repudiate it absolutely and unqualifiedly, and to reassert the true doctrines of the party with all these modern heresies eliminated. The paralysis of trade and industry, resulting in the loss of public revenue and in destroying the ability of the people to meet their private obligations, was produced mainly by unwise currency and fiscal legislation, and the return of prosperity has so far been prevented by continued partisan agitation in favor of still more radical and destructive measures on the same subjects. The whole field of domestic industry and enterprise, every calling and occupation in which an intelligent and progressive people can possibly engage, has been subjected to the most searching investigation by trained experts, stimulated by selfish personal interest, to discover useful articles of consumption upon which new or additional burdens could be so imposed by law as to rob the people of their honest earnings, without raising revenue for the Government."

Mr. Watterson said that, "as a political issue, the free and independent coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1 was as dead as African slavery." The splendid rally of the Sound-Money Democrats at Louisville certainly goes far to confirm this belief, for it is only necessary to convince the local politicians in Kentucky and everywhere else that the offices do not lie that way in order to kill it. Let them once understand that the National Democrats intend to stand for their principles, now and for ever, and that their votes are necessary to Democratic success, and the Bryanites will drop free coinage and come back to the principles of Jefferson, Jackson, and Tilden. The Louisville convention is fresh proof of the steadfastness of those who supported Palmer and Buckner last year. It will notably confirm the faith of their friends in other States, and in other cities, too. It will not fail to have its influence in our coming municipal campaign. It has already had its influence in Massachusetts. It will find its echo in every Northern and Western State where an election is to take place this fall. Nothing more hopeful has been seen in the political field during the present year.

THE MINERS' STRIKE AND THE LAW.

The struggle of the coal-miners to secure higher wages naturally arouses the sympathy of benevolent people. It does not appear to admit of question that the wages which these miners have lately received are insufficient for their comfortable support. The prices at which bituminous coal has been sold this year have been such as to render it impossible for capitalists to make a profit out of the business if they paid the miners "living" wages, and it is doubtful if any profits have been made even with the low wages actually paid. This unsatisfactory situation has been brought about by the desperate struggle for business of several insolvent concerns. These concerns have reduced prices below the cost of production, and their solvent competitors have had to lower their prices in order not to lose their own trade altogether. Under these circumstances it seems quite reasonable that the miners should try to make an agreement with their employers to restore prices and wages to normal figures. Were such a restoration accomplished, the beneficial results would be very extensive, and the consumers of coal could not complain of an advance in price sufficient to afford a reasonable compensation to those engaged in its production.

Yet it does not seem to have occurred to the newspaper writers who are now trying to gush with sympathetic zeal for the miners' cause, that the aims of the miners are altogether unlawful. That very anti-monopoly legislation which these same writers have done their best to promote, stands squarely across the path of coal-miners as well as of other persons who think of entering into any agreement to fix the price of labor or of any commodity. It was but a few months ago that the Supreme Court of the United States decided that an agreement among railroad managers "for the purpose of mutual protection by establishing and maintaining reasonable rates" was an illegal agreement. It is not material that the agreement in that case related to freight charges, while the agreement which the miners are struggling to reach relates to coal. The principle is the same, and while there was much doubt concerning the applicability of the anti-monopoly law to railroads, there can be little question that it applies to such a commodity as coal when it becomes an article of interstate commerce, especially since many railroad corporations are engaged in coal-mining.

As Judge Peckham pointed out, the coal-miners cannot be heard to maintain that their struggle is not for the purpose of restraining trade, or for establishing rates above what is reasonable. It would make no difference if they demonstrated that the result of the agreement which they desire would be not only to increase their own comfort, but also to increase trade. Whether the rates of wages which they propose are reasonable or not is quite immaterial. It is the law of the land that any agreement to maintain rates is prohibited by act of Congress, and whatever inconvenience the miners now have to bear is not to be removed by any agreements of theirs. True, the miners might, perhaps, lawfully contract with their employers to accept lower wages than at present. Even the Supreme Court would hardly, unless it should change its mind, hold that such an agreement was in re-

straint of trade, as involving the maintenance of rates. Under some circumstances employers might be pleased to learn that such an agreement was legal, but they would hardly desire it now, and the miners are too near starvation to listen patiently to such an elucidation of their legal rights. They have been assured that the courts were against them, and that the judges were bribed by their employers. When they find it literally true that the Supreme Court has declared illegal all agreements that they may make with their employers for maintaining the price of coal and the wages for mining it, they may reason ably conclude that there is no falsehood in the stories of the venality and hostility of the judiciary.

Some claim may be made that the law still tolerates agreements between the individual workman and the individual master to maintain a fixed rate of wages. It may be urged that wages and prices are different things; that the law is intended to regulate the compensation of capitalists, not that of laborers. An examination of Judge Peckham's reasoning will show that this view cannot be maintained. It may be thought reasonable, but he shows that reason is not to be considered in the construction of an act of Congress. There is no escape from the sweeping rule that any agreement to maintain rates, reasonable or unreasonable, is in restraint of trade, and, therefore, illegal, whether it is made by railroads or grocers or coal-miners.

Were agreements concerning wages excepted, it would make no practical difference. It would be idle for the miners to demand higher wages if the price of coal is not to be advanced. Miners' wages are generally regulated by a "sliding scale"; they vary as the price of coal varies. Nor do the miners desire individual agreements with individual masters. They want rates which combinations of masters shall agree with combinations of workmen to maintain. Such rates, however, the masters can evidently not agree to pay, unless there is some agreement concerning the price at which coal is to be sold. A man might be very quickly ruined if he agreed to pay a specified rate of wages without reference to this price. He might find that it cost him more to mine a ton of coal than he could get for it, and his workmen would soon find that their wages not only were not maintained, but were extinguished altogether.

We are very much afraid that the Governors of the coal-producing States have participated in a conspiracy to encourage acts in restraint of trade. They have been proposing arbitration, with a view of establishing agreements of an unlawful character between the miners and their employers. They cannot plead ignorance of the law, as the miners may, and it becomes them to be extremely circumspect in their recommendations. They must take care to suggest nothing that can be construed as tending to maintain reasonable or stable rates for coal or for coal-mining, for that is a crime. We do not know what counsel the Governors can lawfully give in the present emergency, and can only suggest that a conference of anti-monopoly newspaper writers and legislators should be called to devise expedients for raising miners' wages and decreasing the cost of producing coal at one and the same time. These people have passed laws that leave the miners in a bad legal scrape, and they ought to point the way out of it.

NO ENTANGLING ALLIANCES.

Some of our readers will recall an amusing satire that appeared during Mr. Greeley's Presidential campaign, in which the country was represented as having been conquered by foreign Powers exasperated to hostility by our disregard of diplomatic customs. As Mr. Greeley was not elected, the prophecy was not fulfilled; yet the course of events recently has been such as to make our foreign relations a subject of some anxiety. Were Washington to return to life, he would certainly be reassured concerning one danger, and would admit that his warning against "entangling alliances" had been heeded. With the exception of Venezuela, of whose claims we have somewhat accidentally found ourselves the champions, it may fairly be said that we stand without an ally on either continent. None of the Powers has any reason to regard us with a particularly friendly feeling, and several of them have good reasons for cherishing sentiments of hostility. If such isolation is desirable, we may congratulate ourselves on the success of our diplomats in attaining it.

As to France, the Power with which we have, as our earliest ally, always maintained friendly relations, the evidences of her present irritation are manifest. She has already imposed retaliatory duties on our products, and is only waiting for the passage of the new tariff act to adopt severer measures. Mr. Depew would hardly be called as a witness by those who disapprove of the policy of the Republican party, but he voluntarily testifies concerning an incident which he properly describes as remarkable. At a dinner in Paris which he attended, and at which one of the French Ministers was present, our Ambassador referred to the traditional friendship between France and the United States. "The French Minister, replying, said in substance: 'Yes, we have traditional friendship, and desire to maintain it. But friendship between nations is not sentiment, but acts. If your new tariff excludes our goods from your markets and injures our trade, then you are unfriendly and hostile.' It was a singularly blunt speech for a Frenchman, and plainly said: 'Fine words butter no parsnips for us.'"

The utterances of the German Emperor are not intrinsically of the weightiest character, but his position gives them importance, and when he talks of "the American peril," we need not blink the fact that this means hostility. Back of the Emperor stands a strong party, increasingly aggressive, and as "quick to resent insults" as the chaplain of our House of Representatives prayed that we might be. This party will presently show us that if we propose to discriminate against German beet-sugar, we shall not have the game to ourselves. Nor will the German Government be propitiated by Mr. McKinley's nomination as consuls at important German cities of men who were formerly German subjects. We have a right to appoint whom we please, but this practice has always produced irritation in the past and is sure to arouse resentment in the future. Four of these German-Americans were recently appointed to German posts in one day, and the posts filled are among the most important in the German empire. This is not the way to promote friendly relations with any country, least of all just now with Germany.

The English are doubtless the last people in the world to wish to quarrel with us. They have manifested for many years a very friendly disposition, and have pursued a conciliatory policy under circumstances of extreme provocation. Until recently they supposed that these friendly sentiments were reciprocated, but the Venezuelan episode undeceived them. They learned that, while they had friends in this country, the number of Americans who had been taught to hate them was startlingly great, and that, as Rufus Choate said at the time of the *Caroline* controversy, the thunder of cannon in a war with England was music to which this nation had no great objection to wake up. There can be no genuine friendship under such conditions as these, and when our underbred amateur diplomats attribute the conduct of blackguards to the representatives of the British Government, we need not suppose that a gentlemanly forbearance is any indication of an affectionate approval of our methods. We occasionally see people enduring much indignity in their efforts to quiet a tipsy acquaintance, but true friendship is not promoted in this way.

The "singularly blunt speech" of the French Minister, which Mr. Depew thought so significant, was a repetition of the complaints of the deputation from the South American states recently entertained by our merchants. These visitors acknowledged the courtesy of their hosts and the magnificent possibilities of commerce exhibited by our country, but

they frankly declared that, if the proposals of our tariff-framers were to be enacted, they should return home and advise immediate measures of retaliation. Nor is the spirit that we have stirred up in our neighbors on the north less unfriendly than that aroused in the South American states. The Dominion of Canada has promptly made arrangements to respond to our tariff by duties of its own, and to establish with England that reciprocity in commerce which we have labored to extinguish. The wisdom of this latter step is so obvious that we may expect the relations between the Dominion and the mother country to become increasingly close, while we shall become more and more estranged from both of them.

A few years ago nothing would have seemed more absurd than an alliance between Spain and Japan. That there should be any harmony between the most effete of European Powers and the most progressive of those of the Orient seems incredible; and yet we have behaved in such a way towards both of them as to make their alliance a matter for serious discussion. Our Congressmen have had capital sport with Spain; they have thought her so feeble that we could insult her with impunity, thereby winning much fame for themselves. Not all of them would threaten Japan with so light a heart; that Power recently displayed a combination of pugnacity and vigor that was rather startling. Nevertheless we have taken a step in negotiating the treaty with Hawaii the meaning of which the Japanese understand perfectly well. They are sufficiently astute to know that "friendship between nations is not sentiment, but acts"; and while they are wise enough to keep their own counsel, it is not difficult to imagine what that counsel is.

We are still fortunately at peace with all the world, but, as Senator Hale observed in urging the prompt completion of some more naval vessels, "foreign complications are pressing upon us." These complications are not alliances—north, south, east, and west we may look in vain for a Power, civilized or uncivilized, whom our policy has not tended to alienate and irritate. Some day our statesmen may carry their offensive behavior a little too far, and we may then find ourselves in difficulties which will be witnessed with satisfaction by all the peoples of the earth.

MR. CHAMBERLAIN AND THE RAID.

Mr. Joseph Chamberlain has often been said to be the most American among English public men. He is aggressive, showy, "smart," absorbed in politics as a game. These qualities have sometimes led to his being compared to Mr. Blaine. Another parallel between the two may now be drawn in the conspiracy of which Mr. Chamberlain appears to be the object. Mulligan letters were maliciously used against Mr. Blaine, and Transvaal telegrams are so used against Mr. Chamberlain. The telegrams have been just as fully "explained" as were the famous letters, and yet there are wicked people who say that the Colonial Secretary's innocence of all connection with the Jameson raid has not been shown. Mr. Labouchere has his suspicions, as revealed in his minority report, in which he says that the Parliamentary committee should have probed more deeply into the evidence implicating Mr. Chamberlain.

What is that evidence? Well, it consists partly in the firm conviction of some of the leading conspirators that Mr. Chamberlain knew all about their plans and approved them. Dr. Harris, Rhodes's agent, thought he had clearly given the Secretary to understand the scheme; he swore so, in fact, before the committee, but when Mr. Chamberlain said that he had no recollection whatever of the conversation which Dr. Harris said had taken place between them, the latter said that he was not the man to set his memory against the Secretary's. He was positive, however, that he had "spoken openly" to Under-Secretary Fairfield, Chamberlain's head man; but then, as Mr. Chamberlain astutely pointed out, Mr. Fairfield was very deaf and might not have heard what he said to him, and besides he was now dead, and it was hardly fitting to involve the character of the dead. Dr. Jameson and the English officers who went with him on the raid all thought that Mr. Chamberlain was conniving at their action. Most significant of all, Cecil Rhodes himself was positive that Chamberlain knew his plans and was supporting them.

The proof that Rhodes thought so is various. One item of it is given as follows in the July *Contemporary Review:*

"A Conservative of the highest honor and standing, whose word no one would dream of disputing, was travelling in the Cape and saw Mr. Rhodes. They discussed the matter freely, and Mr. Rhodes told him plainly that Chamberlain was in it up to the hilt. On that authority, the member saw Lord Salisbury, and was ultimately confronted with the Colonial Secretary. 'Who told you I was in it?' said the Minister. 'Rhodes himself,' said the critic. We omit the reply."

The reply was, according to the story current in the House of Commons, "The traitor!" Other evidence of the highest significance is contained in the telegrams sent to and by Rhodes. Here are two of them:

FLORA SHAW TO RHODES.

"17th December, 1895.

"Held an interview with Secretary Transvaal. Left here on Saturday for Hague, Berlin, Paris; fear in negotiation with these parties. Chamberlain sound in case of interference European Powers, but have special reason to believe wishes you must do it immediately."

RHODES TO FLORA SHAW.

"30th December, 1895.

"Inform Chamberlain that I shall get through all right if he supports me, but he must not send cable like he sent to High Commissioner in South Africa. To-day the crux is, I will win and South Africa will belong to England."

Certainly no man could have sent that telegram who was not sure that Chamberlain was "in it up to the hilt." What must have been his surprise, then, when the Secretary declared in the House of Commons, within two months' time:

"It is asked of me, 'Was the High Commissioner, were other people, ignorant of this projected invasion?' I say, to the best of my knowledge and belief, that everybody, that Mr. Rhodes, that the Chartered Company, that the reform committee of Johannesburg, and the High Commissioner were all equally ignorant of the intention or action of Dr. Jameson. That is the belief which I express to the House after having carefully examined all the statements of all the parties concerned."

That was before the ugly telegrams had been "decoded" and put in evidence. It was also before the following letter, written just nine days previous to Mr. Chamberlain's assertion of ignorance in the House, was made public:

"COLONIAL OFFICE, Feb. 4, 1896.

"MY DEAR HAWKSLEY: I told Meade of our conversation, and he said we must at once tell Mr. Chamberlain. We did so, and he requests that you will ask your various clients who have sent telegrams about him or the office to send copies to me through you. He does not recollect saying anything anent the insurrection which was supposed to be impending which he would greatly care about if it became public, but he would like to know as a preliminary matter what it is he and we are supposed to have said. Perhaps, also, you could tell us how much of what was sent from here reached the five, or whatever number it was, and, if so, whether it was in substance or in words. Yours truly, E. FAIRFIELD."

Hawksley was Rhodes's solicitor. He replied next day, "Mr. C. knows what I know, and can shape his course with this knowledge."

All this is a cruel network of evidence to be woven about an innocent man. Mr. Chamberlain may escape with his integrity, but what becomes of his reputation for sagacity? Everybody about him knew what was going on, but he was in blissful ignorance. The explanations given by Flora Shaw are too ingenious by half. She was using Mr. Chamberlain's name without authority. The "special reason" she had for thinking he wanted the raid to come off "immediately" was that she heard Mr. Fairfield say so at the Colonial Office—but, then, he might have been chaffing. Did she "inform Chamberlain" in obedience to Rhodes's telegram? Yes, she did, and at once wired back that Chamberlain was "awfully angry." We should think he might have been. But he points to his anger as a proof of his innocence; it was simply outraged virtue indignant. The situation, however, as far as he is concerned, is well summed up in the dispatch of a correspondent who says that the Transvaal inquiry has resulted in clearing Mr. Chamberlain of complicity, but that no foreign Power

will believe it. Foreign Powers are notoriously incredulous.

The lame and impotent conclusion of the committee of inquiry, its running away from every hot trail it struck, can be accounted for, says the writer in the *Contemporary Review*, only on one supposition:

"There is only one reason that can, with any probability be assigned—that is, that some member of the Government has made a 'Front Bench communication' to the leader of the Opposition, indicating to him explicitly that there are 'reasons of state' for stopping the disclosures. There can be little doubt that this is what has happened; and conjecture, not only in this country, but elsewhere, will naturally be keen to know what the nature of this momentous disclosure was."

MADAME DE GEOFFRIN.—I.

PARIS, June 29, 1897.

M. Pierre de Ségur has just published, under the somewhat singular title, 'Le Royaume de la Rue Saint-Honoré,' a complete Life of the famous Madame Geoffrin. The Rue Saint-Honoré is but a small kingdom, but, under the sway of Madame Geoffrin, the mother of the Philosophers, as she was sometimes called, it became the intellectual kingdom of the eighteenth century. Not that Madame Geoffrin was herself a great thinker; our modern feminist school would have no right to consider her one of its apostles. She was simply an ambitious and wealthy bourgeoise, fond of society; and the best society she could have was the society of the Philosophers. She made them comfortable and they made her immortal. During the latter part of her life, her friends pressed her one day to write her memoirs, and, somewhat to their astonishment, she promised to do so. On a given evening all her friends were assembled and she began to read:

"Memoirs of Madame Geoffrin, in six volumes, duodecimo. Preface:

"The truthfulness of my character, the naturalness of my mind, the simplicity and variety of my tastes have rendered me happy in every situation in my life; I take pleasure in recalling its events, and a piquant pleasure in the idea that I am going to reveal myself to myself.

"This work will be for me what are generally, for us women, great projects of needlework or of tapestry: the choice of the design amuses us; the execution occupies us for a short time; we work little, we are soon bored, and we don't end the work."

And there, indeed, the memoirs terminated, nor was there any further question of them. We are, however, very well informed as to Mme. Geoffrin: her name is mentioned in the works of D'Alembert, Morellet, Thomas, Marmontel; her correspondence with the King of Poland, Stanislas August Poniatowski, was published by M. de Moüy; M. de Tornézy published a book on her, under the title, 'Un Bureau d'esprit au 18e siècle.' Goncourt, Sainte-Beuve, and others published valuable articles on the famous bourgeoise. M. Pierre de Ségur has used a precious collection of inedited documents. Mme. Geoffrin's only daughter, the Marchioness de la Ferté-Imbault, had no direct descendant, but among her heirs, in 1791, was Louis d'Étampes, Marquis of Mauny, the nephew of her husband; and she left him all her own papers as well as the papers of Mme. Geoffrin. M. Pierre de Ségur was allowed by the present head of the family to use the rich archives of the Étampes; he gives in an appendix the correspondence of the great Catherine with Mme. Geoffrin, and the letters written to her by Grimm from Saint Petersburg during her last malady. M. de Ségur has used also the letters of Mme. Geoffrin to Hume, which are preserved by the Royal Society of Edinburgh.

Mme. Geoffrin was baptized on June 2, 1699, in Paris. Her father, Pierre Rodet, had been a valet de chambre to the Dauphine, and had afterwards bought a small office depending upon the city of Paris. The mother of Mme. Geoffrin was his second wife; she was called Angélique Thérèse Chemineau. Mme. Rodet died after having given birth to two children, a girl and a boy; Rodet himself died in 1706, and the two orphans were educated by their grandmother, Mme. Chemineau, who seems to have been a person of much sense and activity. They lived near Saint-Roch. Diderot represents the child going to church in the early morning "in a flat cornette, a light *siamoise*, pretty as an angel, and joining, before the altar, the prettiest hands in the world." She was only fourteen when she was married to a man of forty-eight, who had fallen in love with her, M. Geoffrin, a modest, quiet man, who was manager and partner in the glass works of Saint-Gobain. Two years after her marriage, on April 20, 1715, Mme. Geoffrin had a daughter, and two years afterwards a son, who died at the age of ten.

The Geoffrins would probably have remained always very obscure if Mme. Geoffrin had not made the acquaintance of the Marquise de Tencin, who was living in her neighborhood, in the Rue Saint-Honoré. Mme. de Tencin had been first a nun at Grenoble; she left her convent and became one of the mistresses of the Regent. She afterwards had a son whom she abandoned, and who became known under the name of D'Alembert; after a life of great agitation, she had finished by opening a salon. How did this great *intrigante* become a friend of an honest and quiet bourgeoise like Mme. Geoffrin? Mme. de la Ferté-Imbault shall answer: "The Marquise de Tencin knew that my father was honest and rich, that my mother had much esprit, that I was their only daughter; she wished to become acquainted with my mother, so as to marry me to one of her protégés." It must be supposed, also, that the Geoffrins were proud to be admitted to the house of the Marquise. Mme. de Tencin was already old; her habitual guests were Fontenelle, Montesquieu, and other important people. Geoffrin had become very rich, and his wife began to give weekly dinners to her new acquaintances. This revolution was opposed to the simplicity of Geoffrin as well as his love of economy; but Mme. Geoffrin had her will, and her Wednesdays became an institution.

Geoffrin died on December 20, 1749, at the age of eighty-four. A few months after she had become a widow, one of her guests, who had been absent for some time, came to the hôtel in the Rue St.-Honoré. "What has become," he asked of the mistress of the house, "of the old gentleman who always sat at the end of the table, and who never said anything?" "He was my husband," she answered coldly; "he is dead." M. de Ségur repeats this anecdote, which has also been related by Sainte-Beuve, and which has, in fact, become legendary. I cannot help having some doubts about its veracity; but " se non è vero, è ben trovato." Madame de Tencin died soon after Geoffrin, and Madame de Geoffrin became, as it were, her heir, and continued to receive her customary guests; they came over to her salon; among the most noted of them were Mairan, Montesquieu, Fontenelle. She added afterwards to this pleiad Marivaux, Marmontel, D'Alembert.

"By a curious phenomenon," says M. de Ségur, "in this chosen assemblage in the midst of a world still new to her, Madame Geoffrin, this *parvenue* who, by her own confession, has received not even an elementary education, who has no tincture of letters, of arts, who has never learned anything excepting in a fugitive way, who does not even know how to spell, moves with perfect ease, is stranger to no subject, inferior to no tasks, provokes, animates, directs the conversation, checks it if necessary, enforces the proper moderation by a word, a gesture, an almost invisible thread. Nobody, it would seem, possessed in a higher degree the gift, peculiar to women, of assimilating naturally and without effort the things of the mind, in the measure in which they can be of use. 'I compare myself,' she said one day to Fontenelle, 'to a round little tree, which has branches on every side. I know a little of everything.'"

Voltaire showed himself several times in the salon of the Rue St.-Honoré, but he never became intimate with Mme. Geoffrin; they soon became hostile. When Voltaire had in his own house representations of "Rome Vaincue," she wrote to a friend, "Voltaire imitates the pastry-cook who eats the cakes which he cannot sell." He often made pleasantries in his letters on "the new Queen of Sheba."

Montesquieu, who was one of the oldest friends of Mme. Geoffrin, and who had learned to appreciate her at Mme. de Tencin's, was offended by a letter which she wrote to him after he had sent her his 'Esprit des Lois.' He imagined that she had written her letter without having taken the pains to read his work. Montesquieu wrote to Mme. de la Ferté-Imbault, who candidly confessed that her mother had made her read to her a few extracts only of the book, during about half an hour. She added that this method, "if it did not do honor to her mother's knowledge, did much honor to her natural esprit." Montesquieu, who was susceptible, and belonged to the "genus irritabile vatum," never forgot this incident.

The man who took and always held the most important place in the salon of Madame Geoffrin was Fontenelle. When she made his acquaintance, he was already seventy-five years old; he was a remnant of the past. He had seen Louis XIV. at the height of his power, having been born in 1657; he died at the age of one hundred, and age never seemed to affect his intellectual powers. "He knows only the mind," Madame Geoffrin said of him. He had an impeccable reason and all the qualities which are compatible with a perfect egotism. "Have you any esteem for me?" Madame Geoffrin one day asked him. "I find you very amiable." "But if somebody told you that I had killed one of my friends, would you believe it?" "I should wait," was the answer. He had the impassibility of a Talleyrand, with none of his vices. Somebody asked him one day: "Monsieur de Fontenelle, did you ever laugh?" "No, I never made ah! ah!" In her 'Nouveaux Mélanges' Madame Necker said of him that "he resembled a delicate machine, which would last for ever, if you put it in a corner, never polished it, or hurt it." Fontenelle's corners were the Academy of Sciences, of which he was Perpetual Secre-

tary, and the salon of Madame Geoffrin. He was a man of great knowledge. His 'Eloges,' his 'Entretiens sur la Pluralité des Mondes' can still be read with much pleasure and to great profit. He had a sort of quiet humor, which gave much piquancy to his air of perfect indifference. Madame Geoffrin once questioned him about his parents. "My father," said he, "was a fool; but my mother had wit. She was *quiétiste;* she was a sweet little woman, who often said to me, 'My son, you will be damned.' But it gave her no pain."

The Wednesdays of Madame Geoffrin soon became insufficient, and she had to take another day—Monday. She drew into her circle all foreigners of any eminence, and her house became cosmopolitan. She also introduced the fashion of asking artists, painters, musicians, sculptors, who had hitherto not mixed much with society people, and her house became in this way at the same time more aristocratic and more popular.

THE SCHOOLS OF ARCHÆOLOGY AT ATHENS.—II.

THE GERMAN ARCHÆOLOGICAL INSTITUTE AT ATHENS.*

Any account of the German Archæological Institute at Athens must be prefaced by a short history of the Institute at Rome and the *Centraldirektion* at Berlin—in other words, of the Institute as a whole; for only then can the motive, the functions, the aims, and the aspirations of so noble and useful a school be made abundantly plain to the American reader; only then can one fully understand what a power it is in all that concerns the advancement of the science of archæology.

The name *Institute* is calculated to mislead and confuse many who are not familiar with archæological matters, for the reason that it is officially applied not only to the directing head in Berlin, the Imperial German Archæological Institute, but also to its two fair children, the Archæological Institutes that are located, the one at Rome and the other at Athens. This confusion would have been avoided if the institutions in Rome and Athens had been called schools. As a matter of fact, in unofficial speech they are often, if not usually, called schools, not only by outsiders, but by those officially connected with them as well, and in like manner the term *Centraldirektion* is applied to the Institute in Berlin.

As I have shown already, the French led the way at Athens fifty years ago, and the grand success of France's School no doubt had much to do with the foundation of the German Institute at Athens just twenty-three years ago; but still too much stress must not be laid upon this thought, for, as a matter of fact, Germany, with her Winckelmann in sculpture, her Eckhel in numismatics, her Zoega, Welcker, Müller, Creuzer, Thiersch, Böttiger, Hirt, was clearly the pioneer not only in founding the science of archæology, but also in the establishment of an Archæological Institute, as will appear immediately. In the course of his scientific travels in Italy in the twenties, the gifted Eduard Gerhard, the semi-blind scholar and enthusiast for everything that appertained to classical antiquity, had been distressed to find that the monuments not only were widely scattered, but were also neglected, abused, and threatened with defacement, if not with actual ruin. It was then that his fertile brain conceived the idea of creating in Rome an Institute of Archæology, whose chief business it should be to study, draw, publish, and in so far preserve, at least to science, the monuments that were so precious for a knowledge of antiquity. Gerhard, with the intelligent and enthusiastic help of Panofka and the Duc de Luynes, developed and perfected the plan or constitution of the contemplated Institute, which was to be placed under the patronage of the Crown Prince of Prussia, Friedrich Wilhelm, who by good chance happened to be travelling in Italy in 1828. The distinguished Bunsen, by reason of his diplomatic position in Rome, and his scholarly enthusiasm, advanced the project materially; Fea and Borghesi gave their sympathy and active help, so that the birth of the Institute was watched over by men whose names sounded well in the earlier decades of this century—men, too, whose names are not forgotten by the generation of to-day. Besides these, a host of scholars from Germany, France, and Italy, along with a few from England, Denmark, and Greece, joined with the projectors in founding the Institute of Archæological Correspondence at Rome on April 21, 1829. The name given to the institution was justified by the fact that it was to be sustained and kept alive by an extensive correspondence on archæological matters, not only from Italy, but from scholars the world over who had anything of interest to communicate. It was therefore an international institution, conceived, indeed, by Germans, but at the start in no way connected with the Prussian or any other state; on the contrary, being wholly a private undertaking, it was dependent for its revenues upon the proceeds of its publications, though more especially upon the generosity of liberal-minded individuals, such as the Duc de Luynes in France. In the earlier years even Gerhard and Panofka often had to put their hands into their own pockets in order to preserve the Institute from a premature death.

In an institution so constituted, friction was to be expected; the Germans, French, and Italians were jealous each of the influence of the others; each nationality claimed precedence and sought to play the leading rôle. Not only that, but about the middle of the thirties a heated war was waged for the absolute possession and control of the Institute; the Germans wanted it removed to Berlin, the Frenchmen to Paris, but in 1836 Bunsen carried the day, and the Institute remained in Rome, fortunately for the larger interests of archæology. A compromise was made between the warring factions by which, thanks to the Duc de Luynes, the French element was allowed considerable independence of action. The quiet thus restored, with Braun as First Secretary (1838-1856), continued unbroken until 1848, the year of revolution, which marked the absolute withdrawal of the French from the struggling Institute in Rome. The reasons for this withdrawal were threefold: the political troubles which beclouded the atmosphere everywhere in Europe made Frenchmen more than usually languid in regard to matters of purely scientific interest; then the French School, which had been founded at Athens only two years before, had already begun to divert the French contingent to Athens; and lastly, owing to the continual bickerings between the national factions, the Duc de Luynes lost faith in the permanence of the institution and withdrew his effective support. This step left the Institute in the hands of the Germans and the Italians. But, in spite of adverse circumstances, much good had been accomplished during the first two decades of its existence, as may be inferred from the list of eminent scholars who had been in control of the fortunes of the institute: Bunsen, Gerhard, Panofka, Kellermann, Braun, Lepsius, Abeken, Henzen. In spite of the evident nationality of these men, the German language was forbidden in the meetings and in the publications of the Institute. At that time German was still the barbarous language of the North, whose use would have made the coöperation of other nationalities impossible. The papers intended for the publications were written in Italian, French, or Latin, while the language of the weekly meetings was chiefly Italian, though French and Latin might be used. The publications just referred to were three annual volumes: The *Bullettino* appeared monthly, and dealt especially with archæological news; the *Monumenti Inediti*, a folio volume, contained plates of important unpublished monuments; the *Annali* contained longer papers and discussions of the large plates printed in the *Monumenti*.

Financial troubles were always present, and when Braun died in 1856, these troubles threatened to wreck the Institute; but its life was secured by the devotion of Henzen, who remained bravely at the helm, until the addition of Brunn, as Second Secretary, started the Institute upon a new, and, as the event proved, more successful career. Friedrich Wilhelm had been the protector of the Institute from its inception, and had paid the meagre salaries of the secretaries from his privy purse; but Prussia had steadily refused to subsidize the Institute because it was a private undertaking. However, upon the Prince's accession to the throne, a small annual sum was granted to the Institute from the public revenues of Prussia, though as yet it was not recognized as a state institution.

The powerful and inspiring influence of the Institute had already begun to be felt in the universities of Germany, in all of which, thanks chiefly to the Institute, chairs of archæology had been established. In consequence of this fact, Wilhelm, the Prince Regent of Prusia, felt justified in increasing the annual grant to about $4,500 in addition to the petty salaries of the secretaries. At the same time two travelling scholarships, founded by private individuals, were thrown open to all German students, provided they had graduated in a Prussian university. And so, after thirty years of trial, the Institute ceased to be a private undertaking and became an institution of the Prussian State. The Centraldirektion in Berlin became directly responsible to the State, and the connection between the Centraldirektion and the Institute in Rome became closer. And yet it was not until 1867 that the Prussian State, at the instance both of the Centraldirektion and of the secretaries in Rome, began to think of assuming absolute control of the Institute. The reasons for this step are not

* In the preparation of this paper I have been aided most materially by the various writings of Michaelis: his 'Geschichte des Deutschen Archaeologischen Instituts'; his "Das Deutsche Archaeologische Institut" in *Im neuen Reich*, 1879; his "Das Deutsche Arch. Institut in Athen und die Ausgrabungen in Olympia," also in *Im neuen Reich*; his "Aufgaben und Ziele des K. Deutschen Arch. Instituts" in Vol. 63 of the *Preussische Jahrbücher*. The last article has been published in English in the *Journal of Hellenic Studies*, 1889, p. 190 ff.

far to seek: The Centraldirektion wanted state protection of property situated in a foreign country, and the secretaries, by becoming state functionaries, assured to themselves the comforting boon of a pension in their old age. It is interesting to know that this reorganization was finally effected amid the frenzied enthusiasm prevailing at the birth of the new German Empire, and that one of the first acts of Wilhelm as German Emperor was to sign the decree creating the *Prussian* Archæological Institute in Rome. The signing was done at Versailles on March 2, 1871.

This arrangement did not last long; events now began to march rapidly, for in 1874 the German Reichstag relieved Prussia of all concern in the matter of the Institute, made it national German, and the Imperial German Archæological Institute in Rome was an accomplished fact. At this time, too, the Institute was strengthened in other important ways—by the addition to the Centraldirektion of four archæologists in universities other than those of Prussia, by the creation of five travelling scholarships, each of $750 a year, and by increasing the annual grant to the imposing sum of $25,000 annually. But the year 1874 was otherwise memorable in the history of the science of archæology. As we have seen, that year chronicled the final reorganization of the French School at Athens; it also chronicled the inception of the epoch-making excavations at Olympia by the young and ambitious German Empire, thanks to the initiative of Ernst Curtius, and it chronicled the creation of the German Archæological Institute in Athens, thanks again to the initiative of Ernst Curtius. The German Institute, as a whole, became at once the centre of all archæological investigations. Like Athene herself, the Athenian Institute sprang into existence full armed and ready for the fray. Taught by the accumulated experience of half a century in Rome, as well as by the history of the French School at Athens, the Germans could set to work at Athens at once with the consciousness of strength, with well-defined aims, and without having to pass through the usual stage of transition or evolution from a condition more or less chaotic. In the earlier years of its existence the French School at Athens was exclusive, as was also the Greek Archæological Society, but the Germans, in founding the new Institute in Athens, desired that it should be a centre not merely for German, but for international archæological endeavor in Greece. Not that they had in mind to repeat in Athens their memorable experiences in Rome—the cases were different. Being unquestioned masters in their own house in Athens, they could afford to throw open its doors to all the world. The same liberality prevailed at the excavations of Olympia, for all of which the world has to thank the broad-minded Ernst Curtius. Thus by precept and example the German Institute has opened all doors in Athens, and has brought about an era of good-fellowship and of brotherly love in the bonds of archæology that does the soul good, so that, thanks firstly and chiefly to the German Institute, the life of the scholar visiting in Athens is one continued round of supremely blissful, because archæological, enjoyment.

The chief object of the German Institute is to study and publish the precious remains of art of all kinds, to investigate classical sites in the light of everything that appertains to their topography, their epigraphy, their history, and their existing monuments. Besides these functions the Institute organizes and conducts journeys with scientific objects in view, sends out expeditions of exploration throughout Grecian lands, makes excavations of important sites, and collects and publishes information in regard to all these matters. This does not exhaust its functions, for it must assist not only its *Stipendiaten*, or fellows, but all who travel in Greece for the sake of science, by its advice, its help, and the use of a rich library; it must institute regular meetings for the reading of papers on archæological topics of the day, and see to it that all natives and foreigners interested in the science of archæology are invited to attend.

When the German Institute at Athens was opened, the smoke of the Franco-German war had scarcely cleared away and French sympathizers were numerous in Athens. It was, therefore, a matter of great importance to secure as the head of the new Institute a man who in every way was able to cope with the difficulties of the situation and to unite all men in the furtherance of the interests of the Institute. Now, it is not generally known that, for many years prior to 1870, a trained archæologist had been attached to the Prussian Legation at Athens in the character of secretary. This attaché became a diplomatist, but he also gained familiarity with the people, with all matters of archæological interest in Athens and Greece, and with the ways and means of archæological research in the field and in the library. Now a young professor at the new University of Strassburg had previously been attached to the Prussian Legation at Athens for many years as archæological secretary. His name was Ulrich Koehler, and it was he who was chosen to be the first Director, or Secretary, of the Athenian Institute. He was a man of distinguished presence and tactful bearing, a polished gentleman, though for a German somewhat cold. A past master in epigraphy, in history, and in antiquities, he was, as it were, made for the place, the very man to give prestige and repute to the new Institute. With him, as Librarian, was associated Lolling, who knew Greece better than any other living man, and whose gentle, kindly nature was well calculated to make friends for the Institute.

The archæologists of the olden time were handicapped by the scrappy nature of the material with which they had to work. The publications of fifty years ago, despite their magnificence, presented mere fancy selections from a variety of well-known monuments of art with accompanying fancy letter-press sketches, or else they treated of the contents of isolated museums containing collections made by rich men, who were guided in their purchases solely by accident or the idiosyncrasies of individual taste, but not at all by sound scientific method. Among the earlier archæologists only Visconti, Zoega, and Welcker had so great a command of the whole field as to be able to write works that continue to command respect to-day, when men know that nothing but a thorough classification of all accessible monuments of art, entailing, of course, exhaustive treatises on each special branch of art, can lead to trustworthy scientific results, and so satisfy the universal craving for accurate knowledge. Gerhard, whose motto was, "He who has seen one monument of art, has seen none; he who has seen one thousand, has seen one," had early led the way with his 'Etruscan Mirrors,' and with his praiseworthy start in the field of vase-painting. He was followed along this line by Lenormant and De Witte in their 'Élite Céramographique,' though neither publication exhausted the marvellous stores, stores that have since then grown to colossal, even mythical, proportions. Clarac, too, was already on the ground with his 'Musée de Sculpture.' The giants of those days may have dreamed dreams of the future of archæology, but what joy would have been theirs had they lived to see the tremendous undertakings of the German Institute, undertakings that have been the direct results of their far-sighted teachings! What a mighty task was the 'Corpus Inscriptionum Latinarum' undertaken by Mommsen and Henzen, assisted by other scholars; how much was meant by that other Herculean labor, the 'Corpus Inscriptionum Atticarum,' by Kirchhoff, Koehler, and Dittenberger, both tasks having been undertaken by the Academy with the support of the Institute! Among other monumental works of the kind must be mentioned the 'Rilievi delle Urne Etrusche,' by Brunn, continued by Körte, who also continued Gerhard's 'Etruskische Spiegel.'

These and other vast publications which we cannot particularize here, do infinite honor to the Institute, but they do not seem to represent a methodical series of publications, because they owe their origin in the main to the initiative of individuals whose works the Institute was glad to publish, seeing that each of them formed links in the grand chain of publications contemplated by the Centraldirektion in Berlin. But, as time goes on, the method will appear, for the Institute proposes to present to the world exhaustive classified publications on statues, on pictures, on gems, on vase-paintings, on bronzes—in fact, on every conceivable class and category of ancient monuments. The preparation of each of these works requires toil on the part of a large number of men for years at a stretch, and in all this work the Institute at Athens bears its full share.

The Institute at Athens took rank at once with its elder sister at Rome, not merely because of the prominence of the men connected with it, but also because of the work which it began to do in furtherance of the plans of the Centraldirektion. Its individual periodical, the *Mittheilungen*, corresponded in the main with the *Annali* of the Roman Institute. Meantime the organ of the Centraldirektion in Berlin continued to be the *Archæologische Zeitung*, so that archæological periodicals were being published at three different centres, Berlin, Rome, and Athens, and all were official organs of the Institute as a whole, though each had its own individual task and was independent each of the other. Of course the sphere of action of the Athenian Institute is determined by its geographical position. In other words, it must ever be the headquarters for all explorations that are carried on in the Greece of antiquity, and in this sphere it exerts all its influence to the furtherance of the great tasks undertaken by the Centraldirektion. Both the secretaries and all the students, not merely the Fellows, but a well-equipped body of young men who spend their own money, work along the lines that will most effec-

tively promote the vast undertakings of the Institute, for the idealistic tone of mind which makes men pursue science for the love of it is not yet dead in the world.

Chiefly owing to the ever expanding purposes of the Institute as a whole, the old series of publications had to be abandoned, or rather merged into a new series. Other influences also combined to make such a change imperative: the Italians had begun to publish accounts of their excavations and discoveries in their *Notizie delle Scavi*, thus depriving the *Bulletino* of a great part of its material; then whereas, in former days, Rome was the centre of the art of engraving, the new processes of reproducing art monuments have robbed it of its sometime prominence, so that the removal of the folio publication from Rome to Berlin became a matter of necessity; lastly, when the *Monumenti* were published in Rome, too much importance and space were given to the reproduction of Italian monuments, to the great detriment of the monuments of the more important, because purer and more original, Greek art. Consequently a fundamental change in the publications of the Institute was made in 1886. The *Annali* and the *Archaeologische Zeitung* passed over into the *Archaeologisches Jahrbuch;* the *Monumenti* became the *Antike Bildwerke*, both being published in Berlin instead of in Rome. The *Bulletino* was merged into a new periodical which, in imitation of the *Athenische Mittheilungen*, was called the *Römische Mittheilungen*, although the memory of the old *Bulletino* has been preserved in the secondary title. In the Roman periodical both the Italian and the German languages are equally favored. The secretaries in Rome and Athens are wholly independent, both in regard to the editing of their periodicals and in regard to the sphere of their activity. The First Secretary in Athens gives lectures, represents the Institute, and conducts the finances. The lectures of Dörpfeld, the present First Secretary, on the topography of Athens, and his annual journeys to the Peloponnesus, the Islands, and Troy, are features of the archæological year, both because he speaks as a man having authority, and because they are truly international in character. The Second Secretary gives lectures, chiefly on art in the museums, edits the *Mittheilungen*, and has the oversight of the library.

The creation of the Institute at Athens was not accompanied by an increase in the number of stipendia or fellowships. The greatest freedom of action is given to the five Fellows: they may spend all or part of their time at Rome or Athens, or they may spend it in scientific journeys to any part of the world, say, to London or Egypt. If they are present in Rome or Athens, the only demand made upon them is that they take an active part in the fortnightly open meetings of the Institute. However, they are expected to pursue some special, self-chosen line of work, and if they have leisure moments they are required to assist the secretaries in observing new facts, and to seize every opportunity to help along the great undertaking of the Centraldirektion. It were well for men in our own School to take to heart and act upon the instructions given to the Fellows. The Fellow must spend the *entire* year on his *Studienreise*, and at its close he must send to the Centraldirektion an account of how it has been spent. The candidate for a fellowship must have passed either the Doctor's or the Staatsexamen, or both, and a period of three years must elapse between such examination and his proposed entrance upon the enjoyment of a fellowship. The Fellows live in the Institute building, in case non-Fellows (usually ten in number) are not already in possession of the five rooms. The Fellows are not required to take part in excavations, though occasionally they do.

Despite the youth of the German Institute, it can point to a galaxy of distinguished scholars who have been Fellows in Athens, such as Furtwängler, Purgold, Puchstein, Milchhöfer, Weil, Fabricius, Julius, Robert, Schreiber, Dressel, Von Duhn, Körte, Knapp, Von Rhoden, Löschke, Dessau, Schmidt, Wolters, Keck, Schäfer, Hülsen, Schwartz. The Institute is a power on earth for good, and still it is but entering upon its career.

J. R. S. Sterrett.

Correspondence.

A FLAGRANT INSTANCE.

To the Editor of The Nation.

Sir: Mr. Gerhard Gade, after having served as United States Consul at Christiania, Norway, for twenty-nine years, has had a successor appointed by President McKinley. Four years ago our Consulate at Christiania was threatened by a similar catastrophe, but the urgent and strenuous remonstrance that poured in from all sides proved effective enough to influence Mr. Josiah Quincy to send the new Consul to Gothenburg, instead of to Christiania. Consul Gade was appointed by his friend Gen. Grant, and, next to our Consul at Gibraltar, is the oldest in the service. Our present Government could not make a greater mistake, or an error more calumnious to Americans and American interests, than to appoint a successor to Consul Gade. Leaving out entirely all question of gratitude, recognition of long and faithful service—even of decency—there are many reasons why Mr. Gade is preëminently the man for his place. He belongs to one of the best of Norway's families, and lives on one of the few great estates left in the kingdom, where he offers lavish hospitality to every American. His late brother, Chamberlain Herman Gade, was one of King Oscar's dearest friends. Thus Consul Gade is, in an uncommon manner, able to represent, publicly and privately, America. Furthermore, he is a man who entertains and protects not only because of a sense of duty; with an old-school courtesy, a certain Sir Roger de Coverley quality about him, it has become second nature to him, a necessity. We have not many such representatives abroad, and those we have we can ill afford to lose. We truly must blush at the thought of a man of twenty-nine years of exemplary service, at the height of his vigor, being replaced by the "father-in-law of a Western campaigner."

In the recognition of merit we might, perhaps, be taught a lesson by Norway, whose King, in the twenty-fifth year of Consul Gade's consulship, thought that his services in American-Norwegian interests had been great enough to deserve the Cross of St. Olaf. His many years of office have been one long, continuous account of important services, of kindly interest in all travellers, and unflagging fulfilment of his duties. Many will hear with burning indignation the indignity done America in the appointment of a new Consul to Christiania, and hope that also this time the President will see his mistake before Consul Gade has been replaced.

C. B.

July 12, 1897.

THE TOBACCO PLANTER'S ESTATE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Coming again, in the article on Washington's wife, in this week's *Nation*, to the usual statement concerning the impecuniosity of colonial Virginia tobacco planters, it occurred to me that I had a rather curious sequence of exceptions to this rule, if it be a rule, among my papers, and I herewith send either quotations or paraphrases of quotations from four wills made in succession by father, son, grandson, and great-grandson, which may interest your readers, both as bearing on the cash on hand in plantation life, and showing the method of portioning daughters in colonial times.

The first will, dated 1710, was made by a man born in the colony about sixty years before. His father's will probably was burned in the court-house of his county some years before the war, and I have no copy:

"Item, I give & bequeath unto my six daughters all moneys due to me in England, Virginia or elsewhere to be Equally divided among them deducting out of Each part what shall appear to be paid to Each of them by my book Ledger No. (4). Item, it is my will & I do order & appoint that in Case my mony will not amount to Seven hundred pounds to Each & Every of my daughters before named with what is all ready paid them that then & in such Case all crops of Tob° growing on the ground or in the houses at my death be sent to England in order to raise the aforesaid Sums of Seven hundred pounds to Each of my aforsd daughters. But in Case there Should be monys Enough to Comply with all debts & Legacys Exprest in this will that then & in Such Case the produce of the sd Tob° to goe to my three sons."

The three sons under the will took all the real estate. A codicil adds to the above £50 each to the youngest two daughters, and there were other small legacies aggregating a considerable sum.

In 1721 the eldest son of the maker of the last will, having three sons and one daughter, divided his estate between the sons, giving the daughter £1,000, and dealing further on with his cash in hand in a way to show the amount to be considerably above £3,000.

The third will, dated 1756, divides the landed estate between two sons, subject to the sale of specified tracts sufficient to provide £500 for each of six daughters, provided that at the time of marriage or coming of age of the eldest daughter the accumulated cash on hand be not sufficient to pay the £500 to each of the said daughters. As the chief of the tracts directed to be sold has always been and is now owned by his descendants, there is reason to suppose the cash was forthcoming.

In the fourth will in succession, dated 1814, for the first time daughters participated in the division of the real estate. There were seven sons and three daughters. The eldest five sons and the children of a deceased daughter had been portioned before the will was made. The two infant daughters received about one-half each of a son's por-

tion, which appeared, roughly speaking, to be eight hundred acres of land and thirty slaves to each one. After the portioning of all the children, the will directs the equal division among them of the residuary estate, real and personal, but charges the said residuary estate with the payment of £400 per annum, one-half in May and one-half in November, to "my beloved wife" during her lifetime. It is worth mentioning that the executors of the last will gave bond in the sum of $200,000.

If I were disposed to attach much greater value than I do to the above proof that rich planters were not unknown, I could not forget the existence of the other sort also, as long as I remember the pessimistic view taken by one good old relative of Gen. Washington, the strong lines of whose face used to get curiously tangled with the claws and horns of the lion and the unicorn on the mortuary tablet of Thomas Lord Fairfax over his head to my closing eyes as the preacher in his black gown droned away, from his high pulpit, and sleep overcame me on a hot Sunday in years gone by. Mr. Washington once said to another gentleman, where I heard it: "Yes, sir, I am a farmer; I raise corn, sir; and my hogs eat the corn, and my negroes eat the hogs, and I get what they leave." B.

MARYLAND, July 17, 1897.

Notes.

John Lane will shortly issue from the Bodley Head Col. John Hay's speech at the unveiling of Scott's bust in Westminster Abbey; 'The Stepmother,' from the modern Greek of Gregory Xenopoulos by Mrs. Edmonds; a parody, 'The Quest of the Gilt-Edged Girl,' by Richard De Lyrienne.

The Macmillan Co. announces 'The Household of the Lafayettes,' by Edith Sichel, and a 'Handbook of Metallurgy,' by Dr. C. Schnabel.

Prosper Mérimée's 'Letters to an Unknown,' translated by Henri Pène Du Bois, will be published immediately by Brentano's.

The celebration of Queen Victoria's Jubilee has tended to retard the publishing of books. Among these is the next volume of Mr. Rawson Gardiner's 'History of the Commonwealth,' and the same historian's answer to Father Gerard's brochure upon the Gunpowder Plot.

The increasing number of visitors to the West Indies from the United States, more especially in the winter time, will be glad to know that Sampson Low & Co. are about to bring out a new edition of 'The West Indies,' the very interesting hand-book, of which the author is Mr. Washington Eves, C. M. G. The new issue will have an entirely fresh set of illustrations, taken from photographs. Mr. Eves is a wealthy London merchant, who owns property in Jamaica, and dispenses a most generous hospitality to West Indians in general, when these visit England.

T. Fisher Unwin, London, has in hand a series of volumes under the general title of "Builders of Greater Britain." The editor is Mr. H. F. Wilson, M.A., barrister-at-law, and late fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge, who has, until recently, been private secretary to Mr. Chamberlain. Mr. Wilson, who has just been appointed legal adviser to the Colonial Office, designs that each biography shall give an adequate picture of the builder in relation to his work. The "Builders" will include those whose sphere of activity has been, in the main, administrative, as well as those who have fought and explored by sea and land. Mr. Wilson rightly believes that American readers will not resent the introduction of the names of William Penn and Lord Baltimore, the founders of Pennsylvania and Maryland. Each volume will contain the best portrait obtainable of its subject, and a map showing his special contribution to the imperial edifice. The following is a list of the first eight volumes, with the authors' names, that have been arranged for: Sir Walter Raleigh, by Martin A. S. Hume; Sir Thomas Maitland, by Walter Frewen Lord; John Cabot and His Sons, by C. Raymond Beazley; Lord Clive, by Sir A. J. Arbuthnot; Edward Gibbon Wakefield, by R. Garnett; Rajah Brooke, by Sir Spenser St. John; Admiral Philip, by Louis Becke and Walter Jeffery; Sir Stamford Raffles, by the editor.

It is now fourteen years since we noticed the first edition of the Messrs. Putnam's 'Authors and Publishers: A Manual of Suggestions for Beginners in Literature,' and said of it that it "ought to be in the hands of every one who purposes to make authorship either a vocation or an avocation." The public verdict has agreed with our own, and the author-publishers now put forth a very elegant seventh edition, considerably rewritten, but consisting in the main of the same subdivisions touching the relations of author and publisher, the method of securing copyright (with the text of the law), and the art of making books, from the preparation of the manuscript to the binding and illustrations. Mr. George Haven Putnam, whose share in this work is the larger, proposes a sort of court for the settlement of disputes between writer and publisher, which he hopes in time might give rise to a body of decisions that would satisfactorily fix the custom for both parties. There seems to us nothing chimerical about this, and it would at once test the reality of the proverbial grievances against publishers.

In connection with the foregoing we may mention a diverting lecture, "Autori e Editori," delivered before the Circolo Filologico of Florence by its President, Piero Barbèra, on March 29, 1897 (Florence: S. Landi). In Italy, it seems, the distinction between printers and publishers is not well understood by authors, who are as little aware of the fortunes of publishers' ventures. A publisher must be content, says Barbèra, speaking from experience, if five out of ten succeed badly or moderately, three or four well, and one extremely well, recouping the losses on the others. In Italy, too, domestic piracy flourishes in the book trade. The lecturer touched upon the evils of advance payments to authors; the choice between a lump sum and a royalty; the practice of taking a work in hand before it is finished and revised by the author; the "incorrigible correctors," like Alfieri and Foscolo and Balzac; the tricks of authors in selling the same work to different publishers, still known, as in the days of 'Le Diable Boiteux'; the want of intelligence in booksellers; the want of criticism in the reviews (as in Sarcey's in the *Revue Illustrée*); the compulsion of publishers to avoid certain lines (as the house of Barbèra novels), etc. The conclusion is that the good author makes the good publisher, as the good wife the good husband.

That "year-book of philanthropy," 'Burdett's Hospitals and Charities, 1897' (London: The Scientific Press; New York: Scribners), presents afresh in its eighth issue the rare spectacle of a combination of active discussion and criticism with scrupulously gathered statistics (these last being for the year ending December 31, 1895). The Queen's Jubilee and the charitable movement proceeding from it furnish the opening section of the new matter; and we remark as of interest coextensive with this survey of English, colonial, and American organized benevolence, chapter iii., descriptive and critical of hospital construction in 1896, and chapter xv., giving figures to show the working-class contributions to hospitals, etc.

Kürschner's 'Deutscher Litteratur-Kalender' for 1897 appears in its long-established form, preserving the plan of previous years, and being only a little larger than in 1896 (New York: Lemcke & Buechner). Two portraits serve as frontispieces: the first, of Dr. Max Ring, in honor of his eightieth birthday, the second of Detlev von Liliencron of Altona. The book is a mine of information about living authors, and is of the greatest value to all who desire to keep informed in regard to contemporary literary productions in German.

The Macmillan Co. publish 'Elementary Drawing,' a series of practical papers for beginners, written and illustrated by Elisabeth Moore Hallowell. The little book is not without merit, and the general system pursued is the right one, but it may be doubted if many of the matters treated of are not beyond the comprehension of such "beginners" as the work is intended for, even if they have thoroughly studied the earlier chapters. The attempt to teach "drawing without a master" is a doubtful one at best. There is at least one serious misstatement. Figure 2 on p. 17 is not necessarily false perspective at all, and is indeed exactly such perspective as is given as correct on pp. 10, 11, 12, and 14. It is the true drawing of an object on one side of a picture in parallel perspective, and can be considered false only if the single object is taken as the whole subject of the picture, in which case figure 3 becomes the proper perspective. The author's positive statement that such perspective is "manifestly impossible" must greatly shock and puzzle the poor student who has just been painfully learning that it is not only possible but obligatory.

For an illustration of the specialization of modern law, one may well turn to Mr. Gustavus Hay, jr.'s, four-hundred-page work on 'The Law of Railway Accidents in Massachusetts' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), which treats of the law of negligence as established in that State. Mr. Hay's system of digesting cases under each head of which he treats has been done before, but never better done for brevity and point. His most interesting chapter is on "reasonable conduct," in the course of which he urges with much justification that while a jury is perfectly competent to judge of "reasonable conduct" in cases of track-walking, or leaning from car windows, others quite different from ordinary questions of fact often arise, in which the norm of conduct cannot be cited, because none exists. In such cases, he says, the jury do not find facts, but legislate a new rule of conduct, often to the

railroad company's loss, and perhaps unjustly. For fairness' sake, he urges, the jury should contain at least one railroad man to present the railroad views, just as every peer was once entitled to the presence of one knight upon the jury to judge his matters. As Mr. Hay says, a military man has little patience with a tribunal of civilians, and a sailor, with a court of landsmen; but, interesting as his contention is, it will, we think, be more practicable and more salutary to keep the juries intelligent and honest.

One takes up 'Ruskin et la Religion de la Beauté,' by Robert de la Sizeranne (Paris: Hachette), with anticipations of amusement which are destined to disappointment. A French view of Ruskin should be interesting, but M. de la Sizeranne hardly gives it to us. He abstains from criticism and makes a loyal effort to explain what Ruskin is and what he says, leaving all comment to the reader, and betraying his own dissent only in the caution that it is not the truth, but the opinion of Ruskin, that he is endeavoring to state. To extract a consistent body of doctrine from the multifarious writings of that rhapsodist and poet who mistook himself for a critic, is perhaps beyond the wit of man, but M. de la Sizeranne has produced a picture with many hints of likeness. For the reader of English who has access to Ruskin himself and his more or less authorized interpreters, the present volume is superfluous; but it may well serve a purpose in France.

Admirers of Goethe will be glad to learn of Paul Heyse's poem 'Das Goethe-Haus in Weimar,' in which he gives expression to the reveries that come to his mind on a visit to the house so long occupied by the poet. He recalls the family group with the wife and children, revives the visits of Karl August, Schiller, Herder, Wieland, and numerous other personages who were frequent guests at the poet's home, goes through the various rooms, delighted with their simple yet wisely chosen furnishings, and enjoys the beauty and harmony of the whole place. The pretty booklet of twenty-four pages is illustrated with twenty-one portraits and views of rooms, the garden, works of art, and other articles contained in the house.

Gaedertz's 'Emanuel Geibel,' which has just been published as a memorial to William I., is an enlargement of the author's 'Geibel's Denkwürdigkeiten' of ten years ago. The new material comes largely from letters and poems put at the author's disposal after the death of Frederick William, from the collection of the Hohenzollern family, several members of which, especially the Emperor and Empress William I. and Emperor and Empress Frederick, were great admirers of Geibel. This fact, and the dedication of the book to the great Emperor, indicate tendencies that prevent it from being an impartial biography of the poet. The reader is constantly aware of the homage paid the imperial family, and this interferes with his getting a comprehensive view of the poet and his work in general. The author claims to have brought together the most important materials about the poet and to have produced a "Quellenbuch." Frequent quotations are made from correspondence, and many previously unpublished poems are presented with a statement of the circumstances that called them forth. Two good portraits, one in Geibel's early manhood and one for the year 1870, and several autographs adorn the book.

The indefatigable Professor Paul Fredericq has illustrated the religious history of the Netherlands with an exhaustive essay on the Dancing Mania which formed so strange an episode in the spiritual eccentricities of the fourteenth century. It is issued as an extract from the Transactions of the Royal Academy of Belgium with a very curious facsimile of a procession of Flagellants, from a contemporary MS. of the Chronicle of Gilles Li Muisis. Under his auspices, moreover, is issued a volume containing two essays on the sixteenth-century persecution of heresy—one by the late Jan-Joris Mulder, one of his most promising pupils, on the Inquisition in Antwerp from 1550 to 1566, the other on the Inquisition in Luxemburg by Dr. Julius Frederichs, whose previous labors in this department of history have made his name well known to all students of the subject.

The current number of the *Cosmopolitan* contains an interesting version of Omar's 'Rubáiyát,' in selected verses, by Richard Le Gallienne. The best stanza is perhaps the following:

"So since with all my passion and my skill
The world's mysterious meaning mocks me still,
Shall I not piously believe that I
Am kept in darkness by the heavenly will?"

The melody of this stanza is in marked contrast to the halting monosyllabic verses:

"Oh, come, my love, the spring is in the land!
Take wine and bread and book of verse in hand,
And sit with me and sing in the green shade."

The continuation of Le Gallienne's rendering will appear in the next number of the magazine.

A large part of the fifth number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* is taken up with the Siberian railway and the related enterprises. Gen. Krahmer, in describing the results of the surveys (especially in eastern Siberia) made during 1895, evidently regards the upper Amur region as of little value for colonization. The winters are five and a half months long and the summers are very wet. Rain falls at times for a week without stopping, and in June and September fogs prevail. A cattle plague has also been disastrous, and the principal industry, gold-mining, has declined. Surveys for the line through Mantchuria, a thousand miles in length, are being vigorously pushed by Russian engineers under Government supervision, though it is nominally to be built by a private company. When the location is finally determined, a large force of laborers, who have just completed the Ussuri section of the Siberian railway, will be immediately set to work at either end. Chinese railways, which will connect with this line, are projected to Pekin and thence to Hankow, to Fusan in Korea, and to Port Arthur. Among the subsidiary works were explorations of the navigable parts of the rivers Yenisei and Obi, which are described by the commander of one of the expeditions. The solitude of these regions is strikingly shown by the fact that the party sailed up the Obi for seven hundred miles without seeing a human creature. On reaching the first habitations, the author says that "great as was the joy on the ships to see at length a shore on which men lived, just so great was the terror of the Ostiaks at the sight of the ships."

The annual report of the Berkshire Athenæum, Pittsfield, Mass., chronicles the completion of an important addition to the library building, giving it now a capacity of about 100,000 volumes, the number at present being 29,000. In order to bring the institution into closer contact with the city, there have been added to the Board of Trustees the Mayor, the chairman of the school committee, and the City Treasurer. The librarian, Mr. H. H. Ballard, contributes an account of the various methods of cataloguing, including the common card catalogue and the system employed by the British Museum. That which he has adopted for the additions seems to be a modification of the latter, and consists of "supplementary pages." He suggests that in time, by the aid of the linotype, "all the catalogues of the country shall be made and issued at a reasonable cost by some great central bureau."

Among the manuscripts acquired by the British Museum during the current year, the following may have some interest for historical students in America: 35073: Letters (58) of literary men of the nineteenth century; 35085: Latin Bible, vellum, thirteenth century, duodecimo, from the Cracherode collection; 35089: Vocabulary of the Aimará Indians in Bolivia, 1866; 35098: Original Entry Book of Sequestrations by Parliament, 1646-1649; 35102: Original Day-Book of Trustees for distributing forfeited lands in Ireland to the Army, 1656-1659; 35107: Original Minutes of the Privy Council, 1695-9, with other papers, 1662-1669; 35117: Original Entry Book of Crown Grants, 1661-1692. In the latter part of 1895, the Museum acquired a collection of manuscripts relating to the family of Waltthall of the County of Chester, of which a branch is settled in America, contenting itself, however, with but one *t* in the spelling of its patronymic. The papers cover the period from 1351 to 1886, and bear numbers from 34815 to 34818.

On Sunday, June 20, the most famous Danish scientist since H. C. Oersted, Johannes Japetus Smith Steenstrup, died in Copenhagen. Steenstrup was born in Vang, Jutland, Denmark, March 8, 1813. In 1841 he became Lector at Sorö Academy, and four years later he was appointed Professor of Zoölogy at the University of Copenhagen, a position that he continued to fill until his resignation in 1885. For more than twenty years of this time he was Secretary of the Society of Antiquaries, and on the death of Madvig in 1886 he refused the Presidency. He was also prominently connected with many other societies both Danish and foreign, making numerous contributions to their transactions. In proof of the estimation in which he was held abroad, it is sufficient to mention that he received the Prussian order *pour le mérite*, the only decoration that Carlyle condescended to accept. Although Steenstrup's *Hauptfach* was natural history, the direction of his studies brought him in close touch with archæology through his investigation of the Danish peat-bogs. To the insight of the scientist and the learning of the archæologist he added the imagination of the poet and the elegance of the accomplished stylist, making a combination of gifts such as has seldom been seen in the history of science and literature. Japetus Steenstrup is not to be confounded with his son Johannes, whose studies of the Danish settlements in England are of first importance.

—The most noteworthy piece in the July Publications of the Southern History Association (Washington) is the reprint of a paper on "John Brown's Raid" by Andrew

Hunter, the prosecuting attorney. We are told that it was first published in a newspaper in 1887, having been written "a few years after the execution of John Brown." The narrative creates a favorable impression of the writer, but it is quite obsolete in its estimate of the magnitude of Brown's force or of the complicity of the North at large in his enterprise. In fact, its greatest value is in its unconscious portraiture of Southern society at the time. When Gov. Wise proposed that the Harper's Ferry prisoners be sent to Charlestown that same evening, Hunter "saw this would not do." The Governor replied: "You have Captain Rowan's company to protect them [from the mob] from the depot to the jail?" "Oh, yes, we have," answered Mr. Hunter, "but that company will massacre every one of them before they reach the jail. My advice is, therefore, don't send the prisoners up to-night, unless you go with them with a party of Col. Lee's marines"—which happened accordingly. Mr. Hunter says, no doubt truthfully, that the story of Brown's kissing a negro child as he left the jail on his way to execution (surrounded by soldiers) is pure fiction; but he answers for the truthfulness of this incident: "While the body was hanging, Strother [*Harper's Weekly's* artist, "Porte-Crayon"] slipped up, raised the cap from the face, and took a sketch of him hanging. He said that the celebrated Lydia Maria Childs [*sic*] had published that she wanted to have a portrait or likeness of Brown in every condition of life to hang in her room, and that he had taken this sketch to send her that 'she might have him too when he was finished.' " Mr. Hunter's amusing proofs of Virginia's panic, in his endeavor to establish the multitude and nearness of Brown's myrmidons, do something to offset the grewsomeness of such a performance as this of Strother's. "John Brown's carpet-bag," presumably hidden in the Capitol at Richmond, but sought for in vain, is about all that is left to throw light on the raid.

—The Royal Geographical Society held its last sessional meeting for the year on the 17th of June, in the theatre of the School of Mines, London. A paper was read on this occasion by Prof. York Powell, who succeeded the late Mr. Froude as Regius Professor of Modern History at Oxford, in which the lecturer advocated the establishment of an English School of Charters, similar to the École des Chartes at Paris under the direction of the French Government. The paper itself will be found in the printed Proceedings of the Society. At present almost the only provision for teaching the branch of historical science for which Prof. Powell advocates support by the State, is at the universities. Messrs. Poole, Madan, and York Powell lecture upon Palæography and Diplomatics at Oxford; and Mr. Hubert Hall, one of the experts of the Public Record Office, is to treat upon the same subjects at Cambridge next term. Lastly, there is the London School of Economics, at 10 Adelphi Terrace. Referring to the discussion upon Prof. York Powell's paper, a contributor to the *Nation* writes from London:

"It is quite amusing to hear men of science pitching into the Government for not voting money for the endowment of scientific research and instruction. How they snort and sneer at the Chancellor of the Exchequer for keeping a tight hold upon the public purse-strings. Of course they are quite right in the opinion they hold as to the value of such studies. They do not, however, realize that they must first teach the public the utilitarian nature of their work. A Chancellor of the Exchequer will always find money where the representatives of the people are ready to vote it. In the case of the Nelson dispatches and relics, offered for sale by Lord Bridport, in 1895, both Sir William Harcourt and Sir Michael Hicks-Beach readily acquiesced in the purchase of those memorials of England's naval hero, when the matter was proposed to them by Sir Edward Maunde Thompson, the principal Librarian of the British Museum. The fact is the British taxpayer knows something about Nelson, and takes a very lively interest in the navy, but the voter's interest in ancient writings is not greater than his knowledge of their value to students of history."

—The Society of Friends of Russian Freedom have just issued in their Pamphlet No. ix. an account of the Russian Nonconformists and the treatment meted out to them by the Russian Government, which contains a well-informed summary of sectarianism in Russia. After some discussion of the officially published statistics of religion in Russia, the importance of separating the *Raskolniki*, or "Old Believers," not only from the "Sectarians," but also from the "Orthodox," is insisted upon. The official estimate of the Sectarians of South Russia at two and a half millions is pronounced an understatement. They really number more than four millions. The suppression in official returns of the Lithuanian sect of the "Uniats" is also an error, based upon the recent and over-sanguine declaration that this sect has been converted to Orthodoxy. For these and other reasons it is maintained that, as a matter of fact, the proportion of Sectarians (including in these the Old Believers as certainly not Orthodox) to Orthodox believers in Russia is something like one to six. So far from true is the prevalent impression that the population of the Russian Empire consists of one homogeneous Orthodox mass. The pamphlet further gives a brief sketch of the origin of the *Raskolniki*, who were originally dissenters from the "innovations" of the patriarch Nikon, promulgated in the second half of the seventeenth century. Under Nicon and the Tsar Alexis, they were outlawed. Catherine II. gave them a certain toleration, and in 1822 Alexander I. gave them religious liberty. Nicholas I. reversed this policy. At present they have full legal recognition, and churches in both capitals as well as elsewhere. They have in recent years tended to take the attitude of Sectarians pure and simple, an attitude more or less forced upon them. As to the rise of Russian sects, specifically so called, this goes back to the foreign immigration first encouraged on a large scale by Peter the Great, and more especially to the German Colonies fostered by Catharine II. From among the indigenous "Old Believers" there came, under these new influences, many sects half mystical and half rationalistic, the Dukhobortzi for instance, and the Molokani. The former have rallied around a sort of Quakerism, introduced early in this century, while the Molokani bind themselves to avoid slavery, war, military service, and the taking of oaths. More active of late years has been the spread of Stundism, and the rise of a group of sects more or less "evangelical," which apparently owe something of their hold upon the people to governmental activity in the suppression of dissent; the lamentable inefficiency of the Russian Orthodox clergy has done the rest. Accordingly, it is believed that there are now a quarter of a million of Stundists in Russia.

—Dr. Fritz Hommel, professor of Semitic languages at the University of Munich, has just published a volume entitled 'Die Altisraelitische Uberlieferung in inschriftlicher Beleuchtung,' in which he enters a strong protest against the modern school of Old Testament criticism. A little more than twenty years ago Eberhard Nestle published at Haarlem a work on 'Die israelitischen Eigennamen nach ihrer religions-geschichtlichen Bedeutung,' in which he attempted to analyze the proper names found in the Old Testament and to use them as a means of testing the authenticity of Hebrew tradition. These conclusions were vigorously assailed two years later by Julius Wellhausen in the first volume of his 'Geschichte Israels,' where he endeavored to show that the proper names in the priestly code ascribed to the Mosaic period were, like the code itself, the fabrications of a much later time, and that the inferences drawn from them by Nestle were therefore invalid. In the present volume Prof. Hommel follows out the lines of investigation indicated and partly opened up by Nestle, and brings to bear upon the subject a vast amount, not only of accurate learning, but also of new and valuable material derived from South Arabian inscriptions, for which he is indebted especially to the recent scholarly explorations of Dr. E. Glaser, who unfortunately has published as yet only a small portion of the hundreds of casts and copies in his possession. Hommel's treatment of personal names and their etymological significance is exceedingly acute and exhaustive, and his work is certainly one of the most learned and valuable of recent contributions to primitive Biblical history. Whether his deductions in confirmation of the truth and trustworthiness of Hebrew tradition touching pre-Mosaic times, the prevalence of monotheism and a high state of civilization among the Israelites at that early era, the reality of Abraham as an historical personage, and not a merely tribal designation, the predominating influence of Babylonian in distinction from Canaanite culture, and other kindred topics, will be generally accepted by Biblical critics and the younger generation of theologians, remains to be seen. The English translation published by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge in London reads well, and is generally correct, but not always.

—Mr. H. C. Russell, F.R.S., Government Astronomer at New South Wales, has recently issued a group of valuable papers upon interesting points connected with his work in that remote country, not one-seventh of the whole Australian continent. The extremes of its climate he compares with Sicily and Edinburgh—the temperature of the latter prevails at its coldest mountain town, Kiandra, 4,600 feet elevation. The general features of the country are comprised in three divisions. A long strip of coast district contains fifteen large and navigable rivers; back of this fertile and well-watered region, with its abundant rainfall, comes a range of high lands along the mountains, also with plenty of rain, and well adapted for agricultural purposes; and in the west the great plains, with a number of small rivers. A large capital has been expended here in making tanks and artesian wells, though even now the country is hardly

adapted for raising fruit or cereals. Mr. Russell believes in a certain periodicity of the weather; and in a paper read before the Royal Society of New South Wales, he sets forth his theory that the seasons may be forecast years in advance. Floods and droughts are carefully studied from early records, and generalizations deduced from them. A drought in New South Wales is not merely a few weeks without rain, as in England or America, but occasional periods of months or years when, from the diminished rainfall, the country is almost literally burned up, no crops can be raised, and cattle die in large numbers. In countries having a superabundance of rain, even a considerable diminution is hardly noticeable, while in another place, having just enough in the best times, a slight withdrawal makes serious drought. The same causes operate in both cases—great heat and drying winds. From his diagram upon which all droughts in all countries without regard to their intensity were placed in order of time since 1788, Mr. Russell sees marked evidence of a nineteen-year cycle. Going backward still further he finds noticeable verification. The nineteen-year cycle would seem to have been in marked progress not less than a thousand years, and may, Mr. Russell assumes, be trusted to continue and justify forecasts based upon it for a long time to come. A paper upon the ocean currents around Australia is compiled from seventy-six records which had been put into bottles and cast into the sea at various points, and Mr. Russell has charted not the supposed track taken by the bottle, but the shortest line between the points of throwing overboard and of finding. The mean rates of motion over the same ocean are, however, singularly alike. In the case of three bottles set afloat off Cape Horn they seem to have followed nearly the same tracks, and to have travelled 9.0, 7.9, and 10.3 miles daily, over distances of 9,517, 8,617, and 9,585 miles. One bottle going southward made nearly eighteen miles a day. More of these "current papers" are found on the coast between Melbourne and Adelaide than in any other part of Australia.

KNIGHT'S WORDSWORTH.

The Poetical Works of William Wordsworth. Edited by William Knight. 8 vols. Macmillan.

The Prose Works of William Wordsworth. Edited by William Knight. 2 vols. Macmillan.

When it was announced, some time ago, that Prof. Knight was about to reëdit Wordsworth, the news was received by literary students with what Dr. Johnson might have called feelings of expectancy mingled with trepidation. Prof. Knight was known as an enthusiastic and untiring Wordsworthian, possessed of a singular faculty for collecting materials and getting at inaccessible things. He had also commanded, for years, the good offices of many close students of Wordsworth, some of them men of learning and acuteness. On the other hand, his former edition (Edinburgh, 1882-86) had not given an altogether favorable impression of his accuracy or his good judgment. The beautiful volumes of this older issue were in every library, and, despite their inconvenient size, in every hand; but, the more they were used, the clearer it became that they needed thorough revision, and the stronger grew the doubt whether Prof. Knight could ever fit his habit of mind to the requirements of editorial exactness. Ten volumes of the new edition, out of a promised sixteen, have now appeared, and one can arrive at a tolerably correct estimate of the merits of the performance.

Volumes i.-viii. contain the Poetical Works, and have, accordingly, a special title-page. The Prose Works come next, in two volumes. Vols. xi.-xvi. will contain Dorothy Wordsworth's journals, the letters of William and Dorothy Wordsworth, a large amount of bibliographical matter (including an entirely new "Bibliography of Wordsworth Criticism"), and a Life. The Life, we are assured, will be considerably shorter than that published in 1889, for the letters and journals will not have to be included in it. The Correspondence will afford much unpublished matter. Prof. Knight mentions, in particular, the poet's own letters to Wrangham, and more than a hundred letters from Dorothy Wordsworth to Mrs. Clarkson. All this will be worth having, and insures for the new enterprise a respectable position among the books of the century, whatever may be thought of its claims to definitiveness. The two volumes of the Prose Works call for no comment. We shall, therefore, confine ourselves in this notice to the Poetical Works.

Two fundamental questions confronted the editor at the outset: the formation or selection of a text, and the settlement of the order in which the poems should be printed. Both problems are discussed at some length in the preface. For the former, Prof. Knight has certainly reached a correct solution. Wordsworth was continually revising his poetry, often for the better, but not seldom decidedly for the worse. An eclectic text like that formed by Matthew Arnold in his well-known volume of 'Selections,' would very properly be resented as an impertinence in a complete edition. To take one text for one poem, another for another, was equally out of the question. Accordingly, Prof. Knight has decided to accept the form which Wordsworth himself finally adopted—that is to say, the text of 1849-50—but to register, in footnotes, all the variations, except those of spelling and punctuation, shown by the editions published in the poet's lifetime, or discovered in manuscript. No conceivable objection can be urged against this method, and its advantages are manifest, not the least of them being the opportunity it affords to students of literature to observe the motions of the artist's mind and the artist's hand. Every imaginable kind of shift is represented in these textual notes. The general is substituted for the particular, the particular for the general; homely expressions make way for more elegant ones, conventional elegances are replaced by vigorous bits of homeliness; amplification and retrenchment are alike conspicuous. Particularly interesting are the many instances in which a word or phrase once rejected finds its way back into a verse, only to be expunged again, perhaps, in the process of incessant revision.

The second problem, that of the order of the poems, is less satisfactorily solved. Wordsworth's own careful and instructive grouping into "Poems of the Imagination," "Poems of the Fancy," etc., is abandoned, and a chronological arrangement is carried through. To the justifying of this procedure Prof. Knight devotes much space in an argument which, we fear, must be rated among "too curious and striving apologies." His main argument is, of course, that his plan affords special opportunities for studying the development of the poet's mind and art. He does not convince us, however, that a chronological table, like Prof. Dowden's, would not, in this respect, have answered every purpose. We cannot help thinking that no editor has a right to disregard his author's wishes in so deliberate and far-reaching a fashion. From Wordsworth's point of view, an arrangement by dates is, as he once said with much emphasis, "the worst possible," and, however instructive Prof. Knight may find his own new order, most readers will prefer that to which the poet himself gave so much time and pains, and which is in some respects a very significant expression of his critical theories. We need not go into the question at large, for, in the present instance, Prof. Knight's method is condemned by its results. Poems which belong together by every principle of sentiment and association are ruthlessly torn asunder, and yet, after all, consistency is not attained. Especially curious is the treatment of "The White Doe of Rylstone." This is referred to 1808, "although part of it —probably the larger half—was written during the autumn of the previous year, and it remained unfinished in 1810." Consequently, it appears in Prof. Knight's fourth volume. The Dedication, however, was not written until 1815. In this case even Prof. Knight has not sufficient resolution to separate the two, and he has, therefore, printed the dedication along with the poem. When he arrives at the year 1815, however, in the sixth volume, he repeats the Dedication, "from a MS. copy which differs considerably from the final text, and was probably the first draft." Anything more vexatious than the to-and-fro motion thus forced upon the reader it would be hard for the most perverse of editors to contrive. We may mention by the way that Prof. Knight says nothing of the whereabouts of this MS. copy, ignoring the first duty of an editor—the obligation to define the sources of his text. It is his habit, indeed, to insert variants marked simply "MS.," with no hint as to what manuscript is meant. A recent publication has shown that he derived much of this material from the Longman papers, and has incidentally discredited his accuracy as a copyist.

We could wish this were the only editorial obligation which Prof. Knight had neglected or but slightingly performed. Unhappily, the omission just remarked is but too characteristic of his methods. The textual notes, to be sure, are much better than those in his former edition, and, though they do not always bear close scrutiny, may be accepted as substantially accurate. Still, in one vexatious instance, they show in a conspicuous way the carelessness, or, at all events, the vacillation, which pervades the work. In printing "Simon Lee" it was clearly Prof. Knight's intention to register variants fully in the footnotes, as usual, and there is, accordingly, no hint in the body of the volume that this has not been done. In an Appendix, however, which, characteristically, is furnished with no backward reference to the page where the poem is printed, we read that "it was found impossible to describe, within the limits of a footnote, the endless shiftings to and fro of the stanzas and half stanzas," and accordingly we have an addi-

tional two pages and a half of textual apparatus. If this appendix formed a part of the editor's first plan (which we very much doubt), the introduction to the poem, or the first textual note, should have apprised the reader of its existence and whereabouts,

If we pass from the textual to the explanatory and illustrative notes, we find a prevailing unsteadiness of purpose and of performance. Take, for example, the matter of imitations and parallel passages. It is no doubt difficult to maintain any consistent principle in calling attention to such things. But Prof. Knight does not seem to have striven to maintain any principle; rather, he has jotted down, somewhat idly, a few passages in other authors that occurred to him or were sent to him by correspondents. Sometimes the parallel is slender enough. It requires a microscopic eye to detect, as Canon Ainger and Prof. Knight have done, a reminiscence of Lady Winchelsea's vivid if ill-finished lines,

> "Whose stealing pace and lengthened shade we feel,
> Till torn-up forage in his teeth we hear,"

in Wordsworth's prosaic and ineffective

> "The horse alone seen dimly as I pass
> Is cropping audibly his later meal."

Why, too, should it be thought necessary to quote "L'Allegro" when Wordsworth merely mentions Euphrosyne (vol. vii., p. 185)? There is no real allusion to Milton in the passage thus annotated. Quite malapropos is the quotation from "Henry V." made to illustrate a passage in the ode "Imagination—ne'er before content." Wordsworth, apostrophizing the God of Battles, has in his mind a thought very different from that of Shakspere's king. He is contemplating the great purposes of God as worked out by the hand of man in warfare; in "Henry V." it is the punishment of the individual offender that is in question. Other examples of this kind of annotation might be cited. On the other hand, clear cases of imitation or allusion are not seldom overlooked. In general, we cannot discern that any principle of choice has been observed, or even conceived, with respect to the citation of parallels.

A rather large number of Prof. Knight's notes are of what used to be called the "school-boy" sort. In particular, he has thought it right to explain many classical allusions of a distinctly every-day character. "Leonidas, king of Sparta, killed in the heroic defence of the pass of Thermopylæ, B. C. 480"; "The Nine Muses, called the Pierides, from Pieria, near Olympus, where they were said to have been born, or first worshipped by the Thracians"; "Numa Pompilius, the second king of Rome" (there follows a quotation from Niebuhr); "The statue of Amenophis in the vicinity of Thebes—called by the Greeks the statue of Memnon—was fabled to give forth a musical strain when touched by the first ray of sunshine"; "The Hamadryads were supposed not only to haunt the trees, but to live in them, and to die with them"—one is at a loss to decide for whom remarks of this nature are intended. In a school-book of a very elementary kind they might possibly be in place, but in a dignified library edition of an English classic—! Yet, even in this point, Prof. Knight has not managed to be steady in his commenting. "Bold Bellerophon" falling "headlong from the fields of air" is left noteless by a scholiast who thinks it his duty to explain "the bright immortal Theban band" and to tell his readers that Alcæus wrote odes, and that "the Julian spear the way first opened" refers to "the conquest of Britain by Julius Cæsar." Besides being elementary, some of these classical notes are vague and feeble. Thus,

> "Fabled Cytherea's zone,
> Glittering before the Thunderer's sight,"

if it calls for any comment, calls for a reference to the fourteenth book of the 'Iliad,' instead of which we find the following obscure and ineffectual remark: "It was near the island of Cythera that Aphrodite was said, according to some legends, to have risen from the sea foam. Hence the term 'Cytherea's zone.' The 'Thunderer' is, of course, Jupiter Tonans." To tell the truth, one cannot help suspecting that Prof. Knight is not very ready with his Greek and Latin authors; for, apart from such commonplaces as Leonidas and Jupiter Tonans, he appears to have depended almost entirely on friends and correspondents for his knowledge of Wordsworth's classical allusions. Even for such obvious learning as is required to explain "Laodamia" and to compare "Dion" with Plutarch, the editor relies upon another, and the scrap-book appearance of the annotation is in some measure due to the necessity he is under of crediting to various persons information that ought to have been within his own reach.

In fact, the more Prof. Knight's notes are examined, the more slovenly they seem. Nothing surely can be more familiar than the story of "King Lear"; yet, when Wordsworth, in eight lines of "Artegal and Elidure," summarizes it (from Shakspere and not from Geoffrey of Monmouth), Prof. Knight seizes the opportunity to insert an extract from Milton's 'History of England' which occupies a whole page of the very finest type. This is mere padding, nor can a more respectful term be applied to much of the five pages of anecdotical matter appended to "The Brownies' Cell." No blame attaches to Mr. Malcolm M'Farlane, patronizingly described as "a very intelligent sheep-farmer in Buchanan parish," for furnishing Prof. Knight with some irrelevant reminiscences of a whiskey-drinking congregation in Scotland. It was Mr. M'Farlane's plain duty to write freely, and he is doubtless as much surprised as we are to find the importance attached to this part of his communications. The letter from Prof. Sellar (vi., 206) need not be called padding, for it helps to fill a page that would otherwise be mostly white paper. Yet we venture to think that Prof. Sellar did not intend it for formal publication.

On the "Fish-women" sonnet we observe a note that is downright amazing. "The name Amphitrite," runs this curious bit of sciolism, "is probably derived from the noise of waters pouring through the rifts of rocks, and there may be an allusion to this in the concluding lines of the sonnet." One might excuse the obsoleteness of this comment, but it is not easy to pardon its frigidity. To explain

> "Their voices into liquid music swell,
> Thrilling each pearly cleft and sparry grot,
> The undisturbed abodes where sea-nymphs dwell"

as an etymological allusion is certainly an exploit.

Almost as good is the remark, "Here the reference may be to Cædmon's *Paraphrase*," attached to the well-known stanza in which Wordsworth refers to the hymns of the Druids:

> "Not such the initiatory strains
> Committed to the silent plains
> In Britain's earliest dawn:
> Trembled the groves, the stars grew pale,
> While all too daringly the veil
> Of nature was withdrawn!"

If Prof. Knight would refresh his memory by reading a few pages of what he calls "Cædmon's Paraphrase," he would at once admit that it contains nothing to make the stars grow pale or the groves tremble. As to its having been "committed to the silent plains in Britain's earliest dawn," the less said about that the better.

Another instance of lack of penetration is the note on the sonnet entitled "Captivity." "Why this sonnet was printed from 1819 to the last edition of 1849 with inverted commas," says Professor Knight solemnly, "I have never been able to discover." Surely there is no great mystery here. Wordsworth is not speaking in the first person in this poem: it is an ejaculation of Mary, Queen of Scots, from beginning to end. This is the plain reason for the quotation marks, which, we suspect, have never perplexed anybody before.

A few miscellaneous flaws may here be collected. The note on Mithridates and Odin (iii. 137) is vague and feeble: one is left in doubt whether Professor Knight regards the Scandinavian god as an historical character or not. Yet there is nothing really obscure in Wordsworth's allusion. In striking contrast with the editor's indecision on this point is his dogmatic dictum about Stonehenge, which is, we are informed, "a Saxon ring, set up—after the Romans had left Britain—for parliamentary and coronation purposes" (v. 112). To ascribe to Spenser the epitaph on Sidney quoted at i. 267 is a serious error. For Taliesin the reader is referred to nothing better than "Pitseus" and Sharon Turner (vii. 13). What German scholar is meant by "Welcher" (vi. 204) it is not hard to guess, but the misprint is amusing. "De rerum naturæ" (vii. 328) is another ugly slip of the types. At ii. 204, one expects some information about "the German of Frederica Brun"; what is offered instead is an ill-expressed and indeed scarcely grammatical note, with regard to the Scottish ballad "Binnorie," with a misprint in the title given to it by Scott—a note hardly intelligible and thoroughly misleading. At i. 77, "published" should of course be "published in part." At ii. 243, Chaucer's little schoolboy is made to sit *in*, instead of *at*, his primer. Useless repetition is not lacking. Thus, in volume vi. we are thrice informed, in the compass of two pages, that a certain sonnet was published January 28, 1816. Lack of exact references may almost be called a characteristic trait of Prof. Knight's notes. Wordsworth refers to "Tasso" for the phrase *dolcemente feroce*, and Prof. Knight contents himself with a like indefiniteness. Nobody expects chapter and verse from poets, but editors exist for the express purpose of giving them. Other examples of this carelessness are iii. 40, vi. 186, vii. 17, 305, where 'Sartor Resartus,' Gray's 'Journal,' Bede's 'Ecclesiastical History,' and Burn's 'History of Westmorland and Cumberland' are quoted or cited by title merely, with no hint of chapter or volume or page or edition.

It is not to be inferred from all this that Professor Knight's notes are valueless or that all of them are slovenly. As a whole,

those that concern themselves with literary or historical comment and illustration or with exegesis are disappointing, either for what they contain or for what they omit, or from their form. But in three particulars Prof. Knight has done excellent service to literary history. He has collected every scrap of evidence which can help to determine the dates of the several poems and the circumstances under which they were written; he has explained all personal and autobiographical allusions; and he has given much time and pains to Wordsworth's topography. In the last-mentioned particular, the interest of which need not here be insisted on, he has had enthusiastic and intelligent collaboration. The Duddon Sonnets, for example, are accompanied by an elaborate commentary of this kind prepared by Mr. Herbert Rix, and have, also, some brief notes by Canon Rawnsley, whose books on the Lake Country are widely and favorably known. Some readers may think the topography over-minutely studied, but we cannot agree with them. The apparent excess is due to the fact not that too much attention has been paid to topography, but that too little has been paid to some other matters, particularly those of a literary kind.

In closing we wish to provide against a possible misconception. Prof. Knight has, in our opinion, done a great service to literature in his new Wordsworth, and his volumes will long rank as a standard library edition of the poet. Such a work, however, demands a high standard of editorial accuracy and elegance, and to this standard the volumes before us do not conform. Though well qualified to be the general manager of such an undertaking, Prof. Knight should not have tried to work without a colleague, but should have selected some associate who could supply his own serious defects in learning, accuracy, and neatness of literary workmanship.

The Sense of Beauty; Being the Outlines of Æsthetic Theory. By George Santayana. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896.

This book is the best possible complement to Mr. H. R. Marshall's work on Æsthetics. Marshall's theories concern themselves with the elementary conditions that make experiences agreeable or disagreeable. Dr. Santayana has but little to say of these conditions; he takes differences of pleasantness for granted, and traces those further conditions that prompt us to regard the pleasantness rather as a quality of the object than as an affection of the self—such "objectivation of our pleasure" being for him the best definition of the "beauty" of the experience. Between them these two authors place our country well in the van of the literature of this fascinating, though profoundly unsatisfying, topic of speculation.

The great merit of both works is the concreteness and reality with which their authors grasp the subject. An artist reading them will not find the deepest instincts of his Being violated as it is by so much of the grotesque stuff called Æsthetics in the systems of German philosophers, from Baumgarten and Kant downwards. These American writers, he will say, have been there, and know how I and those like me feel about our work. The stainless exclusiveness and absolute supremacy of an abstraction called Beauty, with a big B, play no part in their pages, and the vast and shifting play of Man's æsthetic life has consequently a chance of coming to its rights. Dr. Santayana's pages are indeed saturated with so catholic a sensibility for the most diverse sources of æsthetic value that one is almost surprised to find him standing up as firmly as he does in many places for classic determinism of form (which usually is what the Beauty with a big B means) as against that richness in vague suggestion that characterizes romantic work. This just balance in a strongly sympathetic æsthetic nature is what gives to his various critical judgments such luminousness and weight.

After fifty pages on the nature of beauty, in which he takes an ultra empiricist position, Dr. Santayana discusses (in three separate sections) the sensible material, the form of combination, and the expression or remote suggestiveness of things, as being respectively the sources of our pleasure in them. Form is more essential than suggestiveness, matter more essential than form. Here is a passage in which he defends the claims of pure sensation:

"There is no effect of form which an effect of material could not enhance, and this effect of material, underlying that of form, raises the latter to the higher power, and gives to the beauty of the object a certain poignancy, thoroughness, and infinity which it otherwise would have lacked. . . . Taste, when it is spontaneous, always begins with the senses. . . . The simplest people appreciate the neatness of muslin curtains, shining varnish, and burnished pots. A rustic garden is a shallow patchwork of the liveliest flowers, without that reserve and repose which is given by spaces and masses. Noise and vivacity is all that childish music contains, and primitive songs add little more of form than what is required to compose a few monotonous cadences. These limitations are not to be regretted; they are a proof of sincerity. Such simplicity is not the absence of taste, but the beginning of it. A people with genuine æsthetic perceptions creates traditional forms and expresses the simple pathos of its life in unchanging but significant themes, repeated by generation after generation. When sincerity is lost, and a snobbish ambition is substituted, bad taste comes in. The essence of it is a substitution of non-æsthetic for æsthetic values. To love glass beads is barbarous, perhaps, but not vulgar; to love jewels only because they are dear is vulgar; and to betray the motive by placing them ineffectively is an offence against taste. The test is always the same: Does the thing itself actually please? If it does, your taste is real; it may be different from that of others, but it is equally justified and grounded in human nature. If it does not, your whole judgment is spurious, and you are guilty, not of heresy, which in Æsthetics is orthodoxy, but of hypocrisy, which is self-excommunication from its sphere.

"Now, a great sign of this hypocrisy is insensibility to sensuous beauty. When people show themselves indifferent to primary and fundamental effects, when they are incapable of finding pictures except in frames, or beauties except in the great masters, we may justly suspect that they are parrots, and that their verbal and historical knowledge covers a natural lack of æsthetic sense. Where, on the contrary, insensibility to higher forms of beauty does not exclude a natural love of the lower, we have every reason to be encouraged; there is a true and healthy taste which only needs experience to refine it. If a man demands light, sound, and splendor, he proves that he has æsthetic equilibrium; that appearances as such interest him, and that he can pause in perception to enjoy. We have but to vary his observation, to enlarge his thought, to multiply his discriminations—all of which education can do—and the same æsthetic habit will reveal to him every shade of the fit and the fair."

Our purpose being not to analyze so short a book, but simply to call attention to its merits, we will content ourselves with once more quoting. Here is a passage in which Dr. Santayana treats of the quality of remote suggestiveness in objects of art:

"It is the free exercise of our activity of apperception that gives so peculiar an interest to indeterminate objects, to the vague, the incoherent, the suggestive, the variously interpretable. The more this effect is appealed to, the greater wealth of thought is presumed in the observer, and the less mastery is displayed by the artist. A poor and literal mind cannot enjoy the opportunity for reverie and construction given by the stimulus of indeterminate objects; it lacks the requisite resources. It is nonplussed and annoyed, and turns away to simpler and more transparent things with a feeling of helplessness often turning into contempt. And, on the other hand, the artist who is not artist enough, who has too many irrepressible talents and too little technical skill, is sure to float in the region of the indeterminate. He sketches and never paints; he hints and never expresses; he stimulates and never informs. This is the method of the individuals and nations that have more genius than art.

"The consciousness that accompanies this characteristic is the sense of profundity, of mighty significance. And this feeling is not necessarily an illusion. The nature of our materials—be they words, colors, or plastic matter—imposes a limit and bias upon our expression. The reality of experience can never be quite rendered through these media. The greatest mastery of technique will therefore come short of perfect adequacy and exhaustiveness; there must always remain a penumbra and a fringe of suggestion if the most explicit representation is to communicate a truth. When there is real profundity—when the living core of things is most firmly grasped—there will accordingly be a felt inadequacy of expression, and an appeal to the observer to piece out our imperfections with his thoughts. But this should come only after the resources of a patient and well-learned art have been exhausted; else what is felt as depth is really confusion and incompetence. The simplest thing becomes unutterable if we have forgotten how to speak. And an habitual indulgence in the inarticulate is a sure sign of the philosopher who has not learned to think, the poet who has not learned to write, the painter who has not learned to paint, and the impression that has not learned to express itself—all of which are compatible with an immensity of genius in the inexpressible soul."

But it seems absurd to quote one page more than another from the book. We recommend it most emphatically as one of the best contributions ever made to the subject—penetrating, perceptive, and judicious, and clad in a superlatively good English style.

History of Ancient Greek Literature. By Gilbert Murray. D. Appleton & Co.

Prof. Murray's volume is the first of the series of "Literatures of the World" which is being edited by Mr. Edmund Gosse, and it contains the editor's "General Introduction." We are disposed to believe that there must exist in the soul of the modern book-buyer an insatiate craving for uniformity and correlation, and that the publishers who issue 'Literatures,' 'Heroes,' and 'Epochs' by the series know their public better than we do. Nevertheless, the scholar will always have a rooted distrust of any scheme that would cut out his favorite literature by the pattern of any other. He will find nothing to allure in Mr. Gosse's promise that "great care will be taken to preserve uniformity of form and disposition, so as to make the volumes convenient for purposes of comparison, and so as to enable the literatures themselves to be studied in proper correlation." This will but suggest to him

the estimable efforts of the Chautauqua Reading Circle, for nothing will convince your scholar that a work that is "pleasant enough and picturesque enough to be studied by those who seek nothing from their books but enjoyment," can be to his address. It is nothing less than a slap in the face of the classical scholar of to-day to be told that Greek literature is "independent of philology and political history," especially when Mr. Gosse follows up this remarkable statement with the assurance that, "in preparing these books, the first aim will be to make them exactly consistent with all the latest discoveries of fact."

Let us see how Prof. Murray, in his treatment of Greek Literature, works out this idea of winning both votes. The editor's introduction was framed to catch the vote of the general public; Mr. Murray's preface quietly ignores Mr. Gosse and conciliates the scholar. "Our ultimate literary judgments upon an ancient writer," he says (p. xii), "generally depend, and must depend, upon a large mass of philological and antiquarian argument." He goes on to acknowledge his deep indebtedness to Von Wilamowitz-Moellendorff, "whose historical insight . . . has changed the face of many departments of Hellenic study within the last fifteen years." So much for Mr. Gosse's "self-reliant" Greek literature! Mr. Murray's conception of the Greek, as stated in his preface, rejects alike Pater's "æsthetic and fleshly" pagan and the "serene and classical" Greek of Winckelmann and Goethe. Without defining his abstract Greek, Mr. Murray gives us a fairly good negative idea of him—he is, we imagine, the mean of Dr. Johnson's "savages addressed by Demosthenes" and the radiant young demi-gods of Mr. Alma-Tadema's paintings.

In his chapter on Homer Mr. Murray makes more concessions to the learned than to the general reader. Yet we imagine that the scholar who is interested in dialects will seek elsewhere such a close discussion of Aeolic and Ionic as that to which Mr. Murray devotes five pages; in a work which, after all, is meant as a popular sketch, this space might have been more profitably given to quotations from or an analysis of the Homeric poems for the benefit of the general reader, for whom is assumed here a knowledge of Homer which he does not possess. Some account of the classical literary tradition regarding Homer and the influence of the poems on Greek literature and life we look for in vain. Passing to the Lyric Poets, we find scant notice given to Bacchylides, in spite of the recent discovery of several of his odes; here, again, one would have expected Mr. Murray to mention the high place accorded him by the ancients—a place for which it is hoped that the lately acquired poems may account.

The first half of the book ends with an excellent chapter on Thucydides, and the second opens with the drama. Mr. Murray seems to follow Dörpfeld on the question of the Greek stage (see p. 203). The treatment of Euripides is undoubtedly the best part of the book, because the most sympathetically written. Here Mr. Murray gives us the impression that he is really relating his own adventures with the masterpieces that he describes. Your genuine Ibsenite is always restlessly assuring the world that Ibsen is a classic; so Mr. Bernard Shaw announces once a week in the *Saturday Review* that he is vastly superior to Shakspere; so, in his turn, Mr. Murray makes the most of his opportunity and classes Ibsen with Aeschylus as a "Titanic mind" (p. 227), and tells us that the "Oedipus Tyrannus" of Sophocles reminds one of Ibsen's plays, because "the interest turns, not on what the characters do, but on their finding out what they have done." Is this fair to the general reader who knows his "Hedda Gabler" and his "Little Eyolf," but will never correct Mr. Murray's analogy by reading Sophocles? For there seems to us to be an immense difference between finding out what you have done (with Sophocles) and finding out after agonies of introspection what you *are* (with Ibsen). Mr. Murray goes on to compare the symbolism of the "Hippolytus" with the symbolism of "Brand." So that almost before we know it we are left with a trail of Ibsen over our conceptions of Aeschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides. This is a good instance of the fallacy of expressing the past in terms of the present; the writer who does this usually adds a qualification, but the reader carries away the wrong impression in nine cases out of ten. Mr. Murray does not follow the modern tendency, at any rate in Germany, to regard Demosthenes as a patriotic agitator whose influence over Athens was fatal and policy short-sighted. Adolph Holm's arraignment of Demosthenes, in his third volume, ought to have some effect on English scholars; Mr. Murray gives his readers the old-fashioned view of Philip as the villain and Demosthenes as the patriotic statesman.

To attack an author for his exclusions and his narrow range in a volume that was limited to 400 pages is so easy a task that the critic is disarmed. He can only deplore the fact that a historian who consents to survey Greek literature in so narrow a space is inevitably committed to the lamentable theory that Greek literature "stopped short at the cultivated court" of Alexander of Macedon. So it happens that Mr. Murray, like so many others, declines into the baldest summary of names and dates for the period following the death of Demosthenes. He allows a dozen pages only to the whole Greco-Roman period, and gives a bare page to Lucian, whom he calls a "second-century sophist," without having pointed out the enormous difference between the sophists of Plato's day and the showy declaimers who, under Hadrian and his successors, taught the art of using the Greek classics to ornament Roman life. To bracket Dion Chrysostomus with Herodes Atticus and Aristides as a "mere stylist" is an astonishing piece of criticism, unless one goes on to explain, as Mr. Murray does not, what an important and picturesque figure Dion's life and his record of it make him in that interesting and too-neglected period.

Of this whole Greco-Roman period we may say that one excellent way of seeing what classical literature was is by estimating what post-classical literature was not. When Dr. Verrall issues his 'Latin Literature' in this series, we do not expect to find in it that "correlation" with Mr. Murray's book so confidently predicted by the editor. For it is only by the study of Greek literature under the Roman Empire that we can understand the contemporary literature of Rome. Mr. Mackail, some years ago, did, brilliantly, for Latin what Mr. Murray has now done for Greek literature; he gave his quotations regularly in the original, and we wish that Mr. Murray could have done the same, at any rate in footnotes. We are surprised to see colloquialisms, such as "going one better" and "rubbing it in," in a work of serious scholarship which comes from that side of the water on which the Queen's English is supposed to be carefully guarded; the dropping of an "h" in Kirchhoff's name is an unexpected lapse in an author who owes so much to his study of the Germans. But, when all is said that can be said in criticism of Mr. Murray's work, it remains a powerful and original study; μωμήσεταί τις μᾶλλον ἢ μιμήσεται—it is easier to criticise than to imitate.

The Theory of International Trade: With Some of Its Applications to Economic Policy. By C. F. Bastable, M.A., LL.D. Second edition, revised. Macmillan Co. 1897. Pp. xii, 183.

After an interval of ten years, Prof. Bastable presents us with a new edition of his well-known work on international trade. While it has not been found necessary to make any structural changes, or to alter seriously the original materials, the book has been carefully revised, and its references have been brought thoroughly up to date. The author's first purpose is to subject the classical theory of international trade to a critical examination, and to determine the extent to which it requires restatement. In the opening chapter he considers the reasons that led English economists to formulate a special theory of exchange to explain the facts of international trade, and concludes that there are still substantial grounds to justify such procedure. Then he elaborates the doctrines of comparative costs and of the equation of reciprocal demand. The treatment of these subjects follows closely the traditional methods of presentation, but on some minor points a few oversights of other writers are corrected. Concerning the movements of money in international commerce, the author holds firmly to the supply-and-demand theory. Like all other writers upon this particular subject, he is unable to find a substitute for "the quantity theory of money." The last half of the work is devoted mainly to a consideration of the question of free trade and protection, to which the author applies consistently the theory that he has elaborated, even if he is unable to advance much that can be called original.

Undoubtedly such a book as this serves a useful purpose, but its methods of presentation are such as to limit its serviceableness in all except purely scientific circles. The author rightly enough directs his attention mainly to permanent results and to what holds true in the long run. He treats international trade as barter, and works out the theory of comparative costs in terms of units of sacrifice incurred in production. Such a procedure possesses scientific validity, but lacks the features that appeal to the understanding of those persons who have not had considerable training in economic studies. The man of business is confronted usually by the temporary results of economic causes. He knows that most international transactions are carried on by individuals, not by nations as such, and that international trade seems to be based upon differences of prices which are easy to understand. Moreover, he insists that exports are sold for money, and that imports are paid for in the same manner. If the subject

were one of purely academic interest, the economist might fairly overlook these facts; but its practical importance is so great that care should be taken to throw scientific discussion into a form that will be intelligible to persons who are not scientists. This it is not impossible to do. A little attention to immediate and temporary results, a statistical demonstration of the fact that, in spite of immediate appearances, imports do pay for exports in the long run, and a translation of the doctrine of comparative costs into the language of prices, would accomplish this end. The theory of international exchange may be made comprehensible to any intelligent man by such a mode of treatment, while all scientific purposes may be subserved equally well. Since Prof. Bastable fails to do this, his interesting and valuable book will, like most other works on this subject, end in little more than purely academic discussion.

Histoire de l'Ordre Lotiforme: Étude d'Archéologie Égyptienne. Par George Foucart, Licencié en Droit, Ancien Inspecteur des Fouilles et des Musées de l'Égypte, etc. Paris: Ernest Leroux. 1897.

The columns in Egyptian architecture have tempted archæologists, from De Quincy down, to discussions and theories, all turning to account in some way the manifest reminiscences of floral and vegetable prototypes which they display. There is a very obvious relation between the column as we find it and the innumerable representations of it in bas-reliefs and papyri. But there has been a gap which could not be filled up between the picture and the real thing; for though we have abundant remains of early Egyptian building, we have had no columns which could be dated farther back than about half way in the series—that is to say, to the twelfth dynasty. Those in the hypogees at Beni Hassan have been recorded in every book on the archæology of Egypt as the oldest in the world; but excavations at Abusir, three or four years ago, revealed a column of the so-called lotus-bud type in a mastaba or tomb which is clearly identified as a tomb of the fifth dynasty, so that it may be five hundred years earlier than those at Beni Hassan, or, according to some chronologies, eight hundred or a thousand. This discovery, of which an account was published in the *Revue Archéologique* in 1894 by M. De Morgan, has been used by M. George Foucart as the text for a careful monograph on the lotiform order.

The lotiform column predominates in Egyptian architecture: it is that of which the consecutive forms can be most clearly traced, the prevailing one in pictured representations, and, so far as evidence went, even before the discovery of Abusir, the oldest. M. Foucart traces its history in a way that was till now impossible. The actual prototype he believes to have been a wooden column, and he accepts the natural theory that the capital is an imitation of the bunches of lotus which the flower-loving Egyptians used to tie about the tops of the shafts. The theory of a metallic prototype, or even of floral ornaments of metal fastened to the top of the original column, stoutly maintained by Chipiez, he absolutely rejects, and with reason, we think. Tracing the gradual modification of the type in historical examples, he finds not only, as was to be expected, that it diverges steadily from the floral original, but that it falls away as steadily from the beauty of the oldest example at Abusir. This accords with what we know of Egyptian art, in which the elusive period of maturity continually recedes before investigation till there seems no room in history for the time of preparation. The new-found column not only is singularly clear and precise in its representation of a group of half opened lotus buds tied about the top of a fourfold shaft, but has a purity of outline and grace of proportion which are not matched in the later ones. The gradual transformation from imitative forms to purely lithic is shown with unexpected and convincing continuity in the successive examples which M. Foucart has collated, tracing the lotus-column down from the strongly naturalistic monoliths of Abusir and Beni Hassan to the huge and smoothly stuccoed pillars of the Ramassides at Karnak and Medinet Abu—amorphous forms which have so lost the lotus character that some archæologists have called them papyrus-bud columns. He does not convince us when he insists that the clustering of the stone column is simply a development of the square stone pier, dismissing the theory that it is inherited from the wooden original in an argument whose cogency we do not recognize; but he seems right in rejecting the theory of Lepsius and others that the column was born of an attempt to embody the whole growth of the plant, arguing that it began with the buds at the capital, and that the rest was an afterthought of the middle Empire.

M. Foucart keeps close to his main line of discussion, with but slight notice of the other well-known Egyptian types—the palm-leaf, the papyrus or bell-capital, the Hathor capital—but he has many interesting things to say of the development and progressiveness of Egyptian architecture, too often thought of as the type of immutability. We have not seen so adequate and satisfactory a discussion of any phase of Egyptian architecture as this book.

Griechische Geschichte. Von Julius Beloch. Strassburg: Trübner. 2 vols. 1893 and 1897.

An admirable feature of this work is its unity of plan. The reader of Beloch's history will be delighted to find himself pursuing, not the separate narratives of the leading cities, as Sparta, Athens, and Syracuse, but the history of Greece as a whole. Here is great improvement in the treatment of Grecian history, made more practicable, to be sure, by the moderate compass of the work, yet highly creditable to the author. It is to be hoped that future writers will in this respect work along the lines that Beloch has sketched. Equally commendable is his idea of making civilization rather than war the centre of interest. We owe to Greece our science, our art, and our ideals of political and intellectual liberty; how disappointing it is, then, in approaching almost any one of the smaller histories of Greece, to find but a dreary wilderness of military details! But Beloch has restricted himself more than any previous writer to the lessons which ancient Greece has to teach the moderns; he has described briefly the intellectual, moral, and æsthetic conditions of each stage in the development of the race, and has pointed out the influence of these conditions on society and government. It is, perhaps, in treating the economic side of Grecian history that Beloch shows most originality and ability, and has made his largest contribution to existing knowledge. His service in this is especially opportune at the present time, when economic questions are of supreme interest.

His method is critical—he bases his treatment on a careful examination and estimate of the sources; he is the pronounced foe of "mere hypothesis." In some instances, however, he has not lived up to his own ideal. We find him occasionally offering conjecture as unconditioned fact. On the other hand, he often pushes his critical method to extremes, thus relegating well-evidenced facts to the limbo of myth. This criticism should not apply to his disbelief in a Dorian migration. The theory of a Dorian conquest of the Peloponnesus, though not utterly overthrown by Beloch, has experienced a severe shock at his hands, and with it those "aristocracies based on conquest" of which too much has recently been made. Sometimes Beloch seems unjust in his judgment of men and political parties. For instance, he assumes without convincing evidence that Pericles precipitated the Peloponnesian war to extricate himself from political complications at home. And in his treatment of the Athenian democracy, he does not seem to be aware that its faults were not peculiarly democratic, but are to be found recurring in other forms of government, ancient and modern. This unfairness comes in part from his too confident use of partisan literature as evidence. The theory that each form of government has its peculiar ethical flavor—a theory very attractive to the Greeks—is no longer tenable. Yet if comparisons are of any value, no one acquainted with the facts could say that the Athenian democracy was less moral or less humane than the Athenian oligarchies, the Spartan aristocracy, or the monarchy of Philip and Alexander. But Beloch confesses that he is politically biassed by his surroundings: "ein begehrliches Proletariat und ein ebenso begehrliches Junkertum" have led him to sympathize with Theramenes's attempt to restrict the Athenian franchise to those possessed of a certain property qualification, an attempt to straiten still further the life of a city-state already dying of political illiberality. Beloch offers nothing substantial to prove that Theramenes's ideal was either good in itself or practicable. In short, he represents the anti-democratic tendency now prevalent in the treatment of Grecian history.

We miss also in Beloch's work the interest and inspiration that come from contact with the brilliant personalities of Greece. In the prominence which he gives to the race, the individual recedes into the background. Lycurgus, Pericles, and Alexander have indeed been overdone, and it is well to call attention to other things in history than the doings of eminent men; but Beloch appears to have underestimated the influence of great personalities on their age. Also, the reader of conventional Greek history will be constantly surprised at Beloch's treatment of leading characters. He will find Dionysius I., once the bloody tyrant of Syracuse, now cleanly washed and habilitated as becomes a great general, statesman, and tragic poet; Eubulus, a prudent statesman wisely developing and conserving the resources of his country; and Epaminondas, still one of the ablest military leaders of all time, yet lack-

ing in statesmanlike foresight and breadth of view, introducing no new principles into politics, but only aggravating the evils of city hegemony. Beloch's treatment of the political tendencies of the fourth century is fresh and suggestive; and indeed his entire work shows a thorough mastery of the available sources, a discrimination in the selection of material, and on the whole a moderation and soundness of judgment that will make it an indispensable help to every careful student of Grecian history.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barbèra, P. Autori e Editori. Florence: S. Landi.
Bompiani, Sophia V. A Short History of the Italian Waldenses. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Broughton, Rhoda. Dear Faustina. Appletons. $1.
Brown, J. S. Partisan Politics: The Evil and the Remedy. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Burdett, H. C. Hospitals and Charities. 1897. London: Scientific Press: New York Scribners.
Campbell-Praed, Mrs. Milma: An Anglo-Australian Romance. Appletons. $1.
Chapin, Anna A. The Story of the Rhinegold. Told for Young People. Harpers. $1.25.
Crosby, Frances J. Bells at Evening, and Other Verses. Chicago: Biglow & Main.
Currie, Mrs. Margaret G. John Saint John and Anna Grey: A Romance of Old New Brunswick. Toronto: William Briggs.
Daughters of Æsculapius: Stories Written by Alumnæ and Students of the Woman's Medical College of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia: G. W. Jacobs & Co. 75c.
Davies, Helen. The Reveries of a Spinster. F. T. Neely.
Doniol, Henri. M. Thiers, le Comte de St. Vallier, le Général de Manteuffel. La Libération du Territoire. 1871—1873. Documents inédits. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Drummond, Prof. Henry. A Life for a Life, and Other Addresses. F. H. Revell Co. 25c.
Dubois, Marcel, and Guy, Camille. Les Régions Tropicales. [Album Géographique.] Paris: Colin & Cie.
Dunning, E. J. The Genesis of Shakspere's Art: A Study of His Sonnets and Poems. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $2.
Findlay, J. J. Arnold of Rugby: His School Life and Contributions to Education. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Foster, R. F. Complete Hoyle: An Encyclopædia of All the Indoor Games. F. A. Stokes Co.
Fowler, N. C., jr. Fowler's Publicity. New York: Publicity Publishing Co.
Fredericq, P. De Secten der Geselaars en der Dansers in de Nederlanden tijdens de 14de eeuw. Brussels.
Gibson, W. H. Eye Spy: Afield with Nature among Flowers and Animate Things. Harpers. $2.50.
Gillis, J. A. The Hawaiian Incident: An Examination of Mr. Cleveland's Attitude toward the Revolution of 1893. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 75c.
Fair, Kind and True. By Junius, jr. Scranton, Pa.: "Republican" Print.
Higginson, Ella. From the Land of the Snow-Pearls: Tales from Puget Sound. Macmillan. $1.50.
Hillhouse, Lizzie P. House Plants, and How to Succeed with Them. New York: A. T. Delamare Publishing Co. $1.
Horton, George. Constantine: A Tale of Greece under King Otho. Chicago: Way & Williams. 1.25.
Hovey, H. C., and Call, R. E. The Mammoth Cave of Kentucky: An Illustrated Manual. Louisville: J. P. Morton & Co. 50c.
Kerr, Joe. "The World Over." G. W. Dillingham & Co. 50c.
King, Rev. H. M. The Baptism of Roger Williams. Providence: Preston & Rounds Co.
Miller, Mrs. Jenness. The Philosopher of Driftwood: A Novel. Washington: Jenness Miller Publications. $1.50.
Morley, Margaret W. A Few Familiar Flowers. Boston: Ginn & Co. 70c.
Morris, W. O'C. Hannibal, Soldier, Statesman, Patriot. Putnams. $1.50.
Mulder, J. J., and Frederichs, J. Twee Verhandelingen over de Inquisitie in de Nederlanden tijdens de 16de eeuw. Ghent: J. Vuylsteke.
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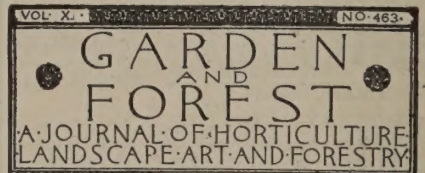

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The Nation.

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The Week.

The closing days of the tariff debate brought out some good speeches in the Senate, none more effective than the protest of Mr. Pettigrew of South Dakota against the duty of $2 a thousand on white pine, which is double the rate fixed in the McKinley law. This will shut out Canadian lumber, and enable a few owners of timber in Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota to pocket millions of dollars a year from the many thousands of people in this country who must buy lumber. "It is a tax," said Mr. Pettigrew, "not to go into the Treasury, but a tax of $2 on a thousand to be paid into the pockets of these enormously rich men who own the timber," and he asked his Republican colleagues, "How can you justify it? How can you go before the consumers in the States where this lumber is situated and justify it?" The Senator from South Dakota declared that "the bill is full of just such propositions from beginning to end," and expressed this opinion of the measure as a whole, which will be endorsed by impartial people who have carefully studied it:

> "I have watched the passage through the two houses of Congress of the last three or four tariff bills. I was in the other house in 1883, and in this body in 1890 and 1894, when tariff bills were passed, and now again during the pendency of this bill, and this is the worst tariff bill ever conceived or produced. As tariff bills are produced, their framers become more expert in juggling with phrases, covering up what they intend to do and so fixing them that the classes will be enabled to plunder the masses."

In his opening speech on the tariff conference report, Mr. Dingley said without a blush that "he regretted that the Senate had not allowed the retroactive clause of the bill to stand, at least until the bill was about to become a law, because if it had remained, $25,000,000 would have been saved to the Treasury." This was an avowal that the retroactive clause was a "bluff," intended to scare importers from the exercise of their legal rights. So it was said at the time by the opponents of the clause. It was affirmed that Congress had no intention of passing such a provision, and that it would be rejected by the courts if passed. Now it is admitted that the main object was to intimidate importers. But would the Treasury have gained $20,000,000 in this sneaking, underhand way? It is impossible to think so. Any merchant or manufacturer possessing the capital or credit to make importations in advance of his wants would have done so in either case, relying on the courts to upset an obviously unconstitutional act. The only thing that the Government has lost has been a long-drawn litigation, with a prospect of humiliating defeat in the end.

Mr. Dingley's cry for haste with the tariff, on the ground that every day's delay meant a loss to the Treasury of $100,000, sounds hollow in the face of the actual returns. In New York the receipts for Dingley's first day were $128,000, as against $361,000 for Wilson's last day—a clear loss of more than $200,000 caused by the advent of Dingley. Taking the figures for the country as a whole, the comparison is still more instructive. On July 20, when Dingley was clamoring for speed with his tariff to save the Treasury from loss, the receipts from customs were $1,679,631; on July 21, $2,433,435; on July 22, $1,153,890. Mr. Dingley's first full day, July 26, brought in $674,521—in other words, a loss to the Treasury of $900,000 a day, taking the average of the three days when he was shouting that every day's delay cost the Government $100,000. The deficit for July up to date is $10,000,000, and would be much larger but for the extraordinary receipts under the Wilson bill. When the unaided Dingley bill gets to work, we shall have some magnificent monthly deficits to carry the fall elections with.

The Senate committee to investigate the civil-service system has discontinued operations until next fall. It has conspicuously failed in the object of its appointment, which was to discredit the reform. In point of fact, its work has been distinctly favorable to the merit system, as must be the case with every investigation. For example, the Government Printing-Office, with its thousands of employees, has been the object of special assaults by those who would restore the old régime of appointment through political "pull," but the evidence taken as to this establishment has conclusively proved that the application of the civil-service rules has resulted in a great saving of money as well as a marked increase of efficiency. Senator Pritchard and his colleagues of the investigating committee will doubtless make a feint of further effort to establish the spoilsmen's case, but they must see, like everybody else, how hopeless is such a task.

The committees of the House resemble those of the last House almost as closely as differences in membership will permit. There is scarcely a change in the chairmanships of the dozen or fifteen most important. The list illustrates afresh the great advantage which a district gains from keeping its Representative long in service, since a man of only moderate ability will thus ultimately work his way to a committee position of importance. One reason why New York has fared so poorly in comparison with Maine in this matter is the strength of the "rotation-in-office" principle in this State, as against the pronounced tendency down East to reëlect a Representative term after term. New York fares rather better than usual in the committee assignments this time, and one reason is the fact that an uncommonly large proportion of the present delegation are old members.

Poor Mr. Sherman, on his way to Amagansett, leaves behind him a train of interviews on the subject of the famous Bering Sea dispatch and cognate questions. He says that he did sign the dispatch, and that it was the subject of careful consideration between himself and the President, and that they were in full accord about it. This puts the responsibility for the "shirt-sleeves dispatch" where it must fall eventually, because the President is responsible in a peculiar sense for our relations with foreign governments. We are sorry to believe that that dispatch embodies Mr. McKinley's ideas of what belongs to the dignity of the nation, but, however that may be, there are still some unsolved mysteries connected with it. One is the question how Mr. Sherman came to tell Mr. Smalley, the London *Times's* correspondent, that there was no such dispatch in existence; that is, no dispatch of an irritating character. The other is how the dispatch came to be published. Perhaps Mr. Sherman does not consider it irritating to accuse your correspondent of bad faith. Even prize-fighters think differently. The correspondence that passed between the backers of Corbett and Fitzsimmons was much aggravated by charges of this kind. According to one interview, Mr. Sherman is convinced that Lord Salisbury does not consider it irritating, because he has not answered it at all, and that the only persons ruffled by it are the editors of the English newspapers. On the whole, we think that it is time for Mr. Sherman to take a vacation.

The answer of the Japanese Minister to Secretary Sherman's note of June 25 is a calm discussion of the legal and diplomatic questions involved. Minister Hoshi spikes the Jingo gun, and wrings the soul of Roosevelt, by repeating that "Japan has absolutely no designs of any kind whatever inimical to Hawaii." Japan has, in fact, no motive in interven-

ing in the annexation business except to safeguard the rights of 25,000 of her subjects resident in the islands. That is no crime; it is not even an insult, warranting Mr. Roosevelt in organizing the naval militia on the great lakes for the purpose of repelling the Japanese ironclads when they appear in those waters. Mr. Sherman had asserted that the "vested rights" of the Japanese in Hawaii would be respected by this country. The Japanese Minister now asks him what he means by "vested rights." Does he mean what Mr. Bayard meant in 1886 when he told the German Minister that this country would expect "the well-established rights" of its citizens in the Pacific islands, then put under a German protectorate, to be respected? Mr. Bayard explained the phrase to mean that American citizens would not be disturbed in their rights of residence or intercourse or discriminated against. If Secretary Sherman intends to adopt this American contention, well and good. But the Japanese Minister fears that nothing of the kind is intended; that the extension of our naturalization and immigration and customs and navigation laws to Hawaii would work serious harm to Japanese interests, and that the pending claims of Japan against Hawaii would be difficult of collection after annexation. If these fears are groundless, it is for Mr. Sherman to say so, and give a guarantee that they are. Japan is perfectly within her rights in wanting to know about this; she would be derelict in her duty if she did not want to know.

Silver bullion in London touched on Wednesday the lowest point in its history, selling at 26⅜ pence per ounce, as against 27 pence, its previous lowest, in March, 1894. During the break in silver in 1894, wheat sold in New York at 60 cents per bushel, a decline of 7 cents since the opening of that year. The bimetallists made much of this simultaneous decline in wheat and silver. It was in vain that students of the commercial markets pointed out the fact that the world's wheat crop of 1893 had turned out 61,000,000 bushels larger than the crop of 1892, and that the outlook for 1894 favored an even larger yield. As a matter of fact, the United States alone, in 1894, produced 50,000,000 bushels more wheat than it produced in 1893, while the whole world yielded 50,500,000 bushels more wheat than in 1893, and 121,500,000 more than in 1892. But this did not convince the bimetallists. Wheat and silver were declining in price together—what further proof could be asked by a reasonable man?

These *post-hoc* reasoners must now consider the present movement of the markets. Silver bullion is selling in London exactly 5¼ pence per ounce below the price of a year ago; wheat in New York is selling 18½ cents higher than it sold a year ago. The student of statistics is as ready now as he was in 1894 to explain the reason for both movements; he will point out that the world's wheat yield of the past season fell nearly ninety million bushels under that of 1895, and that the outlook for this season's harvest, in the world at large, foreshadows no increase, and possibly a further shortage. As for the decline in silver, he needs to point only to the fact that American exports of silver bullion, for the twelve months ending June 30, 1897, have increased $1,400,000 over the same twelve months a year ago, and $14,600,000 over 1895; this, too, at a moment when the world at large is dispensing rapidly with the use of silver.

It is encouraging to find that an effective fight is to be made, in at least one State in the South, against the threatened relapse into barbarism through lynch law. While the Mayor of Griffin says that he would have helped to lynch a negro the other day if he had known that the outrage was to be committed outside of the city limits, and the editor of an Atlanta daily applauds those who hang and even burn men accused of crime, the Governor of Georgia issues a manly protest against the practice, in which he impresses upon the people "the enormity of the wrong done by so-called lynch law to the reputation of the State, to civilization, and to the rights of man." Gov. Atkinson tells officers of the law that it is their duty to take the lives of their assailants, if necessary to protect prisoners in their charge, and urges the passage of a law requiring a thorough investigation in every case of lynching, and providing adequate punishment when the officer falls short of the full measure of his duty. Georgia has a Governor of whom it ought to be proud, and it must be that the people will in the end rally to his support. Hopeful signs that this will happen are found in the vigorous expressions of opinion against lynching by leading citizens of the State which are contained in a letter from Atlanta published in the *Evening Post* of Saturday.

The tendency to impose what are essentially legislative powers and duties upon the judiciary suffers a check in Connecticut at the hands of the judiciary itself, through a decision just rendered by the Supreme Court. A law had been passed providing that, when a street-railway company wants to begin business, it shall submit its plans to the city council, which has sixty days within which to establish regulations for the location, construction, and operation of the line; but that, if the council shall not act within this period, any judge of the Superior Court, upon application from the company, may exercise the same powers. Such a contingency arose in Norwalk, and Judge Hall decided how the road should be located and constructed. The Supreme Court annuls his action, on the ground that the law under which he proceeded is unconstitutional, because it imposes upon the judiciary powers which are essentially legislative, whereas such powers are explicitly restricted by the Constitution to the legislative branch of the government. In this case only the duty of making certain regulations as to the conduct of a street railway was immediately at stake, but the decision holds that the whole question of a separation of the three departments of the government was involved, and that "the power to make the Superior Court a subordinate legislative body for one purpose involves the power to so utilize it for every purpose."

The Counsel for the Corporation of Brooklyn has rendered an opinion which is certainly in the interest of humanity. The people of New York have ordained in their Constitution that goods produced by convicts shall not be sold or given away to any person, firm, or corporation. But they also ordained that such goods might be disposed of "to the State or any political division thereof, or for or to any public institution owned or managed and controlled by the State or any political division thereof." The municipalities of the State are, of course, corporations, and are thus prohibited by name from using convict-made goods, unless such municipalities are "political divisions of the State." The opinion just rendered is to the effect that cities are such political divisions. The debates in the constitutional convention plainly show that it was believed that the public institutions in the various cities would make use of the prison products. Indeed, it is not improbable that this belief led to the adoption of the clause in the Constitution which forbade the traffic in these products. Moreover, the Legislature explicitly ordained that the labor of the convicts in the penitentiaries should be devoted primarily to the counties in which the penitentiaries were located, "and to the towns, cities, and villages therein." It further provided that the prices of these products furnished to the political subdivisions of the counties should be fixed, in New York and Kings Counties, by the Commissioners of Charities and Correction. It seems, however, that the county of Kings is restrained by law from purchasing supplies, and hence the duty would necessarily devolve on the authorities of the city of Brooklyn, or else the statute would be futile. While the possibility of this result does not make the statute constitutional, it is of some weight in determining the question. If the statute is unconstitutional, the fate of our con-

victs promises to be miserable in the extreme, for there would then be no way of providing them with any regular useful employment, and we might as well set up the tread-mill once more.

The managers of our transportation companies are so constantly the subjects of denunciation that it seems a rather irregular thing to praise them; nevertheless, they are occasionally exposed to such treatment. The New York Central Railroad Company, for instance, has settled some claims made against it by the village of Frankfort in a manner which can only be described as generous. It seems that when the West Shore Railway was constructed, the people of Frankfort expended $77,000 in buying the site on which the repair-shops of that railway were erected, supposing, of course, that these shops would be permanently used, and that the population of the village would be thus increased. As a matter of fact, the population did increase, and the village spent nearly $77,000 more in building a school-house and constructing water works. The Central Railroad, which had bought the property of the West Shore at foreclosure sale, found after a time that the Frankfort shops could not be advantageously maintained, and transferred the machinery elsewhere, thus causing a great decrease in the population of the village and in the value of property situated there. It seems probable from the manner in which the Central Road acquired the property of the West Shore that it could not have been compelled by the village of Frankfort to maintain its shops there. At all events, it could have resisted such a claim in the courts and delayed its adjudication indefinitely. Instead of doing so, it has agreed to turn over all its unused shops and lands at Frankfort to the citizens, to be leased by them to manufacturing establishments; to pay one-third of the water-works bonds; and to assume the payment of the whole of the debt incurred for the school building. Damages for breach of this agreement are fixed at $100,000. It is reported to be the general opinion at Frankfort that the Central Road has behaved very honorably in this matter, and this opinion will not be confined to that village. Money spent in such a way by a railroad brings a return in public favor which may be worth more in the end than a legal victory.

It takes some weeks after the adjournment of a Legislature to fathom all the absurdities in the way of lawmaking which it has perpetrated. In Nebraska what is called a life certificate for a teacher—that is, a voucher of fitness for service, which, once received, answers for all time—has hitherto been granted to any graduate of the State university or State normal school who has proved his efficiency by actual teaching experience, and to other experienced teachers who have successfully passed the required examination. It has just been discovered that an act was pushed through the last Legislature without attracting notice, which authorizes the issue of such certificates on presentation of diplomas granted by private normal schools which make a showing that they are possessed of property valued at $100,000. The idea that the ownership of a fixed amount of property insures a high standard of education on the part of an institution is only less grotesque than in the case of a man. The finishing touch of this extraordinary performance is the fact that the recognition of "the money power" was made by a Legislature in which the Populists held absolute control.

That is a fine point in theology which the Hod-Hoisting Engineers' Union has propounded to Bishop Potter—"If a church or cathedral be built by non-union men, should it be attended by union worshippers?" The matter is not so simple as it might look. A sense of peace—peace "with myself, the world, and Thee," as the hymn says—is essential to the spirit of true worship. But how could a union worshipper be at peace with the world, or even with himself, when within walls which unhallowed non-union hands had reared? Such a man would come under the Scriptural injunction bidding worshippers who have aught against their brother to go first and be reconciled to him—in this case, to go out and revile him as a "scab" and take his job away from him. The Hod-Hoisters do well to call attention to these matters, and a stanch upholder of trades unions like Bishop Potter will find it hard to say why churches should not wear the union label, as well as bread and shoes. Here is a great chance, undoubtedly, to bring the masses to church. Let everything about the sacred edifice be guaranteed strictly union-made; let the Scripture lesson be slightly altered so as to read, "Except the Union build the house, they labor in vain that build it," and the problem would be solved. At any rate, if workingmen do not flock to the Cathedral of St. John the Divine when it is completed, their excuse and justification will be, before the world—non-union men were employed in constructing it. Moreover, they can truthfully say that they warned the ecclesiastical authorities in time.

In the House of Commons on Monday, on a motion to pursue the inquiry into the Jameson raid, Mr. Chamberlain defiantly eulogized Rhodes, affirming that he had "done nothing to affect his personal character as a man of honor," and asserting that the Government proposed to honor him instead of punishing him; and the House, by a vote of 304 to 77, negatived Mr. Stanhope's motion to push the inquiry to the end. This, be it remembered, was only a few days after Mr. Hawksley, Rhodes's solicitor, had openly challenged the Commons to call upon him, if it dared, for the tell-tale telegrams in his possession. The fact that the Liberal leaders acquiesced in this cowardly policy of hushing up the inquiry can be accounted for only on one supposition. It is the one openly asserted in the Continental press, namely, that the telegrams would have involved members of the royal family as well as the Government.

No more striking testimony to the benefits conferred on Egypt by the English occupation has been given than that of the son of a man who was exiled for deeds committed in support of the revolt of Arabi Pasha. Writing to an Arabic journal, in reply to an attack made by another Arabic journal on the English, this person enumerates the following differences between the present and the past condition of the Egyptian people. Formerly the Government collected taxes to the amount of nearly $23 per feddan, or acre; now the taxes are about $7.50 per feddan. Formerly the rulers insulted, flogged, and imprisoned the subjects with impunity; to-day the poorest peasant is protected against assault, and corporal punishment is abolished. Formerly the peasants were plundered by the whole body of office-holders; now not even the Khedive can take a piece of land without the owner's consent. The rulers formerly monopolized the Nile water for the irrigation of their own lands, but under the present government the poorest fellah has the same water rights as the highest dignitary. Offices were formerly given to those who paid the most for them, but they are now allotted to the most capable. The public lands and the public funds were treated by the Khedive as his own possessions, while they are now preserved for the common advantage. The Khedive and his officers and friends used to compel the fellaheen to dig canals and construct embankments for the improvement of their private estates, in addition to what was required of them for public purposes, whereas labor is now compulsory only in times of danger. Several other particulars are mentioned in this remarkable tribute to the advantages of orderly government over despotism, which concludes:

"Such are the benefits of the British occupation, and I do not understand how the pretended patriots who run counter to the existing régime can deny their existence, seeing that they shine as the sun at noonday. The pretended patriots would do better by keeping silence and leaving the occupiers of the country to complete their humanitarian work."

THE PROPOSED MONETARY COMMISSION.

As the extra session drew to a close, it was evident that Mr. McKinley had fatally inverted the order of his subjects. If he had really and intelligently had the reform of the currency at heart, there is no doubt that he could have secured it, or at least a long step towards it, by giving it first place and pushing it with all his power. To have secured the appointment of a currency commission would have been a simple affair. Even some positive legislation might have been obtained, if Mr. McKinley had thrown himself into the task with the same absorbing energy that Mr. Cleveland expended on the Herculean labor of getting *his* extra session to repeal the Sherman law. He would have had with him the gathered impetus of the great electoral victory, of months of discussion, of an aroused and expectant public sentiment. But all this he threw away when, reversing the order of his letter of acceptance, reversing the order of his inaugural address, he put the tariff first before Congress and gave to currency reform not so much as the honor of a passing reference. His tacit orders to sacrifice everything to the tariff have been but too well obeyed. Keeping back his currency message to the end of the session, he finds that it, too, has been sacrificed to the tariff. The keepers of his honor in the Senate made pledges that no such message should be sent, or that, if it were sent, the Republicans in that body would pay no attention to it. The tariff has not been jeopardized, but everything else, including the President's authority, has been.

The closing scene of the session had something of the appearance of a farce. The oft-heralded message on the subject of a currency commission was sent in a few hours before adjournment. The House passed, practically without debate, a bill to carry it into effect. The Senate paid no attention to it, although a few Senators made contemptuous allusions to it, and adjourned after merely referring it to a committee. The subject therefore goes over to the next session. It all looks like a put-up job, as though there had been no intention or expectation of doing anything except to present the appearance of taking an interest in the question of currency reform. The text of the message shows that it is only a languid interest at best. Indeed, the message is at cross-purposes with itself. It says that "the soundness of our currency is nowhere questioned." If that is true, what is a currency commission wanted for? They that are whole need no physician, but they that are sick. The sole and only reason why an amendment is needed is because the soundness of the currency is questioned —because every condition which has made it an object of apprehension and terror in the past exists to-day so far as its own constitution goes—because any untoward event in the commercial world may bring on the same spasms that were experienced in 1893-'94-'95. If nobody questions the soundness of the currency, Congress was justified in adjourning without taking any action on the message, and Senator Aldrich was justified in the sneering remarks attributed to him regarding it.

We believe, nevertheless, that the President was entirely sincere in sending the message, and that when he said that the soundness of the currency is nowhere questioned he meant its soundness to-day, or for some short period while the gold reserve lasts. We believe, too, that if he had a little more firmness, or if the pesky Congressmen had let him alone, he would have sent in the message much earlier, so that at least a debate might have been had on it sufficient to start a similar discussion in the country. All the advantages that might have been reaped from such a debate will now be lost, and the course of the Administration in reference to the subject will be exposed to something like ridicule. At all events the Bryanites will say that all the talk about the need of currency reform is insincere, and they will point to the message, and the time and manner of its reception by Congress, as a fizzle.

Of course, the matter cannot be allowed to rest here. Something must be done to rescue the Administration, if not the currency, from the present trouble. We read in the papers that Mr. H. H. Hanna is about to call his committee together to put in train the steps that were indicated by the resolution of the Indianapolis convention. That resolution required the appointment of a commission similar to the one recommended by President McKinley in the event that Congress should fail to appoint one. We read in the papers, also, that Secretary Gage will be prepared to recommend a plan of his own when Congress meets in regular session, and this, we have reason to believe, is true. As both the Secretary and the Indianapolis people are working to the same end, it is obvious that they ought not to work at cross purposes. Harmony among the friends of sound money is indispensable. They will have hard enough work to carry any plan. Two different plans would work the ruin of both. Therefore, Mr. Hanna's committee, in our judgment, ought to take no step that does not meet the full concurrence of the Secretary.

So much time has been lost by waiting and so much influence squandered by dabbling with international bimetallism, that the chances are against any action whatever on the part of Congress. If the country is fairly prosperous, as now seems probable, thanks to large crops and good prices, the pressure to do something in the way of currency reform will be removed. Congressmen will say things are going right; why disturb them? Most of them will be deaf to the suggestion that trouble will come at some future time. The future does not concern the Congressman of to-day. The primaries of the present, not those of the future, renominate him. Present dangers, not future ones, are those which have influence with him. There is one possible danger, however, which may bring Congress to a realizing sense of the situation. If the revenues of the next two years are not equal to the expenditures, a currency crisis will supervene, even if times are good. The Treasury subsists on its income. If this is not equal to the outgo, the deficiency must come out of the reserve, and, when this begins to decline, the gold will begin to disappear. Then, if not before, there will be a fresh commotion about the currency and a fresh agitation for its amendment.

THE NEW TARIFF AND THE REVENUE.

The Dingley tariff bill is a fresh instance of the recklessness with which the problem of the exchequer is handled by American statesmen. On no point has the party now in power insisted more strenuously than on the need of a substantial surplus revenue. The Republican leaders have not confined their argument to exposition of the general inconvenience of a Treasury deficit; they have reasoned with much force that the currency disturbances of the past few years, the drain on the Government's gold reserve, and the consequent uneasiness in the financial markets, arose directly from the heavy shortage in the revenue. Spokesmen of the majority party have, in fact, not stopped with explanations of what the party ought to do for a surplus revenue, or even with promises of what it would do; they have publicly threatened the party in case it failed to do what was necessary. "The committee," said Senator Aldrich, on May 26, introducing the Senate bill, "believe it to be the imperative duty of Congress to provide in the measure under consideration for a revenue which will certainly meet the requirements of the Government for the next fiscal year. The adoption of a revenue bill which should fail in this purpose, and which should create an additional deficiency in the immediate future, . . . would certainly be fatal to the hopes of future success of any political party responsible for such legislation."

This is strong language; yet, in the face of this warning by the Republican leader of the Senate, Congress has passed a revenue measure from which every trustworthy expert anticipates a deficit. We do not of course include among the expert estimates Mr. Dingley's ridiculous claim that customs revenue, under

his bill, would increase $113,479,793 over the revenue of 1896. Senator Aldrich, the best authority among the Republicans, has sufficiently punctured that pretended calculation, and has shown conclusively that Mr. Dingley made no allowances for decrease in importations as a result of increased duties. In other words, Mr. Dingley framed a bill to exclude foreign products, and then calmly proceeded to reckon a customs revenue based on precisely the same volume of dutiable imports as came in before the duties were advanced. We may safely leave his absurdities to the mercy of the Republican experts in the Senate.

Mr. Aldrich calculated from the Senate bill, which was very nearly as large a revenue-producer as the Dingley measure, a deficit of $29,175,000 for the current fiscal year. To avert such deficit, he made an urgent plea for a new revenue duty on tea and an internal tax on beer, both taxes to stand only until 1900. With these additional taxes, the yield of which is easy to compute, he estimated a narrow surplus of $2,725,028, and supplemented this estimate with the solemn warning which we have quoted. The Senate immediately rejected all the proposed new revenue taxes, and the conference committee framed the bill without them. Finally, a thorough estimate was made by the Senate experts and the Bureau of Statistics, based, not on the importations of a single year, but on the average of the last six years, and making full allowance for the anticipatory importations before the bill should pass.

This estimate, as revised, figures out $169,000,000 customs revenue for the current fiscal year, or $16,000,000 less than the customs yield for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1897. Now let it be considered that the appropriations made in the last Congress, and approved in the present session, for the same fiscal year, run $14,237,836 over the appropriations for the fiscal year 1897. Let it be noticed, also, that in the fiscal year just closed there was a deficit of $18,623,108, and it is easy to see what Senator Aldrich had in mind in his warning speech of May 26.

It is always possible that a year of sudden trade revival—especially when such revival takes the form of increased demand for European goods—will raise the revenue above conservative estimates. But this is only a contingent possibility, and is therefore a factor which no maker of Government estimates has a right to take into account. Moreover, the whole history of our Treasury is a warning against optimistic estimates. We append a short table showing the successive December estimates of the Treasury for the revenue of the fiscal year then current, and comparing these estimates with actual results. The fiscal year 1897 is omitted, because its estimate, of course, made no account of the abnormal anticipative customs revenue since last February:

Fiscal year.	Estimated.	Actual.
1896	$431,907,407	$409,475,408
1895	424,427,748	390,373,203
1894	430,121,365	372,802,498
1893	463,336,350	461,716,561
1892	433,000,000	425,868,260

It must be kept in mind that, when these estimates were framed, one-half of the twelve months which they covered had already submitted their returns of revenue. When we come to estimates drawn, like those of Mr. Dingley, in advance even of the passage of the revenue bill, the teaching of our history shows even more forcibly how far the wish is father to the thought. On the day when the McKinley tariff bill passed into law in 1890, Senator Aldrich himself declared: "I now estimate the aggregate annual reduction made by the bill as reported from the conference committee, at from forty-two to forty-three millions of dollars." The result showed a reduction of $52,205,620 in the fiscal year ending June 30, 1892. On July 19, 1894, the Senate finance bill, whose schedules as then reported were left virtually unchanged in conference, was estimated to insure a customs revenue of $179,251,142. In fact, the customs yield for the twelve months ending June 30, 1895, was only $152,158,617, and even in its second year of operation the yield of the tariff fell $19,000,000 below the Senate estimate.

The action of the present Congress places our Government again in the ridiculous position of a business institution which does not know how to manage its own finances. An individual who estimates his next year's income with excessive optimism, and then deliberately raises his scale of living expenses above even his income estimate, will very soon become a chronic visitor at the pawn-shops and the usurers'. A government which does the same thing cannot escape a similar fate. It is impossible that our government should hold its proper place among self-respecting financial states until it reforms completely its present demoralizing budget system.

THE NORTHERN GOLD FIELDS.

The great gold-finds on the Klondike come at a most awkward time for international or any other kind of bimetallism. Next to good crops and good trade, nothing so depresses true bimetallist lovers of their country and their kind as the discovery of fresh gold deposits. It is such an ugly fact to explain away. Japan's going over to the gold standard may plausibly be accounted for, as it was by Senator Stewart, on the ground that "Japan has been bought up." Russia's leaning towards gold has an obvious connection with Russian tyranny. But when vast new quantities of gold are found, to go into that terrible vacuum in the currency which nothing but silver was available to fill, it begins to look as if not only bankers and creditor-nations and the powers of darkness, but Providence also, were on the side of the gold-bugs.

The alleged scarcity, with diminishing production, of gold has been the leading article in the creed of honest bimetallism. For a time it could assert high geological authority in its support. The distinguished Austrian geologist, Prof. Suess, elaborately proved, only a few years ago, that the gold supplies of the earth were gradually giving out, and that no fresh finds of any consequence could be expected. This was shortly before the tremendous increase in the output of South African gold, which of itself was a shattering blow to the bimetallic argument. Now come these undoubtedly rich discoveries in this far-off corner. If they yield, as estimated, $10,000,000 a year in gold, there alone we should have an addition to the currency half as great as that made by the Sherman law of blessed memory—and they would be full-weight dollars, too, none of your fifty-cent shame-faced token-dollars.

As we say, all this is most ill-timed for international bimetallism. Senator Wolcott's smile, we venture to say, narrows perceptibly as he reads the telegrams in the London papers giving an account of the Klondike gold fields. This thing is playing scandalously into Lord Salisbury's hand. It was bad enough before. The trade and Treasury returns in England for the first quarter of the fiscal year were showing a degree of prosperity most embarrassing to bimetallic logic. The estimates of the Chancellor of the Exchequer had been surpassed by more than $6,000,000. Then there was the unpleasant news from America of good crops and high prices for them. With Nebraska and Kansas farmers paying off their mortgages by the million, how could international bimetallism be expected to make headway? When on top of all this came the authentic accounts of the great discoveries of gold on the tributaries of the Yukon, Senator Wolcott must have been tempted to exclaim with the psalmist, "Lord, how are they increased that trouble me!"

This financial and political aspect of the question is doubtless the most important and instructive for us; but it has another highly suggestive side. These gold finds are in British territory. The Klondike flows into the Yukon near the Alaskan boundary, and the gold has been discovered mainly along its course in the Northwest Territory. Yet the successful miners, the men who come home with tales of fabulous wealth attained in a few weeks, are largely American citizens. That is to say, they are "aliens," "foreign devils," allowed to go freely into British territory and

carry away its chief treasure without let or hindrance. Imagine the case reversed. Imagine the gold fields on our side of the Alaskan border, and Englishmen swarming in to despoil us. What shrieks to high heaven and appeals to Congress there would be! We should have laws in a twinkling to make all alien miners pay nine-tenths of their findings into our Treasury. We should tax them heavily to get into the territory, and not let them get out without paying the uttermost farthing. What some of our States have done in the way of legislation to make aliens smart for lending us capital and developing our resources, fairly indicates what we would do in the case supposed. This stupid English indifference to the nationality of the man extracting wealth from English soil would never be the policy of a wide-awake and paternal and strictly look-out-for-number-one American Government.

The incident throws light on the terrible "land-grabbing" propensity of England. She grabs everywhere, but she throws what she grabs open to all the world. She is well known to grab with peculiar fury when it is a question of getting a bit of gold-bearing land; that always drives her frantic. But, as the Klondike gold-finds show, she lets foreigners come and help themselves to the gold after she has grabbed it. She polices the territory acquired; she makes life and property safe there; she establishes courts; she fosters education and religion; but she gives Frenchmen, Germans, Italians, or even her dearest foes, Americans, the same rights there as Englishmen. This is a policy of incredible silliness, according to American standards. It might be justified on the theory that law and international policy are intended to promote trade and industry, and make human liberty and happiness as secure as possible; but we know that theory to be entirely mistaken. Laws exist for the purpose of discriminating against foreigners, and causing misery in foreign cities, as McKinley boasted that his tariff had done. International relations are to be so managed that every nation's hand will be against its fellow. This being the American conception, and, therefore, the true conception, the obsoleteness, the isolation, the supreme folly of the English policy are clearly proved—and that, of course, is the main thing.

OUR NATIONAL UNIVERSITY.

The address at the opening of the Clark University summer school in Worcester, Mass., the other day was delivered by Senator Hoar, who improved the occasion to make a plea for the establishment of a new educational institution in America. He recalled the fact that, in his last conversation with Agassiz, the great naturalist expressed his surprise that there was no institution in this country where a competent knowledge of international law or of the history or methods of international diplomacy was taught, and the Senator said that he supposed this to be as true now as it was then. "Where," he asked, "is an American legislator or statesman to learn anything of the mechanism of government as it exists in other countries, or, indeed, of a great deal of it as it exists in his own?"

Mr. Hoar referred to the existence of schools abroad, where what, for want of a better name, is called comparative politics is taught, which he supposed to supply in some measure this want to their pupils, and insisted that "we need such an institution in America." He proceeded thus to outline what he had in mind:

> "The cost of its foundation cannot be great. We have men who have large training in our own public life, such men as Senator Allison, or Senator Hale, or Senator Cockrell, or Senator Gorman, who might easily fit themselves to conduct such an institution. A chair in such a university would be an object of high ambition for the most eminent of our statesmen, when he should withdraw from active political life. Such a school established in America would, in my opinion, attract pupils from the whole civilized world. It would be a valuable instructor to the nations south of us, who are growing so rapidly in the art of self-government and taking their honored place in the great family of republics. Europe in such a school would have much to teach, and much also to learn."

It would be difficult to imagine a more curious illustration of blindness to existing conditions than is afforded by these remarks of Mr. Hoar. The Massachusetts Senator is airing theories which would have been timely when our government was established, but which are nothing short of absurd when brought out in 1897. The "fathers of the republic" believed that there was a science of government, that trained statesmen were requisite to its successful administration, that a new nation had much to learn both from the past and from its contemporaries in other parts of the world. The "mechanism of government," as they conceived of it, was to be learned only by careful study of our own Constitution and of the methods pursued in other nations; and a national university, where instruction of this sort should be given, would have been an institution in keeping with the times in which they lived.

Such an institution was never established, and yet we have to-day a national university in which "comparative politics" is taught. It has its seat at Washington. Its head—who is sometimes little more than a figurehead—lives in the White House. The professors give instruction in the capitol. There are branches in Harrisburg, Albany, Springfield, and dozens of other State capitals. It is in intimate association with the city halls of hundreds of municipalities. Its professors are men of the ripest knowledge and fullest experience in the science to which they have devoted themselves. While they often manifest a disposition to perform some of their experiments secretly, their work for the most part must come to the knowledge of the people. This great university, from day to day and week to week, is teaching the "mechanism of government" by object-lessons which command universal attention. No endowment for any new establishment is required, nor need Senator Gorman, or any other of "the most eminent of our statesmen," wait until he withdraws from active political life for a chance to give instruction.

Senator Hoar lamented the fact that "we encounter the trained servants of England and Germany and France, even of Turkey, with an improvised diplomacy," and that "we are expected to do in a hurry, with untrained instruments, that which foreign countries do at leisure, with the instrumentality of experienced servants, who have the best training the world can give." This is one of the defects that he would have supplied by the institution for theoretical instruction which he wants to have established. But of what use would it be to train men laboriously in the methods of diplomacy followed by the rest of the world, when the faculty of our real national university teach their pupils that this sort of thing is "played out," and that the man who never paid any attention to our foreign relations is the man best fitted to conduct them?

Senator Hoar maintained that "we want to know, for our own constant instruction and profit, in regard to every civilized nation," a long list of things which he specified, "in order that we may have for convenient reference and instruction the particulars of the legislative, executive, and judicial mechanism of all the governments of the world." But where would be the use of all this when our real national university has for its motto, "What do we care for abroad?"

"The method of enacting laws" is one of the subjects which Mr. Hoar would have Senator Gorman and other of "our most eminent statesmen," after their retirement, teach from chairs in his new institution. But they are teaching this subject a thousand times more effectively now, as professors in our real national university. What need is there for lectures as to how statesmen shall construct a tariff law for the benefit of a great nation when Jones of Nevada is showing the country the real way in which such a measure is framed by the member of the finance committee who holds the balance of power, and when Burrows of Michigan is standing out successfully for an extra duty of $1 a thousand on white pine, in order that a few rich lumbermen may pocket several million dollars a year more than they would get at the lower rate?

Senator Hoar's appeal for a new institution to teach "comparative politics" is an insult to that real national university in which such great authorities on the science of government as Gorman and Platt and Quay are the chief teachers. Moreover, his idea of an institution where the statesman emeritus gives instruction is absurd. It is only the statesman in active service who can teach effectively, because only he knows the methods of government which prevail at any given time. The retired statesman is retired because he could not "keep up with the procession." It is the "up-to-date" politician alone who understands and can expound the "mechanism of government." Our real national university, as now conducted, covers the whole field.

MADAME GEOFFRIN.—II.

PARIS, July 14, 1897.

Madame Geoffrin's salon became a centre of attraction for distinguished foreigners who lived for a while in Paris. Among them may be cited Lady Hervey, the friend of Horace Walpole, and Walpole himself. Lady Hervey gives a good portrait of Madame Geoffrin in a letter to Hume, in January, 1764. (It figures in the 'Letters of Eminent Persons Addressed to D. Hume,' 1849.) Hume himself, who was for a time Secretary of the British Embassy in Paris, became a friend and remained, after his return to England, a correspondent of Madame Geoffrin, who calls him familiarly "gros drôle" in her letters. Walpole's enthusiasm for Madame Geoffrin was of short duration; he writes to his friend Conway that he speedily became disgusted with a house where he met all the beaux-esprits and the savants, whom he found impertinent and dogmatic. It is probable that Madame du Deffand helped to change the feelings of Walpole; the two ladies were rivals, and Walpole had too much taste and refinement not to appreciate the superiority of Madame du Deffand to Madame Geoffrin. Walpole preferred what would be called nowadays the pessimism of Madame du Deffand to the robust optimism of Madame Geoffrin, and her candid admiration for all crowned heads—Russian, Austrian, or Polish.

Madame Geoffrin was a good friend, but she had singular theories about friendship. The Abbé Galiani, who had become quite a Parisian, said of her: "Madame Geoffrin has a mania for detesting unfortunate people, as she will not be made unhappy by the sight of other people's misfortunes. This arises from a fine cause: she is sensitive, she is old, she is in good health; she wishes to preserve her health and her quiet. As soon as she learns that I am happy, she will love me *à la folie*." She says of herself in a letter: "As for me, I only try to put my sensibility to sleep." Her reign in her own salon and in her circle of friends was very despotic. She had a certain way at her own table of saying, "Voilà qui est bien," which everybody understood, and which meant that she found that a discussion or a story had lasted long enough, and that she wished it to stop. One day the young Count de Coigny, at supper, entered upon a long story devoid of interest; Madame Geoffrin gave signs of impatience, and, wishing to make a diversion, asked him to carve a chicken. Her pains were lost, for he continued his monologue while drawing from his pocket a knife no longer than a penknife. This time Madame Geoffrin lost her patience. "Monsieur le Comte," said she, with her dry, distinct voice, "to succeed in this country, people must have long knives and short stories."

Madame Geoffrin seems to have been an excellent business woman. The archives of the famous glass manufacture of Saint-Gobain tell us that in 1757 the society passed through a difficult crisis, through the fault of the director. One of the partners, M. Gombault, comes one day in great trouble of mind to Madame Geoffrin. "Madame," he says, as soon as he sees her, "all is lost." Madame Geoffrin coolly opens a window on the street. "Why, sir, if all is lost, let us throw ourselves out of the window." And, as M. Gombault did not seem inclined to do so, "then," she continued, "let us dismiss the charlatans and play the cards you have. Take the best man you have, M. Deslandes." M. Gombault was struck with the advice; he appointed M. Deslandes director, and in a short time the manufacture became very prosperous.

Madame Geoffrin married her daughter to the Marquis de la Ferté-Imbault, a descendant of Marshal d'Étampes; the contract was signed on the 18th of February, 1733. The bride received a dower of twenty thousand francs a year. Madame Geoffrin engaged herself besides to "lodge and feed husband and wife, and the children to be born, as well as a valet, a maid, a coachman, and four lackeys, to pay the wages of the domestics, and to clothe them, to provide a stable for two horses." The reunion in the same house was of short duration; a year after the marriage, La Ferté was obliged to make a campaign in Italy; he came back in a consumptive condition, and died on the 26th of March, 1737, leaving a little girl seven months old. Madame de la Ferté became a widow at the age of twenty-two. She resolved to remain in her mother's house, but she had an apartment to herself. They were hardly made to live together. Walpole once saluted Madame Geoffrin with the words, "Oh, Common Sense, be seated!" Madame de la Ferté was virtuous, well behaved, but odd, eccentric, excitable. She despised the Philosophers, friends of her mother, and preferred the *gens de cour;* she moved in the highest society, and was extremely worldly. She spent the winter in Paris, and in summer made visits from château to château, to the Maurepas at Pontchartrain, the Luynes at Dampierre. She excited in the old King Stanislas Leszczynski a great friendship, and paid him a visit at Lunéville, in company with Mademoiselle de la Roche-sur-Yon, an aunt of the Prince de Conti. The King once spoke to her of his wife, who had died a year before, and of his daughter, Marie Leszczynska, the Queen of France. "They certainly were," he said, "the two most tiresome persons I ever met." He excused Louis XV. for having looked for some distraction outside of his family circle. In the Appendix to M. de Ségur's volume there are "Anecdotes of the Reign of Louis XV., from a Manuscript of Madame de la Ferté," which are partly inspired by the confidences of the old King Stanislas. Madame de la Ferté had also among her friends the Abbé de Bernis, who became Cardinal de Bernis, a favorite of Madame de Pompadour and a minister.

Madame Geoffrin counted among the persons with whom she was in correspondence Kaunitz, the Austrian Prime Minister; she was acquainted with Gustavus III., King of Sweden. The archives of St. Petersburg preserve the letters addressed to her by the Empress Catherine of Russia; her letters to the Empress have so far never been found. This correspondence, very active for a time, ceased when Madame Geoffrin imprudently allowed Rulhière to read his 'Anecdotes on the Revolution in Russia' in her salon. Rulhière was secretary to the Baron de Breteuil, Minister of France at St. Petersburg, at the time when Catherine had become Empress, and he was able to give details on the drama of July, 1762. Catherine was informed of this reading by several persons, and did not forgive Madame Geoffrin.

The great event in Mme. Geoffrin's life was her connection with Stanislas Auguste Poniatowski. She had previously known his father. The young Prince brought her a letter of recommendation when he made his first visit to Paris. He was twenty-one years old and handsome. Mme. Geoffrin undertook to protect him from the dangers of Paris; he called her Mamma, and conceived for her a truly filial affection. After his return to Poland, he was appointed, at the age of twenty-five, Ambassador to St. Petersburg, and inspired the Grand Duchess Catherine with a violent passion; she succeeded in placing him afterwards on the throne of Poland. Immediately upon his accession (September 9, 1764), he announced the news to Mme. Geoffrin: "Mamma, your son is King." There is another version: "My dear Mamma, I am King; don't scold me." Mme. Geoffrin was quite intoxicated by this success of her "adopted son." She writes the most hyperbolic letters, she sees in Stanislas a new Henri IV., a new Sully. "My dear son, my dear King, my dear Stanislas Auguste, I adore and embrace you. . . . I really think that I should die with joy if I embraced you. My son, my King! where is the person who can speak thus? I alone!" She began to take an ardent interest in the affairs of Poland. It was no longer enough for her to rule in a little court of artists and writers. In France, she was well aware, her bourgeois condition did not allow her to take any part in the affairs of state. Her attempts in politics with Catherine of Russia had not been successful. Could she not hope to have some influence with a young prince of only thirty years, whom she had known and formed, who had confided everything to her, who called her his mother?

The Duke de Choiseul had not seen without displeasure the election of Stanislas Auguste, which had been accomplished through the combined influences of the cabinets of Berlin and St. Petersburg. The Dauphine of France, Marie Josèphe de Saxe, was the daughter of Augustus III., who had been King of Poland before Stanislas, and the cabinet of Versailles considered the new election a defeat for the house of Saxony, with which it was allied. The new king invited Madame Geoffrin to come to Poland, and, after some hesitation, she determined to make a journey which at that time was not an easy one. Shall she go through Berlin or through Vienna? It becomes an important question. Grimm recommends Berlin, where she will be received with open arms by the Great Frederick, but she does not approve of Frederick. She sees in him "neither a

virtuous nor a great man. . . . In fifty years people will no longer speak of him"—a prediction which can be placed beside Madame de Sévigné's prediction on the subject of Racine: "Le goût en passera, comme du café." She herself decided in favor of Vienna. She started on May 21, 1766, in a great berlin, which had been planned and prepared for a whole year. In Vienna she received many attentions from Kaunitz, and was presented to Maria-Theresa at Schönbrunn, where she saw and admired the Archduchess Marie-Antoinette, who was twelve years old.

The visit to Warsaw did not end as well as it began. The King was full of attentions and as affectionate as in past times; but when Madame Geoffrin undertook to meddle with the politics of the country and to give advice, she soon met with opposition on all sides, and was made to understand that she was but a foreigner. She was, besides, very painfully impressed by the real barbarism, which was ill concealed by a glittering and meddlesome aristocracy, by the condition of the people, of the peasants, who were still in a state of slavery. Altogether, the atmosphere of Poland was not the atmosphere of civilized Paris. We know little or nothing of what really passed between the King and her. The shell of friendship was not broken; they both showed much discretion; but the fact is that, after a sojourn of only three months, Madame Geoffrin returned to France, and that all her friends were struck by the uncontrollable joy she showed on finding herself again among her natural surroundings. Her dream of ambition, if she had had any, was gone, and for ever; she lived now only for her friends and for her daughter. She had an apoplectic stroke in 1776, recovered, and lived about a year more; a new crisis, on the 6th of October, 1777, ended her life. She was buried at St. Roch, in the early morning, without any pomp. She left her fortune to her daughter and a number of legacies to her friends—the most important to D'Alembert, Thomas, and the Abbé Morellet.

THE SCHOOLS OF ARCHÆOLOGY AT ATHENS.—III.

THE AMERICAN SCHOOL OF CLASSICAL STUDIES.*

In April, 1879, certain scholars who were interested in the promotion of the study of classical archæology in America, issued a circular in which announcement was made of a proposition to establish a society for the purpose of furthering and directing archæological investigation and research. The circular also set forth in general terms the objects contemplated and the methods of procedure suggested by the promoters of the undertaking. The proposed institution was to promote and direct archæological investigation and research in a variety of ways: by sending out expeditions for special investigations, by aiding the efforts of independent explorers, by the publication of reports of the results of the expeditions which the Institute might undertake or promote, and by any other means which might from time to time appear desirable. The institution thus called into being was styled the Archæological Institute of America. Its first annual report (Cambridge, 1880) contained important papers by Lewis H. Morgan, W. J. Stillman, and J. T. Clarke. At that time—only seventeen years ago—no instruction was given in archæology at any American university or college; and as one of the objects of the Institute was to promote that study, it suggested the establishment of scholarships of archæology at Harvard, Yale, Columbia, and elsewhere—scholarships similar to the then recent travelling studentship in archæology which was given by Exeter College, Oxford, to W. M. Ramsay, and has brought honor to that ancient university and renown to its holder. This appeal was not wholly unheeded by our universities, and, thanks to it, a number of young men have been enabled to study at the then unborn American School at Athens, to the lasting gain of classical scholarship in America.

But the American School at Athens, if yet unborn, was certainly *in petto*, for in the very first annual report of the Institute we read, among other things:

"France and Germany have their schools at Athens, where young scholars devote themselves, under the guidance of eminent masters, to studies and research in archæology. The results that have followed from this training have been excellent; and it is greatly to be desired, for the sake of American scholarship, that a similar American school may before long enter into honorable rivalry with those already established."

The idea of an American School at Athens, thus publicly suggested for the first time, was not to be a barren one, nor the process of incubation long. The time was ripe therefor, and the promoters of the scheme were destined to see their ambition fulfilled, at least in part, sooner than they had expected, for at the annual meeting on May 21, 1881, a committee, of which John Williams White was chairman, was appointed to devise a plan for the creation at Athens of an American School of Classical Literature, Art, and Antiquities. This committee met on June 22, 1881, and discussed plans; progress was made, but no definite decision was reached on that occasion. At another meeting, held on November 5, 1881, it was felt that, under existing circumstances, it would not be wise to compel the students to pursue exclusively archæological studies at Athens; it was therefore determined to suggest, as the name of the proposed institution, "The American School of Classical Studies at Athens." Accordingly, as the name indicates, a student of the School may study anything that appertains to Greek linguistics, history, architecture, archæology, or antiquities. It was further suggested that the School should be established under the auspices of some of the leading universities and colleges of America, each of which was to agree to pay $250 annually for the support of the School. The money thus raised was to be applied to the rent of a suitable house, to the gradual purchase of a library, and to the general running expenses. The question of the directing head of the School presented difficulties: archæologists, properly speaking, were few, and the Director, whether archæologist or not, could not live without a salary. It was therefore further suggested that the directorship be made an annual appointment, and that the contributing colleges be requested in turn to lend one of their professors to serve as annual Director. This of course meant that his salary, or a large portion of it, should be continued to him by his college during his year of residence at Athens. These suggestions of the committee were adopted by the Archæological Institute of America, and a Director for the first year was chosen in the person of W. W. Goodwin, who opened the School on October 2, 1882, in a house built for a former Prime Minister of Greece. The house not only was large enough to accommodate the Director's family, but had besides a spacious room which was originally intended as a state ball-room, and was as though specially designed for the purposes of the School library.

With the money at the disposal of the Director the house was furnished, and the library was begun with 400 well-chosen books. Mr. Goodwin found himself the guide of eight young men—graduates in American or German universities—each of whom pursued throughout the year some definite subject of study that required considerable research and length of time for its elaboration. The results of these studies were embodied in papers many of which were deemed worthy of publication in the first volume of the Papers of the School. Besides this, at the weekly meetings of the School, papers were read by the Director, or by one of the students, the object being to discuss some important subject of Athenian topography or archæology, even though it were well known, rather than to try to write papers on subjects never before discussed. At still other weekly meetings the Director lectured on the "Agamemnon" of Æschylus and on certain parts of the history of Thucydides. Numerous excursions were made to historic sites by the members of the School, partly under the guidance of the Director, and partly in the shape of tours through distant parts of Greece, the students being their own guides.

At the close of the first year all who had been connected with the School knew that it had been successful beyond the expectations of its friends, and were convinced that it had before it a brilliant future in the history of classical education in America. To be sure, no one could fail to see that the plan of sending out an annual Director was not an ideal one as a permanent policy, seeing that the Director had to retire at the very moment when he had begun to get matters well in hand. Indeed, at the start it was announced repeatedly that the annual directorship was merely a temporary makeshift; no one ever contemplated the suicidal policy of handing over every year the management of the institution to a man who was as much a learner as any of his students; who, in the nature of the case, must lack not only that all-important local and special knowledge, but also the knowledge of the ways and means of archæological study and of conserving the time of the students, so that their efforts might be expended to the best advantage.

The annual directorship was to remain in force until the time should come when the success of the School might justify its friends in making an appeal to the public for a permanent endowment in order to the establishment of a permanent directorship. Indeed, at the meeting of the Managing Committee on November 16, 1883, a committee was appointed to report at the next regular meeting a detailed scheme for securing a permanent fund and to nominate prominent men in the chief cities of the country as a permanent committee, whose duty it should be to carry out the scheme

*The facts contained in this article have been taken from the Annual Reports of the School.

suggested by the provisional committee, and to appoint trustees to receive, hold in trust, invest, and disburse the funds collected for purposes of the School.

This provisional committee twice brought in a report that in their opinion the time for the proposed changes had not yet come; and consequently for the first six years of its existence the fortunes of the School were guided by directors sent out under an annual appointment. But in the meantime friends of archæology in Great Britain had secured from the Greek Government the gift of a building-site, and had actually built a house upon it, though as yet they had neither students, nor Director, nor money wherewith to pay the Director's salary. This fact stirred to action the friends of the School in America, and at the meeting of the committee on May 16, 1884, the question of a permanent home at Athens for the American School was discussed at length, with the final result that Mr. Tricoupis, then Prime Minister of Greece, announced that Greece, in her poverty, was ready to give our School a building-site of the value of $13,500. This more than generous gift naturally awakened enthusiasm at home, and on October 31, 1885, an appeal was made to the friends of classical learning in America for $25,000 wherewith to build for the School a worthy home in Athens. Boston responded to the call with a generous $19,000, and New York gave the rest, the sum total subscribed being $26,553.22. Trustees were appointed to hold the property of the School, and these trustees subsequently secured articles of incorporation under the laws of Massachusetts. The cost of the building was greatly diminished in various ways: Prof. W. R. Ware made the plans and the estimate of the cost of construction, thus giving of his time and energy; Mr. Trowbridge directed the erection of the building. But, besides this, the cost was diminished by direct gifts from American manufacturing houses. Thus, the doors, windows, flooring, bookcases, the entire iron staircase, the hardware for the entire house, a complete set of plumbing fittings, mantelpieces, decorative panels, grates, and fireplaces were given outright by a number of generous firms whose names cannot be mentioned here for want of space. Even the Florio-Rubattino and the Cunard steamship companies gave special rates for freight. Thanks to all these agencies, the corner-stone of the building could be laid on March 12, 1887, and the School now occupies a magnificent home, "the only completely fire-proof building in Greece," "a worthy and enduring monument of the interest in Greek studies which is felt in America, and the visible evidence of our desire that no means shall be lacking for their successful promotion."

As has been said, the supporters of the School had all along intended that the management of the School should ultimately be under the direction of a permanent head, and so, on November 19, 1886, the committee took two important steps: they "determined that an organized effort should be made to secure for the School a permanent endowment of $100,000," and they invited Dr. Charles Waldstein of New York, then reader of archæology in the University of Cambridge, England, "to become the permanent Director of the School when the endowment should be secured," with the expectation that he would take charge of the School in the autumn of 1888. This latter expectation was realized, though to this day the entire sum needed for the permanent endowment has not been secured. But with the advent of the permanent Director the annual directorship did not cease; it had been found to be both unique and wise. The spectacle of a coterie of universities and colleges working together for a common end had never been witnessed before; these institutions still contributed to the support of the School, and it was but right that they should be allowed to continue to send out their professors for an educational residence in Athens.

The institution of the annual Director had never been an unmitigated evil; indeed, it had been productive of great good, for, as the aim of our School was not so much distinguished achievements as it was to arouse in American colleges a genuine interest in classical archæology in general, no better plan could have been devised than that of giving the professors of Greek in our leading colleges the untold advantage of a year's residence in Greece, whence they could not fail to return burning with enthusiasm for everything relating to Greek and Greece. Perhaps their knowledge of archæology was below par, but for all that their year in Greece made them infinitely better teachers of Greek; they had become more capable of guiding their own students not only in archæology, but in Greek literature as well, and they have ever been ready to use all their influence to send enthusiastic and well-equipped young men as students to the School at Athens. The influence of returned directors in creating an interest in archæology in America has been wonderful, as any one who has been watching archæological matters for the last fifteen years can easily see. Indeed, the feature of the annual directorship has been watched by others than Americans, by the Germans themselves. Prof. Conze, the head of the German Archæological Institute, told the writer that a study of our School had so convinced him of the immense importance of the feature in question, that he hoped to see a professor sent out annually from German universities to the German Schools at Rome and Athens.

Thus, at the end of the first six years of its existence, the School could occupy its own large and commodious building, which from first to last cost $30,000, exclusive of the ground. It had a most useful library of well-chosen books, besides scientific and photographic instruments. It had conducted excavations at Thoricus, Sicyon, and Icaria; it had published four volumes of papers, which had been accepted by the scholars of Europe and America as valuable additions to our knowledge of antiquity. But at this juncture trouble arose in regard to the permanent directorship. The friends of the School had failed to secure a permanent endowment, that having been the condition on which Dr. Waldstein had accepted the directorship. His undivided services, therefore, could not be secured, but the Managing Committee effected a temporary compromise by which Dr. Waldstein agreed to give his active services to the School during the months of December and January of each year. Under these circumstances the annual Director was an important factor in the successful management of the School, inasmuch as he was on the ground continuously, during both the absence and the presence of the Director; their work was mutually complementary. This state of affairs lasted for four years. But in November, 1891, pursuant to a resolution adopted in May of the same year, to the effect that after October 1, 1892, the School should have a permanent officer in residence at Athens during the entire school year, from October 1 to June 1, the committee elected Prof. F. B. Tarbell to be the chief executive of the School, with the title of Secretary, for a term of five years, beginning on October 1, 1892. After one year's service, Mr. Tarbell resigned, to accept a professorship in the University of Chicago; he was succeeded by the present Director, R. B. Richardson. At the same time, Dr. Waldstein was elected professor of ancient art. The feature of the annual directorship was retained, with a change of title, Prof. J. R. Wheeler being the first incumbent of the "Professorship of the Greek Language and Literature." His duties were confined to the department of instruction, for henceforth the responsibility and care of administration fell upon the shoulders of the permanent Director.

The value of the School property in Athens is about $40,000. The amount already secured towards a permanent endowment is something more than $50,000, $100,000 being the minimum amount needed. Up to date there have been seventeen directors and annual professors of the School, representing thirteen universities and colleges. The number of students who have been connected with the School is seventy-eight. These students have won their degrees in thirty-seven different American institutions. Of this number forty-six have received higher degrees; twenty-three have received the degree of Ph.D. from American universities and nine from European universities. Fifty-four are now teachers, of whom thirty-one have the rank of professor. These teachers are distributed among twenty-three different States, and each one of them is an infectious centre of enthusiasm for Greek and Greece. The Managing Committee numbers thirty-eight men, representing twenty-five of the leading universities and colleges of America.

After a young man who proposes to make the teaching of Greek his business in life has received the book-learning necessary for his profession, no better preparation for enthusiastic and effective work can be conceived of than a residence of one or two years at the School at Athens. It is hardly worth while to point out how and why such a sojourn must needs be helpful and beneficial to every student of the classics. The intellectual possibilities in the verification and vivification of history, in the study of art and sculpture, of architecture, of vases and vase-pictures, of epigraphy, of geography, of language, of folk-lore, etc., are infinite. But the advantages are not merely intellectual: the influence on the imagination must not be lost sight of, for no true student of the past of Greece can breathe the air which *they* breathed, can see the sites made famous by *their* splendid achievements in behalf of all mankind, can live among the monuments which *those* "immortal men erected to mortal gods," can learn "the secrets of their architecture," can "study geography and history at once by exploring" the battlefields of Greece, by inspecting "her lines of communication through her mountain passes and the sites of her famous cities," and not be better, purer, larger, healthier therefor. In Greece the student will realize as he could never do so well elsewhere how immense is

the debt *we* owe to Greece. Who can look upon the mountain majesty of Parnassus or the softer charm of Helicon, with its Hippokrene and Valley of the Muses, and not understand why the Greeks were poets and artists and lovers of all things beautiful, whether intellectual or physical? Physical geography will tell him at Thebes why it was that her climate was a poor one for brains; at Sparta he will see with his eyes why no walls were needed round the martial city, and he "will understand better the discipline of Lycurgus, with its iron money and its black broth, and the hardihood of Leonidas and the men of Thermopylae."

I cannot close without mentioning another matter that just now lies close to the hearts and consciences of American scholars. It is true that our School at Athens has conducted excavations at a number of places, and has done distinguished work at the Heræum, but it has always been hampered by the lack of money wherewith to do thorough-going, clean pieces of excavating work; and such alone are satisfactory, because they alone can meet the demands of the rigid science of to-day. Slovenly, imperfect, or partial excavations may, indeed, produce valuable results for the science of antiquity, but they do not tell the whole tale, and they may leave precisely the most important things undiscovered, and thereby do infinite harm in the way of preventing other persons, better equipped with money, from undertaking excavations at places from which, as they have a right to feel, the cream has been skimmed by the first excavators. This fear, however, does not always deter men, as may be seen from the case of Thoricus, for, after we had finished our excavations there, others stepped into the breach and made most important discoveries; at Eretria, too, we excavated, with important results, and yet that much is still to be done there is quite clear from the fact that surreptitious digging was going on there last October, and, a little later on, the discovery of a bronze statue by the peasants of Eretria was reported in the Athenian newspapers. We have dug at Platæa, and yet it takes a sharp eye and considerable exertion to discover those same diggings, for Platæa is still virgin soil for the excavator, and the topographical problems of the great battle are still unsolved. The best excavating we have done was that by Dr. Waldstein at the Heræum. We have now undertaken to excavate Corinth. It is a vast, almost an alarming, enterprise, and our honor is at stake—not merely the honor of our School, but the good name and fame of America as well; we *must* do a clean piece of work at Corinth, or else be ranked as incompetent sciolists. Sneers have been uttered at Athens within my hearing to the effect that after we had done playing at excavating Corinth, somebody else would have to step in and excavate the site. We *must* prove that they are ill-founded. To prove our contention, avoid the shame, and bring honor to the American name, we need a pile of money. We have already dug a series of trenches at Corinth, enough to show the vastness of the work we have undertaken to do. We know that ancient Corinth covers a great area, and that it lies deeply buried beneath the soil, the depth of superincumbent earth varying from twenty feet or less to nearly forty feet, it may be. We must buy the site and excavate it remorselessly, and *to a finish*. No trenches, no mere series of trenches, will avail, for trenches have the persistent habit of just missing the most important matters; the entire soil must be removed to a distance from the ancient site, and railways must be built for the purpose; the work must not be done by piecemeal, but consecutively; a corps of archæologists, engineers, and architects must be on the ground continuously, in order to carry on the work with vigor during all the seasons that are available for work. Now that we have put our hand to the plough, we dare not turn back.

There are thousands on thousands of Americans who could give the entire sum needed and never miss it. It is an easy way, too, for a man, or for men, to gain more than ephemeral fame, and, besides the fame, they will gain the undying gratitude of thousands of scholars not only in America, but throughout the whole enlightened world. And while generous-hearted Americans of wealth are putting their hands in their pockets for the excavation of Corinth, let them not forget the American School at Athens; let them go just a little deeper and give something considerable to the School itself, that its permanent endowment may be completed.

J. R. S. Sterrett.

Correspondence.

SOUND-MONEY DEMOCRACY IN MICHIGAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of July 22, speaking of the Louisville Democratic Convention, you refer to the result of the Sound-Money Democratic vote in Michigan at the recent April election, and say "that a few men on the State committee, contrary to the advice of the party leaders, decided to make a separate nomination for Judge of the Supreme Court merely to keep up the appearance of an organization." The error of this statement may not be important, but it is nevertheless considerable. The committee certainly favored making a nomination, though it did not decide to make one, but called a mass convention at Grand Rapids to consider the propriety of nominating a full State ticket—a Justice of the Supreme Court and two Regents of the University. For some days before the meeting of that convention free-silver organs argued against the propriety of its making any nominations, and, before the hour fixed for the meeting of the convention, it was discovered that some delegates doubted the propriety of proceeding to a nomination. An informal meeting of as many of the delegates as could be assembled was held early on the morning of the day the convention met, at which there was a free discussion of the question, resulting in a nearly unanimous determination to nominate a full ticket—so nearly so, that when the convention assembled it proceeded to make its nominations as if the question of not doing so had never been raised.

The vote polled was hardly a surprise to the Sound-Money Democrats, though wholly unexpected by the silverites and not overpleasing or assuring to the Republicans. Not the slightest effort was made to get out the Democratic vote, and it is believed by those in position to judge correctly that the Sound-Money Democratic vote for McKinley was nearly double the vote polled at the April election for the real Democratic ticket.

One feature of that vote has not received the attention its importance justifies. For two months (or more, perhaps) before the election last fall, noon Sound-Money Democratic meetings were held daily in Detroit, and were largely attended. They seem to have produced but little effect on the result of that election, but this spring, Yaple, the Silver candidate for Justice, received in Detroit a vote of only 7,960, while Foote, the Sound-Money Democratic candidate, received 6,864. Nor was this vote peculiar to these candidates. It clearly appeared that the midsummer education of the voters was not lost, though under the pressure of strong fear of Bryanism, the voters did violence to their feelings upon other questions and voted for McKinley; while at the April election they felt free to vote in accordance with their views as Sound-Money Democrats, nearly as much opposed to McKinleyism as to Bryanism. F.

Saginaw, Mich., July 23, 1897.

THE PARTY AND THE NAME.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: With many other readers of the *Nation* I feel a warm sympathy for the principles outlined in your article suggesting issues without a party. The country surely and sorely needs sound currency, sound civil service, and sound tariff legislation. By "sound" I take it that we mean something conceived in sincerity and carried out honestly and rationally.

Cannot some one offer a name around which "the new party" may crystallize? "National Democrats" is a worthy name, but would it not be better to find a title free from either of the old party names? Human prejudice (and particularly political prejudice) is influenced often by apparently trivial things. Perhaps a happy name would do much to forward the success of the principles we consider so vital.

Respectfully yours,

Warren French Sheldon.

Auburn, Maine, July 20, 1897.

HATRED OF ENGLAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Many reasons have been given to explain the dislike and prejudice which some Americans have against England and Englishmen, and some of the explanations given have been quite complicated and ingenious. Now I, an Englishman, have lived for two years in this country, during which time I have dispassionately and patiently studied this dislike and prejudice, and have at length discovered its cause, which is very simple and commonplace, and is all summed up in one little word, and that word is ENVY.—Yours truly, P. J. J.

Chicago, July 19, 1897.

[A longer residence will, we are sure, convince our correspondent that Americans are right in discerning more causes than one for the hatred in question. That the jealousy of rivalry enters in, there can be no doubt.—Ed. Nation.]

WOMEN STUDENTS WELCOMED AT MARBURG.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The following extract from a letter addressed to me by Prof. W. Vietor, in Marburg, under date of July 1, may be of interest to your readers, who, like myself, were agreeably surprised by Miss Anna Maude Bowen's article in your issue of July 1:

"Dem Besuch der Vorlesungen an unserer Universität durch Damen steht von Seiten der Universität Nichts im Wege sofern die Betreffenden genügende Vorbildung nachweisen. Ich selbst, wie die meisten Professoren der Fakultät, lasse Damen sehr gern als Hörerinnen zu und würde mich freuen Miss —— als solche zu Anfang des Wintersemesters hier begrüssen zu können. Seit dem Sommer 1895 besuchen Damen thatsächlich hier Vorlesungen. Die *erste*, Fräulein —— aus ——, kam durch *mich* hierher und hörte bei *mir*, worauf ich mir, wie Sie sehen, etwas einbilde." Henry Senger.

University of California, July 15, 1897.

A PROFESSOR OF THE CLASSICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A college in which the writer is interested has been engaged for a series of months in the quest for a professor of classics. During the canvass a goodly number of candidates offered themselves whom we believed to be well fitted for the position, so far as scholastic preparation is concerned. In most cases they were already engaged in teaching, often at quite remote points. Usually they did not wish their present employers to be made uneasy by correspondence unless there was a definite prospect of their appointment. These are normal and inevitable conditions. It must always be difficult—but desirable—to bring together the right man and the right place when they are too far apart to know each other; and, of course, the man now employed and valued where he is, is generally the one wanted elsewhere.

A large number of our candidates had taken the highest degree at some great university, and were cordially endorsed by their former teachers, fellow-pupils, and clergymen. It was therefore impossible to make any intelligent choice by such criteria alone. It soon became painfully evident that many men of advanced special scholarship are now holding positions, and drawing salaries, not at all proportionate to their prolonged and costly preparation. A few men, with whom we corresponded more or less, were confident that their eminent capacity and success in teaching would be evident to any one who should visit their class-room. This may well have been true; but it could not be tested. A larger number felt that the degree of Ph.D. itself created an overwhelming presumption in their favor; but we could take only one of the many doctors. Nearly all supposed that letters of general eulogy on their character and scholarship were effective ammunition with which to storm the appointing powers. Unluckily, it is notorious that most employers will give glowing letters cheerfully to teachers whom they are eager to get rid of, or even to men they have actually dismissed! We were favorably impressed by one correspondent when he wrote, "I have no testimonials, because I don't think them worth the getting." Of course, that is not absolutely true. Indeed, the emphatic written statements of men we knew, had decisive weight at last in this very case. Still, many imposing stacks of such letters are not worth the stationery used.

At this point the question was usually raised, "What thesis, essay, sketch for a lecture, what bit of printed or written matter can you send us, to give us an idea of your individual tastes, methods, or theories?" In the overwhelming majority of cases the answer was "None"! Often the inquiry seemed to be considered an unreasonable criticism. The thesis subject, it was stated, was purely statistical, as the recurrence of some single word or phrase in certain authors. It was in process of revision, or radically inaccurate; in short, could not be seen. Nothing else was in existence.

Now, I will not, for the moment, raise the question as a test of good scholarship. Let us concede that a young man may be a mature, well-rounded master in his special field; may be fit to inspire, to encourage, and to guide younger students, and yet has never put on paper in connected form any ideas on any author, word, or topic in that entire field! The question still remains, How can he require his future employers to form any *im*pression of him, if he has given forth no *ex*pression of himself?

If the candidate were within speaking distance, we would ask him, perhaps, to give us some notion how he would introduce a class to Virgil's 'Aeneid': "What general ideas as to the poet's times, the political and artistic purpose of the epic, the original audience and its familiarity with the Trojan myth, should the children have before they attack this great poem?" Or, "What ode of Pindar would you read first, and why?" "Plan a four years' course in collegiate Latin, or Greek, with proper sequence and progressive difficulty." "Who is your favorite author, and what sort of special study have you made upon him?" That such things, and better things, should stuff the knapsack of any young veteran who has spent a long series of years in a special field, seems evident. Every normal school would have exacted such sustained self-interrogation, surely. But, as a matter of fact, our young classical scholars are bewildered, and often aggrieved, when such questions are raised. It seems worth while, therefore, to lay this inquiry before as many of them as can be reached, in the hope that it may help to clear up what seems to us a deplorable condition of things.

Our experience tempts us to raise the question, whether the classics are now being taught, and studied, in a way to contribute adequately toward the power to express thought. We always claim for Latin and Greek a central place in general culture, *because* they are indispensable to proper command of the mother-tongue. But what shall our preaching avail if we ourselves be castaways? If there be a corporal's guard among our younger specialists in classics who can give a readable account of their favorite authors and their works, setting forth their value to the general life of civilized man, it is not easy to discover those youths. Our periodical literature contains hardly an essay per year from any younger Humanist than B. I. Wheeler or Paul Shorey. "These things ought not so to be." No range of costly, highly specialized research will be cheerfully supported from age to age by the general community, which offers *no* interesting results in forms widely intelligible to thoughtful educated men and women.

The life of classical scholarship itself, then, and the career of the individual, both depend, and should depend, on his making some attempt to show that he has a healthy intellectual life, and that it is fed and strengthened by the studies to which he devotes himself. The questions raised here have many wide ramifications. The endeavor has been rather to limit than to expatiate upon them. It is sometimes a duty to advertise an individual experience in the interest of many. Prexie.

A ROMAN HOUSE IN FLORENCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While making a large drain on the southern side of the Baptistery of San Giovanni, the workmen came upon Roman buildings about two feet below the level of the Piazza. These evidently belonged to poor people and were of a late period. But under these again have been found the remains of a Roman house with a fine impluvium, the sandstone cornice being quite perfect. Prof. Milani, the very able and enthusiastic director of the Etruscan Museum of Florence, was immediately on the spot, and, under his guidance, as much of the house as is possible is now being laid bare, and will be removed to the courtyard of the Etruscan Museum, where the Professor is gradually collecting all the relics of ancient Florence. I say "as much as is possible," because the peristylium, with its annexes, is under the Baptistery. Only an angle of the tablinum can be seen. This discovery does away with the old tradition that San Giovanni was once a temple of Jupiter.

Evidently the house belonged to a wealthy citizen; it resembles the well-known house of Pansa at Pompeii. The entrance is to the south, but, unfortunately, in old days the vestibulum was destroyed by a large drain, which emitted the foulest odors when broken into and was full of black mud. The atrium is 10 metres 54 cent. long and 8 metres 18 cent. wide, smoothly paved with a composition made of Arno breccia and alabaster. The same pavement occurs in the wings of the tablinum and in the cubicula, or bedrooms, of which there are three on either side. A room to the left of the tablinum has a floor of plaster made of pounded tiles and mortar, with small cubes of dark marble dotted about in pretty pattern. Of this only one corner can be seen; the rest lies hidden under the Baptistery.

A small coin of Honorius was found on the sill of a doorway of the later and poorer buildings which were erected over the Roman house. These tabernæ were probably destroyed when San Giovanni was built, as in its foundations, laid bare where they cross the tablinum, are stones exactly like those which cut the Roman house in every sense. Only one inscription has as yet been found in the excavations, perhaps the names of the owners of the house: "V (iri) I (llustres) SEX Gabinius et...." The writing is of the second century. Janet Ross.

Poggio Gherardo, Via Settignanese, Florence, July 11, 1897.

Notes.

The *Century Magazine* offers prizes to college graduates (A.B.) in the United

States of the present and of the three ensuing years, of $250 each, (1) for the best metrical writing of not fewer than fifty lines; (2) for the best essay in biography, history, or literary criticism within the limits of 4,000 to 8,000 words; (3) for the best story in the same space limit. The type-written MS. must be sent to the editor of the magazine, marked without and within "For the College Competition," signed with a pen name, and accompanied by a sealed envelope containing the writer's true name, on or before June 1 of the year succeeding graduation. The right to print the prize manuscripts without further payment is reserved, but the copyright will revert in three months to the respective authors.

The corporation of Bristol, England, have arranged with Mr. Francis B. Bickley of the British Museum to calendar their records. Students of the history of English colonization in America will be more particularly interested in those documents that relate to the Company of Merchant Adventurers. It will, however, be some time before these are reached. As Mr. Bickley reads ancient writings with facility, whether in Latin or in English, he is specially qualified for the work he is engaged upon.

Signora Bompiani's 'Short History of the Italian Waldenses' (New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.) is one of the superfluous books inspired by sympathy and imperfect knowledge. The story of the persecutions of the valleys of Dauphiné and Savoy and in Calabria can never lose its interest; but so much has been done in modern times to elucidate it that there is no excuse for the reiteration of the old fables which identify the Waldenses with Vigilantius and the Leonistæ, which claim Claudius of Turin as a member of the sect, and assign the date of 1100 to the *Nobla Leyczon*. Still worse is the assumption that the Manichæan Albigenses were brothers in faith as well as in suffering. The volume is rendered attractive by a number of photogravures of landscapes and portraits.

Two recent educational works, 'Chapters on the Aims and Practice of Teaching,' edited by Frederic Spencer (Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan), and 'An Experiment in Education,' by Mary R. Alling-Aber (Harpers), will be found suggestive, the former by instructors in secondary schools, the latter by all who are interested in the education of young children. In the English book the pedagogy of various branches of study is discussed by teachers of prominence. The first two chapters of 'An Experiment' are reprinted from the *Popular Science Monthly* for 1892. The function of either work, it should be added, would have been a more important one had they appeared before the reports of the Committees of Ten and of Fifteen proved such a powerful stimulus to educational thought among all classes of American teachers.

Mr. Stuart Henry's dainty volume, 'Hours with Famous Parisians' (Chicago: Way & Williams), contains more than a score of sketches, several of which have appeared before in English and American periodicals. The brevity of some of them suggests that a five minutes' visit might have sufficed to furnish the writer with all the points with which he favors us concerning his subjects. The celebrity of those subjects, and the vivacious report of their somewhat indiscreet visitor, make the little book entertaining reading.

A new supplement, covering the years 1879-1896, has appeared to Mr. J. B. Mayor's 'Guide to the Choice of Classical Books' (London: D. Nutt). It is particularly interesting to American and English scholars, and ought to be enlightening to Germans, because in it are noted many good books which have never appeared in the German bibliographical lists, which are so universally used. Attention should also be called to the preface, wherein Mr. Mayor offers some excellent food for thought, pointing towards improvements in the classical curriculum.

In 'Cicero and His Friends' (Putnams), a translation of Gaston Boissier's well-known work, Mr. A. D. Jones has been far more successful than his predecessors, who have recently attempted versions of other classical books by the same French scholar and academician. He has even put us under further obligation by adding a table of contents and an index. In its English form the book is fit to fill a real want, showing forth Cicero as a man, not as a contriver of syntactical puzzles, nor as a provider of convenient texts for dissertations on Roman antiquities. For parallel reading along with the orations, it is excellently adapted to use in classical schools, and may be recommended to all teachers and students of Cicero.

'The Christian Monuments of Rome' forms the first part of a 'Handbook to Christian and Ecclesiastical Rome' now in course of compilation by H. M. and M. A. R. T. (Macmillan). The other three parts will treat of the Liturgy, Monasticism, and things ecclesiastical. The present volume contains an introduction on the origin of the Church in Rome, and on the development of church buildings and the details of their interiors. Then follow brief accounts of the 350-odd Roman churches, their foundings and principal contents; and the book ends with a description of the Catacombs. It is well made, and travellers will find in it a useful supplement to Baedeker or Murray.

Luigi Borsari's 'Topografia di Roma' (Milan: Hoepli; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) is a neat little guide, small enough to be carried about in the pocket without betraying its presence by an unseemly bulge. Besides the ordinary information collected in such books, it provides references to larger works in which those who care to pursue the history of an antiquity will find it described in more detail.

Mr. Paul Leicester Ford makes, in the closing number of the second volume of the *American Historical Review*, what may fairly be called an ingenious attempt to controvert the conclusions reached by Prof. E. G. Bourne, in the previous number, as to the authorship of the disputed numbers of the *Federalist*. Prof. Bourne replies immediately, point for point, and with a weight and conclusiveness which amply confirm his original position. It cannot be said that Mr. Ford adds nothing to the discussion, but the one new material fact he adduces—that Hamilton inserted a paragraph in No. 56 in the edition of 1788 (Mr. Bourne having followed Lodge in assuming that it was in the 1802 edition)—is made to point the other way, from Hamilton to Madison, whose consent may well have been asked and given.

The Manning and allied families are shown in a tabular pedigree and in his usual complex of wills by Mr. Henry F. Waters in the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* for July. Mr. Waters's own stock, he shows, interlaces with the Mannings, as does that of the Whitfields.

Of the three articles in *Cosmopolis* for June devoted to Queen Victoria's Jubilee, that by Francis de Pressensé is the most elaborate and valuable. Having at his command a wide knowledge of English affairs, past and present, the writer sets forth with much originality the historical and political significance of the Victorian reign, and the universal side of the festivities then preparing. Theodor Barth, member of the Reichstag, without slighting the personal qualities of the Queen, sees a special blessing in England having been governed for sixty years by a *woman;* for a male ruler, the temptations to interfere in governmental details are greater and more numerous, and for a constitutional ruler a wise, laissez-faire principle is the most practical to adopt. Only a "gekrönter Universal-Dilettant" can have the pretension both to be a ruler and to manage everything. Sir Richard Temple does not write in as broad a spirit as either the French or the German contributor; the omission in an account of the "Reign of Queen Victoria" even of an allusion to the Prince Consort, for whom the royal widow has never laid aside her mourning, strikes one as too "intensely British."

Ernst Elster contributes to the *Rundschau* for June and July some fresh results of his long-continued investigations in the field of Heine literature. Of several letters printed here for the first time, some are of great interest. They present the character of the poet in no new light—this is not to be expected of new letters or documents of any kind. But we gather from these additional knowledge of Heine's relation to some of his contemporaries; and to learn, *e. g.*, that Humboldt interceded for him in a certain matter with the Prussian King and Minister is likely to raise the poet, be it ever so little, in the estimation of those who did not know him. Incidentally the critic, in his comments, dealt with other men of the second quarter of the century, among them the literary adventurer Wit, *genannt* Von Döring, and the fascinating figure of the youthful Ferdinand Lassalle, in whom Elster sees the originator (*geistigen Vater*) of the famous "Cassettendiebstahl" committed by two young millionaires in the interest of the unfortunate Countess Hatzfeldt.

Franklin and Marshall College, at Lancaster, Pa., can hardly be thought famous. Its elder member was founded in the above town in 1787, Franklin himself contributing to its endowment, and participating in the ceremonies of the corner-stone. The institution aimed to provide a higher education for Pennsylvania Germans. Marshall College was a foundation, in 1835, at Mercersburg, Pa., of the Reformed Church, for the supply of its ministry. Since 1852 these colleges have been united. The alumni have now published volume one of an 'Obituary Record' (Lancaster), which it is proposed to continue in parts till a second volume be fulfilled. Nine-tenths of the 219 deceased graduates here commemorated were natives of Pennsylvania and Maryland. In running over the index, the once well-known and now nearly as well-forgotten politician (ending as one of Grant's stalwart "306" in the struggle for the third term), John Cessna, alone occurs to us as having attained a national reputation.

The colonial premiers visiting England were entertained at luncheon in the committee-room of the Public Record Office, London, on the 6th of July, by Lord Esher, the Master of the Rolls, who is legally the Keeper of the Records. The Deputy Keeper, Sir Maxwell Lyte, does the less nominal part of the duties connected with the preservation of the records of the kingdom. After luncheon the party were shown over the Museum, where a number of interesting historical documents are displayed for the inspection of the public. In addition to these a number of others were brought out on the occasion of the premiers' visit. Among the latter were: (1) The Log of the *Endeavour*, Captain James Cook, 1768-9 (No. 147); (2) Journal of a voyage to Otteheita in the year 1791, by H. M. S. *Providence*, Captain William Bligh (No. 173); (3) Log of the *Resolution*, 1779, at Hawaii (No. 217); (4) Log of H. M. S. *Challenger*, 1829, possession taken of Western Australia (Captains' Journals, No. 1968); (5) Holograph letter of Captain Cook to the Admiralty, recommending certain members of the crew of the *Endeavour* for promotion, Aug., 1771 (Admiralty: Captains' Letters, C 22). Among the documents shown the following related to British North America: (1) Entry of the Canada Act, 1791 (31 George III., cap. 31) on the Parliament Roll (1270, No. 1); (2) Entry of the Act of the Union of the Provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, 1840 (3 and 4 Vic., cap, 35) on the Parliament Roll (3915, No. 14); (3) Early Treaties with Indians; (4) Account of the Fisheries at Newfoundland and return of the Fishing Fleet there, 1675 (State Papers, Colonial, 35, No. 16); (5) Original Treaty of Paris, 1763, regulating the Newfoundland Fisheries; (6) Original Peace of Versailles, 1783, limiting the same.

An Anglo-American writes to us from London on July 9: "Only one hundred librarians are coming to the Conference from America, instead of the three hundred that were originally expected. Of these about eighty have now arrived, including Mr. Justin Winsor. In addition to the hospitalities already mentioned, Sir Henry Irving has now joined in welcoming the librarians. For them he is giving a special performance of 'The Merchant of Venice' at the Lyceum on the 15th of July, when he will frank five hundred members of the Conference with seats in the boxes, stalls, and other best parts of the house."

The British Association for the Advancement of Science will meet at Toronto, Canada, on the 18th of August, under the presidency of Sir John Evans, Treasurer of the Royal Society, London. The American Association for the Advancement of Science will meet in the preceding week at Detroit, in order to enable its members subsequently to attend the meeting of the British Association. Several American scientific societies have accepted for their members the invitation to join the Association and attend its sessions, which will take place within the buildings of the University of Toronto. The honorary local secretaries for the meeting are Prof. A. B. Macallum and Messrs. B. E. Walker and J. S. Willison. The general secretaries are A. G. Vernon Harcourt and Prof. W. C. Roberts-Austen. The assistant general secretary will be, as usual, Mr. G. Griffith, the mainspring of the Association. The following will be the sections: (a) Mathematical and Physical Science: President, Prof. A. R. Forsyth; (b) Chemistry: President, Prof. W. Ramsay; (c) Geology: President, Dr. G. M. Dawson; (d) Zoölogy: President, Prof. L. C. Miall; (e) Geography: President, J. Scott Keltie, Secretary to the Royal Geographical Society, London; (f) Economic Science and Statistics: President, Prof. E. C. K. Gonner; (g) Mechanical Science: President, E. C. K. Deacon; (h) Anthropology: President, Sir W. Turner; (i) Physiology: President, Prof. Michael Foster; (k) Botany: President, Prof. H. Marshall Ward.

Prof. Hale announces that the formal dedication of the Yerkes Observatory will take place on the 1st of October next, although all details of the programme have not yet been arranged. It is hoped that some of the European scientific men who are intending to be present at the Toronto meeting of the British Association will take part in the formal inauguration. In connection with the dedicatory exercises it is planned to hold a series of informal conferences on astronomical and astrophysical subjects. The board of editors of the *Astrophysical Journal*, Profs. Hale, Keeler, Ames, Pickering, and others, will hold their fourth annual meeting at that time. In Prof. Hale's note he extends a cordial invitation to "all men of science who may be willing to honor the Observatory by their presence on this occasion."

—The geography of communications is the subject of an entertaining paper in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for July, by Sir Henry Tyler, the well-known railway magnate. At the outset he lays down the principle that the directions of the lines of communication—or, in other words, the dominating motives for movement—have been determined mainly by the three C's, Commerce, Conquest, and Conversion; that is, "the impulses of religion, including the resort to holy places and the propagation of creeds." He describes briefly the great trade and military routes of ancient times, ascribing to the Carthaginians the merit of being the first scientific road-builders. The longest continuous route mentioned was that from the Wall of Antoninus, with two short sea passages of forty-two and thirty-eight miles, to Jerusalem, "about 3,750 miles." With the revival of commerce at the close of the Middle Ages, "a religious order was founded in England which spread into several Continental countries, for repairing and improving roads and bridges." In the New World the Incas of Peru were admirable road-makers. "The road from Quito to Cuzco, which was some 1,500 miles long and forty feet wide, was formed with stones ten feet square, and was planted with avenues of trees, and supplied with running water. Attaining levels of 14,000 feet and more above the sea, it passed over pathless and, at certain seasons, snow-clad sierras, through leagues of rock tunnels, and across great streams and torrents, and was carried over the ravines of the Andes by masonry built up solid from their greatest depths." The bridges, on the other hand, were constructed with the frailest materials, "cables and ropes of twisted osiers and vines stretched from bank to bank, bound together and floored with bamboo or timber." Sir Henry has a hopeful word for the Panama Canal, whose completion, he believes, after a careful inspection of the works, the machinery, and the route in 1895, is "possible now on the revised scheme of the new company." He estimates that there are now in the world, in round numbers, 466,000 miles of railway open for traffic—250,000 in America,—constructed at a cost of $60,000,000,000, and 30,000 ocean-going vessels with an aggregate tonnage of 25,600,000. There are many other statistics in regard to canals, tramways, telegraph and postal work, together with facts and incidents drawn from the writer's large experience as a railway promoter and traveller. He closes with an earnest plea for freedom of communication. "In proportion to the cheapness and rapidity with which passengers and freight can be profitably conveyed and information exchanged, so is prosperity attained, civilization promoted, and knowledge increased." Then, after a protest against monopolies, censorship of the telegraph, high protection duties, and passport annoyances as "practical mistakes," he adds, "Subsidized industries, bounty-fed branches of business, and other unnatural sources of temporary prosperity only act by way of stimulus in producing artificial results, and ultimately combine against the public and private weal."

—The Brooklyn Historical Club has reprinted in a hundred copies the series of letters bearing on the relations of Thomas Jefferson and James Thomson Callender (1798-1802), compiled and edited by Worthington C. Ford, which we have from time to time commented on as they appeared in the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*. No charity can wholly excuse Jefferson's subsidies to this scurrilous pamphleteer and journalist, with his "humble arts of insinuation"; and posterity will join in Mrs. John Adams's frank arraignment of the Virginian, in correspondence with him which concludes the pamphlet. Callender renders some service to the student in two especial particulars: in his account of Gabriel's insurrection in 1800, during the libeller's imprisonment in Richmond jail upon conviction under the Alien and Sedition Act, and his glimpses of Southern society of the period—but is it such an old story? Mr. Field, printer of the *Republican*, "was unfortunately involved about twelve months ago in a dispute, the result of which proved fatal to his antagonist; but it appeared on an examination of the unhappy transaction, before the proper tribunal, that it was in Mr. Field a justifiable act of self-defence." This was the familiar euphemism of John Shore addressing John Strode. Callender's equally sympathetic account was: "He had been publicly assaulted in the market-place by Mr. Cross, who was a much stronger man. The circle of aristocrats [Federalists], one of whom was a magistrate, stood around to enjoy the victory; nor did they once offer to interfere, until Mr. Field was forced to pull out a pistol and shoot the aggressor." Again, quoting Callender: "On Tuesday last, Randolph sent for me to the custom-house to get the money, which it seems he has received orders to pay. I did not chuse to go there *alone*, as that very forenoon the [Federal] faction had published a piece recommending me to a drubbing. So I went to General Jones. He was ready, he said, to go with me; but that the card ran in such a stile as no gentleman should answer. Another gentleman, to whom I applied, made the same observation. Upon this I held myself justified in writing Randolph to bring or send up the money." We might add that Callender's letters contain many verbal curiosities, and

that the pamphlet is altogether diverting as well as instructive.

—In his 'Valori Pubblici e Operazioni di Borsa,' one of the excellent series of manuals published by Ulrico Hoepli of Milan (New York: Lemcke & Buechner), Dr. F. Piccinelli has collected a vast amount of valuable information in regard to Italian securities and stock exchanges in particular, and financial affairs in general. Much of this information, especially such as relates to the currency systems of different countries, may be found in similar treatises in other languages; but the long category of Italian banks and joint-stock companies, including, as it does, a brief history of each institution, cannot be found elsewhere, and is interesting because it shows that a great number of these concerns have not only survived the financial storms of the past three years, but have continued to pay dividends to their shareholders. Some of the information about other countries is not equally up to date. We had supposed that the case of the United States currency patient was of interest to the whole race of financial doctors, and that the business of the New York Stock Exchange was on so great a scale as to make it important to the financial world. But the most recent information Dr. Piccinelli gives as to our currency situation is that in 1892 a committee of the Senate reported favorably a free-coinage bill, while New York is omitted from a list of foreign stock exchanges which includes Buenos Ayres! In his preface the learned Doctor expresses the hope that the knowledge diffused by this manual may have the effect of restricting the financial disasters "che hanno contristato e contristano l'Italia nostra." But it is to be feared that this hope is illusory, for it has been invariably found that financial disasters are caused by the weakness, the greed, or the dishonesty of individuals, rather than by their ignorance of the science of economics. Of a similarly delusive character is the wisdom supposed to be contained in a collection of rules for the guidance of operators on the stock exchange. In these we are informed that "gran parte della scienza di Borsa si riduce a questa proposizione: essere bene informati." The experience of the Anglo-Saxon speculator, on the other hand, makes him suspicious of all information, and finds expression in the proverbial "Early information and bank accommodation will ruin any man." But if there be any who believe that success in speculation can be achieved by following printed directions, they will find an abundance of such guidance in this handy volume, which is written in the most pellucid Italian.

—Pitrè's 'Biblioteca delle Tradizioni Popolari Siciliane,' lately noticed by us, will always be the storehouse of individual facts from which may be constructed connected accounts of the Sicilian people in their various activities. Such a picture of the Sicilian peasant has just been drawn by an independent observer, next to Pitrè, perhaps, the one most familiar from his own observations with the manners and customs of Sicily. The work is entitled 'Costumi ed Usanze dei Contadini di Sicilia, delineati da Salvatore Salomone-Marino' (Palermo: Sandron). This most interesting and valuable work is practically a compend of Pitrè's twenty volumes. In it the life of the Sicilian peasant is given from the cradle to the grave, in twenty-seven chapters, in which are described such topics as the peasant's family and house, his day's work; how he spends his evenings; seed-time and harvest, Sunday, festivals, weddings, dress, etc. An appendix contains various compositions by poets of the people descriptive of peasant life in the first half of this century—a life which, Signor Salomone-Marino says, is rapidly changing under the influence of the new order of things in Italy. The author says: "I speak of the peasants of the old stamp, whose generation is already declining and in a few years will be sought in vain. The new peasants do not concern us: the unavoidable conscription returns them to us more learned, polite, and quick, but at the same time with a burden of ambitious, crude, and corrupt ideas which will give them another type—I cannot yet say what, but certainly far removed from the traditional one of their native island, and perhaps not so good." It is for this reason that works like Pitrè's and Salomone-Marino's have such inestimable value. The type is changing rapidly all over Italy, the dialects are fast disappearing, and in a few years the popular speech and customs will have to be sought in books.

—The annual report of the Astronomer Royal to the Board of Visitors announces that a number of new instruments have been added to the permanent equipment at Greenwich, among them an alt-azimuth, and an equatorial presented by Sir Henry Thompson. Photographs of the moon and of double stars have been taken inside and outside the focus, with a view to adjustment of the object-glass; the separation between the lenses being varied, in order to correct a small outstanding aberration. A powerful battery of instruments is carried by the equatorial—no less than five large telescopes. Up to the 10th of May, 551 successful fields were obtained in the progress of photo-mapping the heavens, leaving about 600 still to complete the Greenwich allotment. Solar photographs are constantly taken, the spot activity having continued in general to decline since last year, despite two cases of temporary revival; and magnetic and weather observations are continued as in the past. Dr. David Gill, her Majesty's astronomer at the Cape, sends also to the Secretary of the Admiralty his account of the year's work. The McClean telescope fittings, walls, and dome are far advanced toward completion, as well as the machinery of the hydraulic rising floor, which promises to be an important adjunct to the convenience of the new observatory, providing an equipment for spectroscopic work long needed at the Cape. Several publications have appeared during the year. The second volume of 'A Determination of the Solar Parallax and Mass of the Moon from Observations of Iris, Victoria, and Sappho, in the years 1888 and 1889,' is ready for distribution. Two volumes of the Cape Photographic *Durchmusterung* will soon be issued, containing together the places of more than 300,000 stars. On account of the absence of H. M.'s Astronomer in England, passing works through the press, the famous heliometer has not contributed its usual quota to the work of the observatory. The useful time-service continues, signals at Greenwich mean noon being distributed by a central system of relays. All told, the degree of activity in British official astronomical circles, under the direction of able chiefs, themselves competent astronomers, is most satisfactory and reassuring.

DR. PETERS AT NIPPUR.

Nippur; or, Explorations and Adventures on the Euphrates. The Narrative of the University of Pennsylvania Expedition to Babylonia in the years 1888-1890. By John Punnett Peters, Ph.D., Sc.D., D.D., Director of the Expedition. With illustrations and maps. Vol. I., First Campaign. G. P. Putnam's Sons. Pp. xv, 375. 1897.

Nufar, Nuffar, or Niffer is the modern name of a mound lying on the old canal bed known as Shatt-en-Nil, about ninety miles south-southeast from Bagdad, and fifty miles southeast from the site of ancient Babylon. It is between the Euphrates and the Tigris—here fifty or sixty miles apart—some twenty miles from the former and over thirty from the latter at the nearest points. Its latitude is about 32° 6′ north (the parallel of Savannah, Ga.), and its longitude about 42° 50′ east. It is surrounded by swamps and the territory of jealous Arab tribes. It is difficult to reach; more difficult still to occupy for a length of time, amid hostile and greedy natives and fever-laden vapors from the marshes. Yet this mound has been reached and occupied and excavated; it has yielded priceless treasures; and the credit belongs to the expeditions sent out by the University of Pennsylvania and sustained by the generous gifts of Philadelphians.

The mound is the ruin-heap of an ancient city, once known as Nippur, famous in Babylonian history. The excavations have been conducted with system and scientific plan, like those of Schliemann at Ilium, or Petrie and Bliss at Tel el-Hesy, so as to trace the successive stages of the town's history, marked distinctly by the successive layers of débris. Not only have implements of stone and metal, jars, sarcophagi, cuneiform cylinders, and tablets in vast quantity been brought to light—the estimate of inscribed objects runs to between 30,000 and 40,000—but many of the inscriptions are of the most archaic type, and demonstrably from a remote antiquity; affording material for fruitful study into the origin of the cuneiform signs (see the *Nation* for June 17), and extending our knowledge of Babylonian civilization probably thousands of years backward. Prof. H. V. Hilprecht of Philadelphia has already edited a sufficient number of these texts to prove their invaluable character. The evidence of inscriptions is confirmed by the independent evidence of the ruin-strata. Thirty-five feet below the surface, underlying elaborate remains of building, there has been found a pavement of burnt bricks inscribed with the names of Sargon and his son Naram-Sin, who flourished 3800-3750 B. C. Below this, again, the débris extends at least thirty feet deeper, to virgin soil, with the remains of at least two temples, one superimposed upon the other, and apparently carrying back the earliest history of the city not less than 2,000 or 3,000 years further still, while midway of these lower strata a drain with a key-stone arch indicates the high degree of civilization reached by the inhabitants of Nippur, say between 5,000 and 6,000 B. C. No discoveries have been more important in helping us to conceive and picture the sweep of ancient history.

Now, it is the beginning of these discoveries which Dr. Peters sets forth in the attractive volume before us. The inception of the plan was due to him—then a professor in Philadelphia; the actual setting on foot of the enterprise, the raising of the needed money, the organization of the first party, were the result of his energy, meeting with a cordial response from large-minded friends of learning. He headed the first expedition; it was he that determined upon Nippur as the best site for beginning work, influenced in part by information courteously furnished by a German party which had looked over the ground; for two years he conducted the excavations at Nippur in person; and, but for his persistence in the face of discouragement and obstacles that seemed to others insurmountable, it is safe to say that the diggings would have ceased at the end of the first spring's work, and the greater part of the rich results afterwards secured by Dr. Peters himself in 1890, and by his successor, Dr. J. H. Haynes, in 1893-1895, would have been lost to the world, at least for many years to come. It is this fact which gives a significance even beyond its intrinsic interest to the present volume. This describes the steps which led up to the undertaking, the preliminary work, the journey to the field, and the labors of the first few months there.

The story is told with simplicity, directness, and precision. The author neither thrusts himself unduly into the foreground, nor uses self-conscious circumlocutions when the narrative requires him to mention himself. The detail is sufficient, but not excessive. The selection from abundant material is made with judgment, and the perspective is good. Personal experiences and scientific facts are skilfully combined, with a vein of genial humor underlying accounts of the former, and scholarship both ample and exact marking statements of the latter. At times there is an almost unexpected frankness, both in representing the difficulties of dealing with Turks and Arabs, and in acknowledging the mistakes of inexperience on the part of the explorers themselves. All in all, while the book has a marked individuality, it is a fit companion for the classic works of Layard and Loftus, and of itself is a credit to American learning and literary skill—pleasant to read, and well worth the reading.

No exploring party has ever gone to Babylonia with more careful equipment than this first expedition of the University of Pennsylvania. No less than four of the names are those of scholars recognized in Assyriology, Professors R. F. Harper, H. V. Hilprecht, J. P. Peters, and J. D. Prince; Mr. Haynes went as photographer and business manager, Mr. P. H. Field as architect, surveyor, and engineer, and Mr. D. Z. Noorian as interpreter. Of these Mr. Haynes and Mr. Noorian had accompanied Dr. Ward on the Wolfe expedition in 1884-1885. Great pains were taken to pave the way by diplomacy; much consultation and forethought was devoted to the outfit and every kind of preparation. The larger part of the present volume is occupied with the preliminaries and the journey. The wearisome delays occasioned by evasive Turkish officialism at Constantinople are vividly depicted. Perhaps the most entertaining incident is the authorized smuggling of the expedition's firearms from steamer to shore at Alexandretta, but the whole account of the Constantinople sojourn, and the descriptions of noteworthy characteristics of that anomalous European city, are picturesque and life-like. One is at times reminded of 'Moltke's Letters,' a book too little known outside of Germany. Among other things, Dr. Peters pays a high tribute to Hamdy Bey, the enlightened Director of the Imperial Museum at Stambul.

From Constantinople to Alexandretta the route was by sea; thenceforward in the saddle. Aleppo was the chief stopping-place between the Mediterranean and the Euphrates, and the journey along the Euphrates followed, as usual, the right bank, through Deir, Anah, and Hit. The author dwells with just satisfaction on the identification of Kal'at Dibse—a dozen miles below the first eastward bend of the Euphrates, at Barbalissus—with the Biblical Tiphsah, the Thapsacus of the Greeks and Romans. The identification is one of those happy "finds" which need only to be stated to meet with general acceptance and become the common property of scholars. (The discovery was announced by Dr. Peters at the time, in the *Nation*, May 23, 1889.) On his Euphrates journey the author makes constant but independent use of the records of Chesney's exploration, supplementing and modifying them as circumstances require, and all along the route shows himself the competent scholar, discoursing genially of matters of scholarly interest, and often of general human interest as well. The condition of the people, the possibilities of agriculture, the characteristic peculiarities of different towns and different regions all draw his attentive eye. We know of no better presentation, in a few chapters, of the state of the country, even apart from the merits of the narrative as that of a scholar's journey.

Dr. Peters makes especial acknowledgment of the marked courtesies of Major Talbot, the acting Indian Resident and British Consul-General in Bagdad, to whom the party were greatly indebted for many attentions and facilities. It is pleasant to know that formal recognition of them was subsequently made by our Government. From Bagdad on the difficulties increased. One can hardly give in a few sentences a fair idea of the hindrances put in the expedition's path by the dulness or arbitrariness of officials, the envy and rapacity of Arab tribes, submitting to the Turkish yoke only in the presence of superior force, and frankly rejecting it when they felt strong enough to do so, and not least by the pestilential climate, which reduced the whole party, and left them scarcely fit to cope with the intricate questions constantly thrust in their way.

The party had been delayed almost three months in Constantinople, awaiting the official permission to excavate. Hence, although Dr. Peters left America in June, 1888, it was the last day of January, 1889, before he reached Nippur, and digging was not begun until February 6, when thirty-two men were set to work. Only a little more than two months were spent in excavating that season, but the number of laborers was greatly increased. Under all the circumstances, although the brevity of the term and the meagreness of result of that first season's digging very naturally seemed an unfortunate contrast with the elaborateness of the preparation and the number of scholars participating, it is doubtful whether more could have been accomplished. The season was cut short by some ten days through the excitement and peril arising over the death of an Arab, shot by one of the Turkish guard while trying to steal the horses. The actual departure, made in haste and with considerable loss of property, bore, no doubt, somewhat the aspect of a retreat. There was also a general discouragement among the members of the party. Some lack of personal harmony seems hinted at in a single sentence. Most of the party formally resigned. Dr. Peters sums up the record in a gloomy paragraph:

"Our first year at Nippur had ended in failure and disaster. I had failed to win the confidence of my comrades. None of them agreed with me in my belief in the importance of Nippur and the desirability of excavating down to the foundations. The Arabs had proved treacherous. The Turkish authorities disbelieved our story of Arab treachery, and suspected us of plotting with our Turkish commissioner to carry away antiquities. I was sick and nervous, having suffered for two months almost incessantly from severe facial neuralgia and consequent sleeplessness. In fact, I was on the verge of collapse, and the world had never seemed quite so black before."

All the more must we admire the pluck which led the author to determine to prosecute the excavations at Nippur farther another season, with such rich and ample fruits. Meantime, he returned home, as the other members of the party did, with the exception of Mr. Haynes, who, fortunately for future excavation, had been made Consul at Bagdad, and Mr. Noorian, who remained with him. The second volume will contain the account of the work carried on by Dr. Peters on his return to Nippur in 1890, and will be awaited with keen interest.

The book is illustrated with photographs and drawings, and (as frontispiece) with the portrait of Mr. E. W. Clark of Philadelphia, to whom the support of the expedition was largely due. There are two maps in a pocket, one of the route along the Euphrates, and the other of Babylonia from Bagdad to Ur. As appendices we have the subscription paper of the Babylonian exploration fund of the University of Pennsylvania; the first application for permission to excavate; the irade granting the permission; the Turkish law on archæological excavations; a brief outline of the geography of the Euphrates, from ancient authorities; and last, but not least, a portion of the diary of Dr. William Hayes Ward, leader of the Wolfe expedition to Babylonia, beginning with his departure from Bagdad, January 12, 1885, and ending at Beirut in the following April. This covers nearly sixty pages, and is now published for the first time. Dr. Ward is a keen and accurate observer, and his compact record, including frequent compass notations, is of much value. His journey included Nippur, Tell Nasriyeh, and Ur-Mugheir, and on his return he passed through Palmyra. Some of the illustrations of Dr. Peters's book are from photographs taken by the Wolfe expedition.

We cannot close this review without expressing once more the debt of the whole world of scholars to the University of Pennsylvania, under whose auspices the exploration of the mound of Nippur has been carried so far, to the personal devotion of the explorers, with Dr. Peters at their head, and to the "public-spirited gentlemen of Philadelphia," to whom he dedicates his book. Money and labor have been worthily spent. It is, indeed, no new thing. No-

where on earth are private means and effort more lavishly given for education, to say nothing of benevolence, than in the United States. Expeditions have been sent eastward and westward, to Arizona and Mexico, as well as Babylonia—to Alaska and to Africa. Archæological schools are situated at Athens and at Rome, besides the great benefactions at home. It is well that it should be so. It is desirable that it should be so more and more. What Philadelphia has done at Nippur might be repeated with perhaps equal wealth of result by other American cities, in other Babylonian, Mesopotamian, and Syrian mounds. Whoever undertakes it ennobles material possessions by using them nobly—making them contribute to the intellectual and moral resources of the nation and the world.

The Ancient Volcanoes of Great Britain. By Sir Archibald Geikie. Macmillan & Co. 1897. 2 vols., royal 8vo, with 7 maps.

Southern Scotland and northern England are visited by multitudes of strangers each year, and many get as far as the Western Isles. Few of them, however, are reminded of volcanic phenomena, though columnar basalts, such as those of Fingal's cave, may sometimes suggest the thought of lava. Yet for long periods of time in the far past this region has been covered with volcanoes like Hecla, and lava sheets like those of the Snake River. Japan is not more plagued with earthquakes than England has been, and the quiet little island has had its Krakatoas. It may have them again, but there is no immediate danger.

Geological conclusions such as these, when based on an overwhelming amount of undeniable evidence, appeal strongly to the imagination; indeed, it is such appeals which call forth the spirit of research and thus create science. But it is not for the immediate purpose of stimulating the imagination that Sir Archibald Geikie's latest work is written. Volcanoes and volcanic rocks have always been attractive subjects to students of nature, "naturalists" in the good, broad sense in which Lord Kelvin uses the term. Within a generation this interest has greatly increased because of the invention of slicing even such unpromising rocks as basalt so very thin that the sections become transparent and can then be studied under the microscope, with an amount of detail not dreamed of by earlier geologists. The method seems to have been invented by Nicol, whose name is ordinarily connected with an extremely useful prism familiar to microscopists. Slicing was introduced, however, by Dr. Sorby, and the study of rocks under the microscope has been most ardently pursued on the Continent of Europe by Rosenbusch, Michel-Lévy, and their pupils.

The development of such a method of study, which could be quietly pursued at home and at ease by the contemplation and interpretation of objects which, in the polarized light ordinarily employed, exhibit most enchanting colors, naturally attracted many votaries. The consequence is that the minutest details of composition and structure of a vast number of volcanic rocks are now known to students. In fact, the quantity of detailed information is really embarrassing. Generalizations are needed to render it comprehensible; and, above all, the results of microscopic study need correlation with what may be called the life-history of volcanoes, interpreted on sound principles of natural philosophy.

Most volcanic regions do not offer very much opportunity for inquiry into the evolution of volcanoes, or into the relations which the many modifications of mineralogical and chemical composition bear to one another. In many regions the rocks are too new; only the latest ejecta are exposed. In others they are too old; the superstructure has been cut away under the action of "water dropping day by day," and only the foundations remain. It has been known to geologists that the volcanic region of England, particularly the Western Isles, presents remarkable exposures. There the accidents of topography have been such that, while the relatively recent rocks remain in sufficient quantities, the more ancient ones are also exposed, so that a complete autopsy of the dead volcanic giants is possible. It is as a contribution to this subject that Sir Archibald's book is intended. It represents the accumulated results of more than two-score years of observation and study of the history and the relations of the volcanic rocks. They are presented with all the charm of style of one of the masters of the language, and they are illustrated with a generosity worthy of the subject.

It is impracticable to convey an adequate impression of so extensive a work in a brief review, but some idea must be given of the author's attitude towards doubtful questions. One of the famous deductions of Lord Kelvin was that volcanic energy must have lessened as the age of the earth increased. Now in the volcanic area of Great Britain two periods of activity are abundantly represented. The earlier is Palæozoic, the other Tertiary, and between them intervened the vast Mesozoic age. When the earlier eruptions ceased, the first mammalian animals had not come into existence. When the second series of outbursts died away, Homo Sapiens may already (somewhere on the globe) have developed conceit enough to call himself wise. The time interval is of course immense, a very appreciable fraction of the entire age of the earth; but in Great Britain at least there is every evidence that the later eruptions were not less vigorous than the earlier ones. It does not follow, however, that vulcanicity in the world as a whole has not lessened with time, though it probably decreased more rapidly when the earth was very young than it is now doing. Lord Kelvin's inference is not impaired by the fact that the British Islands do not illustrate its truth.

It is very largely to the study of this region that we owe the generalization that the volcanic rocks of ancient periods are not essentially different from the more modern flows. The hypothesis, never very strenuously held, that there was a difference, arose in part from the changes which the vicissitudes of time have produced in the older volcanics, and partly from the fact that it is, as a rule, only the lower portions of the older rocks which remain for comparison with the superficial portions of the younger series. In Scotland, however, there are exceptional opportunities for comparison admirably described by Sir Archibald. The natural and simple conclusion is that volcanic phenomena repeat themselves as often as certain chemical and physical conditions recur, and are as independent of time as is the action of gravity.

The order of succession of eruptive rocks in a connected series of eruptions is a subject in which all students of rocks are now intensely interested. Sir Archibald finds that, as a rule, those rocks, such as peridotites and basalts, which contain a relatively small amount of silica, were the first to appear, and that the amount of silica gradually increased, so that the last eruptions were most siliceous. This is a radically different result from that reached by American geologists in the Rocky Mountain region. The succession among the British lavas, however, is not invariable, and Sir Archibald wisely concludes that the true explanation of these alternations is of a complex order. It is, indeed, by no means clear that the order of complexity is not of an insoluble degree and due in large measure to what we call accident.

Sir Archibald's treatment of the origin of rock differences is somewhat disappointing. He does not fairly face the problems involved, and contents himself for the most part with recording the evidence that allied rocks in some cases have a community of origin. He does, however, insist that the banded gabbros and gneisses are derived from heterogeneous magmas. With so large an accumulation of facts so carefully studied, he should have been able to reach more definite conclusions, even if he had been obliged to state them tentatively. His responsibility in the circumstances is not quite ended by a lucid and attractive chronicle of the phenomena, but, fortunately, Sir Archibald has time to make good this sin of omission. The question as to how far various rocks are derived from a common magma, and by what processes differences have been evolved, is not of interest to students of petrography only. It is bound up with the constitution of the earth's interior, and even with the origin of the earth itself.

'The Ancient Volcanoes of Great Britain' is a treasury of detailed facts to which geologists will long turn for examples of almost every phase of vulcanism. It is a pity it is an expensive book, for every geologist will want to own it, but it could have been cheapened only at the expense of its value.

Pictures of Russian History and Russian Literature. By Prince Serge Wolkonsky. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co.

Those who were so fortunate as to hear Prince Volkonsky (this is the more accurate but less fashionable way of transliterating his name) during his visit to America in 1896 will be glad to own this permanent record of his Lowell Lectures. The personal charm of his manner is missing, but the peculiar value of the matter remains. The volume is especially valuable for people who wish to explore the subject of Russian history and literature in the critical writings of different countries, as well as in the writings of Russian authors and critics, for Prince Volkonsky gives very full lists of all the books to which he refers, with copious footnotes bearing on the text. These lists and notes, taken in connection with the remarkably clear, well-proportioned pictures of his lectures, furnish if not the best condensed and thorough work that is to be had, at least one of the best. It must not be thought that the author, though compelled, by the nature of his subject, to indulge in much compilation from other sources, contents himself with merely reporting other people's ideas.

On the contrary, the flashes of wit and insight which illumine nearly every page, added to the good judgment as to what could best be incorporated in a series of lectures necessarily of comparatively brief compass, render the book as nearly perfect as it is possible for such a book to be. It would be hard to suggest a single addition or alteration. It will prove a boon both to reading-clubs and to solitary students.

One delightful feature is, that though the author never hesitates to speak the whole truth in unmistakable terms, he does it with such tact and courtesy, as well as thoroughness, that even the victims must, perforce, acknowledge the justice of his descriptions or strictures. What can be more accurate than the gentle statement and warning (p. 7) as to what the foreigner's method is, and what he must not and must expect in the matter of Russia and her literature? He begins by quoting Prince Viazemsky: "If you want an intelligent Englishman or Frenchman to talk nonsense, let him emit an opinion on Russia; it is a subject which intoxicates him and at once clouds his intellect." People go to Russia with preconceived opinions, and are too diligently engaged in matching their assumed facts with proofs to see the real facts. He then proceeds to mention the American girl "who frankly confessed that she did not like Russian novels representing Russian life; she thought things they pictured were not original enough, lacking 'local color'; she much preferred English novels about Russia, they were so much more 'Russian'—with their snow, wolves, police agents, and the threatening prospect of Siberia in the background."

But we may safely omit further reference to details until (p. 106) we come to the subject of Peter the Great. Despite the fact that foreigners know more about Tsar Peter—on the surface—than about almost any other character in Russian history, there are, nevertheless, puzzling points about his character, career, and the influence which he still exerts, in reality and in debate, that require lucid explanation, and that lucid explanation the author furnishes. "If any one should ask us, How did he do it [that is, weld the scattered forces and impulses of the nation into a compact, vital whole]? extravagant as it may seem, we should answer with one word, 'He lived.' Peter the Great lived, and that was enough; his life was the people's life; his learning and labor were his nation's improvement; his advance was the advance of the country; his success was Russia's success." And he quotes the historian Solovieff: "Peter the Great is the last and greatest *hero*. Only Christianity and proximity to our own times have saved us (and this only to a certain extent) from a religious worshipping of this demigod, and from mythological recitals about the exploits of this Hercules. He is a hero in the antique sense; he is in modern times the only specimen of those gigantic natures of which we see so many in the misty distance of ages at the foundation and formation of human societies." From this beginning the author gradually works out the perfect portrait, reminding us that

"that sovereign, who is so much accused by the so-called national party for his propensity to foreigners, leaves the state affairs at his death exclusively in Russian hands. . . . Now we believe in him, for we have acquired that moral education which he neglected for what he considered of more urgent importance; and, enriched with that moral education, we now judge his work and approve of it. . . . During thirty-six years the country was on the go; towards the end, people began to feel tired; a sort of relaxation followed Peter's death; the workers took rest, yet the work stood firm—it cannot perish, and this is perhaps the greatest test of the enormousness of his effort, that he made it impossible for the country to turn back. Peter the Great is accused of having turned his country out of its natural course, of having trampled upon the national spirit in order to impose the foreign culture of Western Europe. . . . For his violence and cruelty, people have compared him to John the Terrible. . . . People really seem to forget of what times they speak. Read the Memoirs of the Margravine of Bayreuth, Frederick the Great's sister, you will see what was going on at her father's court in Berlin in this same eighteenth century. And what did stout Frederick William of Brandenburg do to expiate his brutalities? But as he was a brute, nobody mentions him, whereas a great man's faults are registered so as to form a regular indictment."

The lecturer then explains the Slavophil and the corresponding current of public opinion, and winds up with a warning that no one can know a country by reading about it, but only by reading its national books—with such discreet assistance and suggestion as he affords, he might have added; and that "Europe's eighteenth century is Russia's eighteenth century—it is the first coincidence of universal and Russian chronology."

The best way to show the value of the author's suggestive style is by quotations, and we therefore permit ourselves to indulge in them more at length than usual, because of the need, as evinced by the innumerable valueless compilations which leave matters as obscure as they find them. Here is a just comparison: "If you consider that over two hundred years separate the German translation of the Bible by Luther from Goethe, and that only fifty years separate the Russian Grammar by Lomonossov from Pushkin, and less than a hundred years lie between Lomonossov and Leo Tolstoi, you will get an idea of the enforced pace by which Russian thought was advancing." An interesting contribution to the question of censorship is given on p. 225. Gogol's famous play, "The Inspector," which has never been taken off the Russian stage since the Emperor Nicholas I. ordered its production intact, was pitilessly mutilated by the German manager when, after many hesitations, he accepted it for the Imperial stage in Berlin, in 1895! Slavophilism—that mysterious subject to the foreigner—is clearly set forth, after a preliminary characterization as "spread-eagleism," which is deliciously accurate in its general outlines. The manner in which the emancipation of the serfs is handled, and the setting forth of the reasons why Russia will not have the labor question to deal with for centuries to come, is another valuable contribution to current discussion.

Probably, the chapter which will awaken the most vivid interest is Lecture viii., wherein the modern writers Turgeneff, Dostoievsky, and Tolstoi are treated with the greatest enthusiasm, justice, and delicacy. Prince Volkonsky sets forth how Grigorovitch, in 'Anton the Miserable' (he might have added, 'The Fishermen,' also), not Turgeneff, as is generally believed, was the first to introduce the peasant into the novel; considers the claims which Dostoievsky possesses (and which we heartily acknowledge) to the final judgment pronounced upon him by the author—"The light left behind by Dostoievsky is one of the purest that shine on this earth; it is one of the most precious legacies bequeathed by man to future generations"; and, finally, discusses the relations in which Count L. N. Tolstoi stands to Turgeneff, Dostoievsky, society, Christianity, together with his tendencies, which are distinctly in the direction of disintegration. It is impossible to do justice by quotations to the fine analysis of Tolstoi's teachings, the clear reasoning and logical argument. We must refer our readers to the book itself for this subject, as for the many things which we have passed over unnoted, but not unappreciated. It is possible that a careful perusal of this last chapter, in particular, will help many people to understand the exact drift of the Count's doctrines, and their own attitude in respect to them.

It is a sincere pleasure to be able to give such unreserved praise to a book as we can to this one. It is no easy matter to infuse new life into formal subjects, and so to combine the history of a nation and a literature for a thousand years that the result will become a living fountain of thought and inspiration. Yet this difficult feat Prince Volkonsky has accomplished. We congratulate him and his readers.

Ricordi Tipografici di un Viaggio agli Stati Uniti (Marzo-Giugno, 1892), di Piero Barbèra. Florence: S. Landi. 1897.

This little brochure consists of reminiscences, by the present head of the famous publishing house of Barbèra in Florence, lately contributed to the *Arte della Stampa*, touching his visit to this country in 1892 with an especial eye to the state of the printer's art among us. Incidentally he has something to say as a tourist, and cannot withhold a chapter from the Boston of Franklin, whose Autobiography counted for so much in the life of his own honored father; nor from Harvard College. And if he notes the fact that railroad time-tables are freely given away in the United States, instead of being sold, as in Italy, or that our street-car conductors are not always civil, or that our newspapers are disgracefully pitchforked together and stuffed with all sorts of scandals and personalities and puerile "indiscretions," or remarks among the outlying market stalls of Faneuil Hall (which he happily styles the Jeu de Paume of the American Revolution) his fellow-Italians in colorable quantity, these are pure asides from his main purpose.

He takes his first typographic lesson in Chicago, where he investigates, at Rand, McNally & Co.'s huge establishment, the mystery of the manufacture of the railroad maps there turned out. He next describes, with the aid of many illustrations, the appointments of the Riverside Press at Cambridge. Then, with an intervening chapter on the offices of the Century Co., he very minutely and lucidly reports upon the De Vinne Press, of which his admiration is all but unqualified, and finally with good reason sketches the typographic career of Mr. De Vinne himself. Throughout, Signor Barbèra shows himself a most intelligent and exact observer, and his narrative has the charm of simplicity, cultivation, and humor. To any one practically familiar with typography, it offers much interest in the parallel technical terms (more identical than might be supposed), as when he says of job offices that they are called *travaux de ville*

in French and *bottellame* in Italian. His conclusions are very flattering to our proficiency in the art of printing, which he places on a higher level than that of Europe; in mechanical contrivances unquestionably. These, he says, an Italian may admire, but cannot always avail himself of, for they have grown out of conditions that do not exist on the peninsula, where no daily newspaper attains an output of 200,000 copies, like that of the *Century Magazine*, with its special presses and special facilities for binding. The American skill in composition by hand seemed to astonish Signor Barbèra, who records, on Mr. De Vinne's authority, five columns of the *Century* in ten hours by the deftest compositor, and four for the less rapid. He has in vain challenged any Italian printing-office to rival this achievement, and he asks, Why the difference? He is convinced that our authors have a much better knowledge of the printing process than have the Italian, and hence send in "copy" in a state much more favorable to swift and accurate bookmaking, with fewer repentances and alterations in style or in proportion; and whereas in Italy it is the exception for a work to be complete in manuscript before it is committed to the printer, here it is the rule.

We part from these agreeable pages with mention of some instructive comments on a little incident of a personal nature. Signor Barbèra had gone to the *Century* office with an idea of making arrangements to translate for publication at home the series of articles by Castelar, then beginning in the magazine, on the centennial theme of Columbus and the discovery of America. He was allowed to borrow the Spanish manuscript, and to his disappointment found that "nothing more vacuous, more falsely rhetorical and conventional, had ever emanated from the pen of a writer of the Latin race." He accordingly expressed to the editors his surprise that that sort of rubbish (*roba simile*) could please North American readers. "We agree with you," answered the editors, "but we accepted it and paid roundly for it because it was Castelar's rubbish, and did what we could to prune its exuberance." No doubt the editors had bought their pig in a poke, and made the best of a bad bargain, and they are not to be judged like those purveyors of "opinion" who systematically impose *names* in place of thoughts upon an undiscerning public, to sell their magazines.

With the Turkish Army in Thessaly. By Clive Bigham, author of 'A Ride through Western Asia.' With illustrations and maps. Macmillan. 1897.

This is a succinct account of the Thessalian campaign just closed, prepared by Mr. Clive Bigham, who, without republishing his recent correspondence for the London *Times*, has utilized his telegrams and letters from the seat of war in preparing a fresh and fair account of the military episodes in Thessaly. In writing this book, as in the preparation of his original accounts for the press, Mr. Bigham frankly takes a more or less pro-Turkish point of view. This does not, thanks to a remarkable clearness of mind in the writer, color adversely to the Greeks our author's record of actual facts. It does, however, somewhat influence his brief account of the causes of the war; it leads him also to minimize the part played on the Turkish side by Germans, especially in the case of Grumbkopf Pasha. He is also somewhat loath to admit the important rôle of Captain von Morgen as Edhem Pasha's adviser. The pleasant social relations which Mr. Bigham enjoyed while with the Turkish army made it only too easy for him to dissociate the various Turkish "gentlemen" with whom he consorted from the policy of massacre and oppression with which Turkey has been and still is identified. He may, however, cite good authority for saying of the Turkish rank and file that, given "capable and acceptable officers," "organization increased to the utmost pitch of efficiency," and " a thorough moral and physical training," "you will have the most exceptionally strong army that has ever been let loose on the earth."

The twelve illustrations given by Mr. Bigham add to the powerful interest of his story by reproducing the beauty of the stage setting of this recent drama. The view of the frontier north of Meteora, prefixed to his account of the hard-fought battle there, the picture of the Green Mosque, and the bridge at Larissa, and the view, while it was actually in progress, of the battle at Velestino—the one Greek victory recorded—give a most welcome reënforcement to the writer's studiously clear descriptions of the country. In addition, the book contains six maps and three plans, so carefully prepared that the reader can easily identify every village, however small, and every pass, however unimportant, to which reference is made in the narrative of events. It is no little tribute to Mr. Bigham's essential fairness in this record that we can feel that the central point of interest lies in the brave stand made at Velestino by Smolensky. Nor does his criticism of operations in the field fail to show that, after all, the Greeks showed one point of superiority over their opponents—a better training in the use of artillery, so far as they made any use of it at all. The final impression gained from this book is that the Turks outnumbered the Greeks, and, therefore, won the day. Neither side appears to have shown military competence. Of the Turks Mr. Bigham says: "The strategy of the Turks was essentially dilatory; but, though apparently overcautious, they failed to show a just appreciation of the real dangers of war. They entirely ignored the true object of attack, the enemy's base, and advanced with a strong right instead of a strong left wing. They omitted to push home their advantages, and even the little cavalry they had was rarely employed." The Greeks showed even greater lack of foresight. They failed to cut the wires at Tyrnavos, deserted ammunition at Pharsala and Domoko, generally omitted to protect their flanks, only once detailed a rearguard, and never attempted to retard the Turkish advance by the simple expedients of blowing up a bridge or erecting any kind of obstacle.

The unity of effect achieved in this narrative is so happy that those who read it may almost regret as time misspent the attention given to piecemeal reports published in the daily press as the war proceeded. A certain falsity of perspective and lack of proportion is unavoidable so long as the events described are in progress, and renders the refashioning of a war-correspondent's original material before it appears in permanent form obviously necessary. This has rarely been done to better purpose than in the present book.

The History of Comines, Englished by Thomas Danett. Anno 1596. With an Introduction by Charles Whibley. 2 vols. [Tudor Translations.] London: D. Nutt. 1897.

Of this commendable series, reproducing in accessible form some of the masterpieces, forgotten or other, of old English prose, mention has already been made in our columns, in notices of Underdowne's 'Heliodorus' and North's 'Plutarch,' and the work now before us shows that the editor still has *la main heureuse.* While this translation has neither the linked sweetness and long-cadenced period of the one, nor the quaint and vivacious raciness of the other, it is a model of pure, manly, and majestic prose, stately without pomp, idiomatic without triviality, graphic without any straining for effect. No one can read Comines without thinking of Froissart, and it is to be hoped that the editor will see his way to reproducing the incomparable version of Lord Berners, which has almost unique merit in that it represents the best literary work of a period well-nigh unrepresented; for Berners, writing in his old age, uses the language and style of a previous generation.

Hardly more than half a century separates Froissart's work from that of Comines, and yet in passing from one to the other we pass into a new world. In the fourteenth century, chivalry, with its noble if somewhat fantastic ideals, still kept its hold upon men's minds. Knights still undertook daring deeds for glory or for ladies' smiles; vows upon the heron or the peacock were religiously performed. Kings could admire, praise, and bountifully reward heroic exploits, even though achieved by a foe. The man of gentle birth and breeding felt that a gulf separated him from the churl; and nobles and knights paused in their warfare to join in putting down the ferocious Jacquerie, as a thing that every gentleman was bound to suppress. Honor, or noble respect for one's self, and courtesy, or noble consideration for others, were still the cardinal virtues of the faith. In the world to which Comines introduces us, nearly all this has vanished. Success is the god of universal idolatry, and the end that justifies all means. Craft, fraud, and perfidy reign supreme. Everybody is plotting, perjuring himself, making and swearing to treaties only to gain time to break them effectually, carrying on secret negotiations on all sides, with doubly secret reservations. Prince A, having made a solemn alliance with Prince B, enters at once into secret negotiations with B's deadliest enemy, and, knowing that he is sure to be betrayed, takes care to be the first to let B know what he is doing, and to assure him that it is all pretence. The Constable of St. Pol is at one and the same time betraying Burgundy and England to France, and France and England to Burgundy. In the midst of all these monstrous webs of craft sits the arch-plotter Louis XI., reading their treasons like an open book, outwitting them all, and almost hoping to outwit Death himself.

Comines's portrait of this extraordinary monarch is a masterpiece. Far from being the gloomy, superstitious, and essentially vulgar tyrant of popular imagination, Louis was one of the most intelligent sovereigns that ever mounted a throne. He understood

the age he lived in and the men he lived among, and he saw that policy in the end was always an overmatch for brute force. We might really call him a patriotic king, for the business of his life was to make France strong, united, and prosperous. To do this he had to lower the pride and sap the strength of his great feudatories, to pull down the haughty and exalt the lowly, and substitute the King's justice for the violence of turbulent barons. The tremendous task assigned him was to transform feudal into royal France, and that by sheer force of intellect. The historian recognizes the real greatness of the man, while not blind to his defects; and, after having traced his career to his strange and gloomy end in the dungeon-palace of Plessis, sums up the whole in this magnanimous fashion:

"All this above written I have rehearsed, not so much to publish the suspicions of the King our master, as partly to proove that the patient enduring of these passions being equall with those he had caused others to endure, and this sicknes being sharpe and troublesome to him, and the which he feared greatly before he fell into it, is to be accounted as a punishment God gave him in this world, to ease him in the world to come; and partly to give an example to those that shall come after him, to have some more compassion on their people than he had, and to be less rigorous in punishing than he was. Notwithstanding, for my part I am not able to accuse him, neither saw I ever a better Prince; for though himselfe pressed his subjects, yet would he suffer none other so to do, friend or foe."

Of the translator, Thomas Danett, almost nothing is known. Besides this version, he wrote two other works, a history of the Low Countries, epitomized from Guicciardini, and a continuation of the history of France from the death of Charles VIII. to that of Henry II.; but it is his translation of Comines that entitles him to an honorable place in literature. Nor is he merely a translator; he enriches his text with excellent notes, correcting errors, explaining phrases and customs, elucidating obscurities, and so forth, which show him to have been a man of wide and varied knowledge.

Of the beauty of this version something has already been said. It is in some respects even better than the original, for Comines inclines to dryness, and in his severe self-repression is sometimes rather colorless, while his translator delights in touching the narrative with brighter color and infusing warmer blood. He does not shrink from a homely idiom or vivid phrase. The weaker of two competitors "hath the woorse end of the staffe"; an historian who makes a blunder "misseth the cushion." The insurgent Liégeois seize an objectionable Master Robert, and, Comines tells us, "made several pieces of him"; the translator—"they hewed him into a number of small gobbets."

The following extract will give an idea of Danett's more vivacious style. Olivier, the King's barber and factotum, has been sent to Mary of Burgundy, richest heiress in Europe, to persuade her to put herself into Louis's wardship, and especially, if he could, to stir up a revolt in Ghent, where the lady was.

"Notwithstanding that he were not in their Towne-house to speake publikely to their Senate, bicause he meant first to assay if he could do any good with this young Princesse, yet was his enterprise smelt out; wherefore after he had sojourned a few daies in Gaunt, he was sent for to declare his message; whereupon he repaired to the Princes [Princess's] presence, being apparelled much more sumptuouslie than became one of his calling, and delivered his letters. The said Lady sate in hir chaire of estate, having about hir the Duke of Cleves and the bishop of Liege, with divers other noblemen and a great number of hir subjects. When she had read hir letter, she commanded him to declare his message. But he answered that he had nothing to say but to hir selfe alone. Whereupon it was told him that this was not the maner of their countrie, especially to commune in secret with this yoong Lady, being unmarried. But he still continued his former answer, that he had nothing to say but to hir selfe apart. Whereupon they threatened to make him say somewhat else; which words put him in feare. And I thinke verily that when he came to deliver his letter, he had not bethought him what to say; for this was not his principall charge, as you have heard. Thus Master Oliver departed for this time without further speech. Some of the Councell began to scorne him, as well bicause of his base estate as of his foolish speech and behaviour, but especially they of Gaunt (in a little village neere whereunto he was borne), scoffed and derided him, so far foorth that suddenly he fled thence, being advertised if he staide there any longer that he should be throwen into the river; which I thinke would have prooved true."

Matka and Kotik. A Tale of the Mist Islands. By David Starr Jordan. San Francisco: Whitaker & Ray Co. 1897. 8vo, pp. 76, with many illustrations.

This little volume is based on a lecture delivered in Washington after the return from Alaska of the seal commission of 1896, by President Jordan. His official position precluding a formal public statement of his observations and conclusions before the publication of his official report, the lecture took the form of an account of the vicissitudes of seal life, involving the personification of a family of seals. No official objection could be well raised against what purported to be a modern fairy tale, and thus the form in which the matter is presented is accounted for. As a matter of fact, the book gives an excellent and finely illustrated popular description of the life and habits of the seals. The pictures, being reproductions from photographs, are devoid of that element of caricature which has impaired the value of some other seal portraits. The book is elegant in its make-up, and no doubt will find a place in many libraries. The natural history behind its mask of fancy is abreast of the latest investigations.

The only criticism which seems called for relates to the denomination of the pelagic sealers as "pirates." Seal-killing or sheep-killing is cruel, by land or sea, and the starving pups of St. Paul Island, like the dying young birds of Florida heronries, are entitled to our active sympathy. The pelagic sealers, however, are merely exercising their undoubted rights in killing wild animals in the open sea; and the popular ignorance of international law should not be catered to, even in a work of fancy, by the employment of epithets which, in this connection, are abusive and unjust.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, Mrs. Mrs. Crichton's Creditor. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 75c.
Betz, L. P. H. Heine and Alfred de Musset. Zürich: Albert Müller.
Carlyle, Thomas. Montaigne, and Other Essays, Chiefly Biographical. Now first collected. London: James Gowans & Son; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.
Eastman, Charlotte W. The Evolution of Dodd's Sister. Rand, McNally & Co.
Frazer, Perry D. Canoe Cruising and Camping. "Forest and Stream" Publishing Co. $1.
Goodyear, W. H. Roman and Mediæval Art. Revised and enlarged. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent.
Hammond, S. T. Nursing vs. Dosing: A Treatise on the Care of Dogs. "Forest and Stream" Publishing Co. $1.
Macleane, Douglas. A History of Pembroke College, Oxford. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

THE GADFLY.

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Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1896		1,109,275 00
Total Marine Premiums		$3,706,063 89
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1896, to 31st December, 1896		$2,658,108 58
Losses paid during the same period	$1,249,999 01	
Returns of Premiums and Expenses	$646,420 25	

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Cash in Bank	175,229 25
Amount	$11,312,753 18

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Summer Literature.

THOSE who keep up with the data concerning current fiction will remember that a list of 489 of the leading books published in 1896 was submitted to 800 librarians early in the year with a request that they vote as to the "fifty best books" therein contained. When the results came to be tabulated it was found that twelve out of the fifty thus selected by trained experts (eight of these being in the first twenty-five), including number one, were publications of Messrs. CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS, a fact sufficiently noteworthy when one reflects that the list was extremely comprehensive and was passed upon by men peculiarly fitted to decide the question of a volume's popular effectiveness.

Barrie, Stevenson, and Stockton.

Heading this list was "**Sentimental Tommy**" (Illustrated by William Hatherell, 12mo, $1.50), that fascinating study in boyhood with which Mr. J. M. Barrie so greatly increased his circle of admirers, and it was but natural that the same author's "**Margaret Ogilvy**" (with frontispiece portrait, 12mo, $1.25) should take its place close behind the former work. It has required already sixty or seventy thousand copies of each volume to keep up with the demand for these books here and in England, and the almost unanimous opinion of the critics seems to be that they represent Mr. Barrie's literary apogee thus far. How good they must needs be to warrant such an opinion every reader can imagine. Among the other lighter works in the above list were naturally two by Robert Louis Stevenson: "**Weir of Hermiston**" (12mo, $1.50) and "**In the South Seas**" (12mo, $1.50). The former Stevenson himself declared to contain much of his best work, and his literary executor, Mr. Sidney Colvin, has been one of many well-known critics who have confirmed this judgment; the latter volume contains an account of the wanderings of the Stevenson party among the Marquesas, Paumotus, and Gilbert Islands in the yacht *Casco* and the schooner *Equator* in 1888-9. It is hardly necessary to say that no one else has ever written of these South Sea Islanders with such a happy combination of sympathetic insight and felicitous expression. Still another story from the same much-lamented hand is to be published this fall by the Scribners. "**St. Ives**" (12mo, $1.50) tells in the most buoyant manner the adventures of a Frenchman who escapes from an Edinburgh prison and meets with many truly Stevensonian adventures ere he again beholds his native land. Of course Frank R. Stockton would be sure to be represented in any such gathering of notables. "**Mrs. Cliff's Yacht**" (Illustrated by A. Forestier) proved no less seductive than its immediate predecessor, "**The Adventures of Captain Horn**" (each 12mo, $1.50), and Mr. Stockton has recently made still another addition to his already long list of volumes in the collection of short stories called "**A Story-Teller's Pack**" (Illustrated, 12mo, $1.50). Mr. William Dean Howells has recently made an illuminating analysis of this volume and Mr. Stockton's methods. He explains part of the author's success by showing that he has brought the art of dispensing humor with an entire sobriety of demeanor to "higher artistic perfection than it has ever had before. There is not a word of suggestion or preparation from him who tells these tales, and the others in this charming, this consoling book." After asserting and pointing out the unique character of Mr. Stockton's work, the famous critic goes on to say: "In this latest book of his there is not one disappointment. Life cannot be without an object as long as there is the hope of something more from him."

Richard Harding Davis, Mrs. Burnett, and E. H. Hornung.

It would not be very venturesome to predict that should the books of 1897 be treated similarly to those of last year "**Soldiers of Fortune**" (illustrated by C. D. Gibson, 12mo, $1.50) would hold the place now held by "**Sentimental Tommy.**" The London *Academy* says: "Mr. Davis has vigorous ideals; he is in love with strength and cleanness, with 'grit' and resource, with heroism and courage in men; with beauty and frankness, with freshness and youth in women; and liking these qualities, he also likes writing about them. . . . Mr. Davis has the dramatic gift—he carries you along with him. One need not wish for a better story of action than this," and to find the laudations of the story at home it would be merely necessary to make a list of the reviews which have appeared. It may put the matter more tangibly to some minds to state that the book, although published late last May, just at the beginning of the "dull season" in the book trade, is already in its fortieth thousand. With a different enough manner and setting Mrs. Burnett's "**Lady of Quality**" (12mo, $1.50) provides equally captivating reading, and the author now has in press a unique companion to this striking "Curious Hitherto Unknown History." "**His Grace of Osmonde**" (12mo, $1.50) tells the man's side of this most entertaining story, and all who are familiar with Mrs. Burnett's subtlety and ingenuity of treatment will recognize the great possibilities of such a dovetailed romance in her hands. "**A Lady of Quality,**" by the way, deserves a line of statistics, for it is among that sufficiently limited number of books which pass the twenty-five thousand mark in their first year of existence. Returning again from the age of the *Tatler* to To-day—one could hardly select a more entirely satisfactory group of stories for summer or any other time of the year than the lively Australian-English romances of Mr. E. W. Hornung. "Just as Jim Bludso saw his duty, so does Mr. Hornung see his reader's interest—'a dead sure thing, and he goes for it thar and then.' . . . We cannot call 'My Lord Duke' anything but one of the most agreeable novels that we can remember," says the London *Academy*, and besides "**My Lord Duke**" (12mo, $1.25) Mr. Hornung has brought out through the Scribners "**The Rogue's March**" (12mo, $1.50), "**A Bride from the Bush**" (*Ivory Series*, 16mo, 75 cents), and "**Irralie's Bushrangers**" (*Ivory Series*, 16mo, 75 cents). The first and last of these deal with the Australian "bush," but "*My Lord Duke*," like "*A Bride from the Bush*," depends largely for its effects upon the incongruities resulting from transplanting a Colonial to London society. Mr. Hornung takes firm hold of one's attention at the outset and he keeps it till the last word.

Some More Fiction.

IN a cover as artistically attractive as the author's style, there appeared a short while ago a novel by Mr. Walter Cranston Larned entitled "**Arnaud's Masterpiece**" (12mo $1.25). Of this mediæval "Romance of the Pyrenees," the Detroit *Free Press* remarks appreciatively: "'**Arnaud's Masterpiece**' is distinguished by a sweet and noble seriousness; it is calm and quiet; there is nothing common or unclean within its pretty covers." Sharply contrasting with the simplicity and elevation of Mr. Larned's story is the volcanic volume which heralded "Benjamin Swift's" advent in the front rank of our modern novelists last year. *The Critic* said of "**Nancy Noon**" (12mo, $1.50. *Fifth edition*): "Power there is in this book in such measure as is not given to the first comer; power of thought, of feeling, and of expression. It has a trick of lingering in the memory when it is over, and some of its chords are touched as by a master hand," and the same originality and forceful virility are prominent in the author's new book, "**The Tormentor**" (12mo, $1.50), which will appear this autumn. Cy Warman, too, has a new volume in press called "**The Express Messenger, and Other Tales of the Rail,**" which should prove as popular as his "**Tales of an Engineer, with Rhymes of the Rail**" (each 12mo, $1.25). Mr. Warman's stories carry one along as irresistibly as did ever his engine when his hand was on the throttle. Another welcome volume will be "**The History of the Lady Betty Stair**" (illustrated by Thule de Thulstrup, 12mo, $1.25), a touching romance by Molly Elliot Seawell. Miss Seawell's "**Sprightly Romance of Marsac**" (illustrated by Gustav Verbeek, 12mo, $1.25) is one of the deftest, cleverest tales imaginable.

Some Outing Books.

The Scribners' list of "popular science" books is particularly strong. Easily at the head of this group is Mrs. William Starr Dana's "How to Know the Wild Flowers" (with 152 illustrations, crown 8vo. $1.75 *net*), whose effective grouping *according to color* and literary charm, have necessitated the issuing of some thirty-two thousand copies. For the amateur ornithologist there are John B. Grant's "**Our Common Birds and How to Know Them**" (illustrated, 12mo, $1.50 *net*), in its thirteenth thousand; "**The Bird's Calendar**" (illustrated, 12mo, $1.50 *net*), a series of charming essays by Mr. H. E. Parkhurst, who will add a companion volume to this in the Fall; "**Song Birds and Water Fowl**" (illustrated by Louis Agassez Fuertes, 12mo, $1.50 *net*); "**The Out-of-Door Library,**" four attractive volumes on "Angling," "Hunting," "Mountain Climbing," and "Athletic Sports" (each profusely illustrated, 12mo, $1.50); and four volumee treating of the famous "**American Summer Resorts**" (each 12mo, 75 cents).

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[*Continued on page* 118.]

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This is the book which was reviewed at some length in the NATION last week, with comments on the writer's "essential fairness." "studiously clear descriptions," "the powerful interest of his story," etc., and with the following paragraph in conclusion:

"The unity of effect achieved in this narrative is so happy that those who read it may almost regret as time misspent the attention given to piecemeal reports published in the daily press as the war proceeded. A certain falsity of perspective and lack of proportion is unavoidable so long as the events described are in progress, and renders the refashioning of a war correspondent's original material before it appears in permanent form obviously necessary. This has rarely been done to better purpose than in the present book."

ADDRESS

THE MACMILLAN COMPANY, 66 Fifth Avenue, New York.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 5, 1897.

The Week.

The scheme of having jubilations in all parts of the country over the passage of the Dingley tariff law fell through, fortunately for its promoters. It would have been the very irony of fate if such a celebration had occurred in Lawrence, Mass., on Saturday evening, to be followed on Monday morning by the announcement that two great mills, employing more than 2,000 hands, would shut down through a part of August; or in Manchester, N. H., to be followed within forty-eight hours by the notice that the great Amoskeag mills, employing about 8,000 operatives, would shut down through the month of August, if not longer. Nobody will be surprised to learn that in the former city "the news was hardly believed at first, in view of the promises made in the past years that, when a new tariff law had been passed, full time and full wages would be resumed in all the Lawrence mills." Protectionists will cite the fact that similar shut-downs have occurred of late years in the summer season at both Lawrence and Manchester, but that was under a Democratic administration and a "free-trade tariff." That such a custom should be maintained under a Republican President, and put into effect just after the passage of a high-tariff law, is nothing short of a breach of the contract to restore prosperity which the party made with the operatives last fall.

The favorite railing accusation brought against the Wilson bill has been, of course, that it was such a failure as a revenue-producer. Dingley was to mend all that from the first day. The Treasury was instantly to gain $100,000 a day. Well, the confounded facts will not bend themselves to this view. Receipts from customs for the first four days of the Wilson bill were upwards of $3,250,000. Dingley's first four days brought in $1,621,500—or almost precisely one-half. No one need suppose that we regard this showing as really proving anything about the ultimate efficiency of the Dingley bill as a means of producing revenue. It is only a convenient gag to put in certain noisy protectionist mouths. Mr. Dingley will have to send out his first monthly statement with a deficit of $11,073,544, just as if he were another incompetent Wilson. If the point is made that this month of July is five-sixths Wilson and only one-sixth Dingley, we have to record the fact that the one-sixth Dingley increased the deficit by just about $600,000 beyond the amount where the Wilson bill left it. This is the more unlucky in view of the fact that Wilson was able to close his first month with a substantial surplus.

People who watched the heedless extravagance of the last Congress were not surprised at the announcement, in Monday's Washington despatch, that the fiscal year had begun with a July deficit of $11,073,544; nor at the accompanying explanation that "this deficit is accounted for by abnormally heavy expenditures incident to the beginning of the new fiscal year." July expenditures, say the somewhat faint-voiced defenders of the recent fiscal measures, are always far beyond the monthly average. Nothing could be more true. But when the total disbursements of July, 1897, are $50,100,908, against $42,088,468 in July, 1896, and $38,548,063 in July, 1895, suspicion arises that something more than the movement of the seasons is responsible for the inroad on the Treasury. It will be noticed that the month's Government revenue runs almost exactly ten million dollars over the revenue of July, 1896, and yet that the month's deficit is left at more than eleven millions. With such an introductory showing for the fiscal year, the future movement of the revenue, when the Dingley tariff is left alone in operation, becomes a matter of real concern.

The decided decline in the price of silver is hard to reconcile with the reports of the progress made by Senator Wolcott's embassy. We have been assured that the active coöperation of France and the passive aid of England could be depended on, and leading authorities on bimetallism have told us that with such assistance silver could be reinstated. In the face of all this, silver goes down in price with accelerated speed. Possibly a gigantic monetary conspiracy is working to produce this result. Wicked capitalists may reason with themselves that, as silver is presently to be doubled in value by international agreement, it will be a profitable commodity to hold. They may, therefore, have combined to depress the market in order to obtain a stock of silver at the lowest possible price, expecting to sell out at an enormous advance. This explanation ought to recommend itself to the believers in silver. It implies that silver will advance in price, which they believe; that such persons as have a large stock of it on hand will make a great deal of money, which they cannot deny; and that the "money kings" are disposed to do just what Debs and Bryan and Altgeld declare they have always done and will always try to do.

There is a very different explanation of the falling price of silver, and a more rational one. The fall is due to the expectation that silver will be worth less in the future than it is now. The quantity produced is increasing very much, and the cost of producing it is steadily diminishing. On the other hand, the demand for it as money is falling off. Our own Treasury is overloaded with it. The German Government has a large quantity for sale, and so probably has Austria. The French have more silver than they wish they had; the Indian mint is closed; Japan is adopting the gold standard. We begin to hear talk of a change of standard in Mexico, the losses and vexations arising from the silver standard becoming intolerable. Under these circumstances it seems much more reasonable to hold that silver is falling in price because people believe it will not be remonetized than because they believe it will be remonetized. In other words, the financial world regards our silver embassy as a humbug, and does not expect that anything will be done for silver through it or any other agency.

Secretary Gage's speech at Boston on July 27 was rather in the nature of a dose of soothing-syrup than of a thorough-going remedy for our financial situation. In this respect it was less encouraging than his speech at Cincinnati a few weeks ago. The latter had a resolute tone which betokened that the Administration knew what it wanted, intended to go for it, and expected to get it. That speech did a great deal of good in the way of reviving confidence here and abroad. The Boston speech lacks the confidence and vim which imparted so much of hope to those who share Mr. Gage's views in general. They believe with him that the tribulations of the last three years will always beset our currency and our standard of value as long as they remain on their present sandy foundation. They believe, too, that no step will ever be taken towards amendment unless those who know the truth are prepared to fight for it against any odds, whether the opponents be Bryan Democrats or McKinley Republicans. To all such we fear that Mr. Gage's words at Boston will come as a disappointment, for he tells us that there is no pressing need for haste, no immediate occasion for anxiety, that we have ample reserves in the Treasury and good prospects, and so forth. This is exactly what the do-nothings in Congress tell us, and now they will strengthen their own position by quoting the Secretary. All that he says now will be used against his own plan of currency reform next winter, no

matter what that plan may be. The do-nothings will say, "Why not let well enough alone?" If there is no pressing need for haste, and no immediate occasion for anxiety, the average Congressman will conclude that it will be time enough to meet the danger when it comes. It will be hard for anybody to meet that argument who has once used something like it himself.

Last year the Democrats of Maryland, with manifest reluctance, endorsed Bryan and his platform, and in this policy Senator Gorman joined, although much against his inclination. The result was a disastrous split in the party, and its defeat by a plurality of 32,000. Cleveland's plurality over Harrison in 1892 was 21,000. A change of more than 50,000 in the vote of the State was caused by the fatuous and dishonest policy of the Chicago convention, and a seat in the Senate was lost at the same time. The lesson was well calculated to lead to reflection, and Mr. Gorman has naturally made different arrangements for the present year. Circumstances and President McKinley have enabled him to do so. The Wolcott Commission has served his turn perfectly. He has "taken passage" with the present Administration, and he seems to enjoy his company very much. In their declaration of principles the Maryland Democrats say:

"We note with satisfaction that the demand of more than 6,500,000 of Democratic voters, expressed at the polls last November, has compelled President McKinley and a Republican Congress to urge upon the European Powers, through the medium of a duly appointed commission, the necessity for an international conference to arrange the terms of a bimetallic system under the operation of which both gold and silver shall be used and recognized as money of final redemption."

They further affirm that they stand where they always have stood. They "believe now, as they always have believed, in honest money, the gold and silver money of the Constitution, and the coinage of both metals without discrimination against either into standard dollars of final payment and redemption"—but not at any particular ratio. The essence of the Chicago platform and of the whole Bryan campaign was in the fixing of the ratio of 16 to 1. That was the Democratic new departure. The platform on which Mr. Cleveland was nominated in 1892 called for "the coinage of both gold and silver without discriminating against either metal," but it required that the two kinds of dollars should be of the same intrinsic value. There is nothing in the Gorman platform that requires them to be of the same intrinsic value or of any value. The Maryland Democrats have simply straddled the question, and they have found in the Wolcott commission the excuse for doing so. What a useful thing a roving bimetallic commission is. Its advantages are not confined to any political party.

On the day that President McKinley promulgated his order regulating removals from the service, Judge Jackson of the United States Circuit Court, sitting in Parkersburg, W. Va., granted an injunction restraining a newly appointed (Republican) marshal from removing (Democratic) deputies without assigning reasons, and presumptively on political grounds. The Judge referred to the fact that such places had in the past been regarded as party spoils, but insisted that the civil-service act had changed all this, and maintained that the act of itself prevents partisan removals, saying on this point:

"If there is anything in the civil-service act, the office is one fully protected by it, and the occupant is withdrawn from the spoils of party. In my judgment the civil-service act is a law founded in wisdom, and if it is executed in the same wisdom in which it was conceived and enacted, it will not only prove to be one of the wisest statutes that have been enacted in the latter part of this century, but one of the safeguards of our republican institutions. The incumbent is protected in the enjoyment of his position by the civil-service act."

This is the most advanced ground ever taken by the courts in the matter. If it shall be sustained in the event of an appeal, it will show that the President's recent order forbidding removals, except for just cause duly ascertained, was really not needed, because the law itself prohibited such removals. Yet many thousands of clerks in Washington have been trembling ever since last November for fear that the bread might presently be taken out of their mouths. It is something fine to have materially added to the happiness of so many human beings by an order which at the same time improves the conduct of the public business.

In one day's telegraphic despatches last week there casually appeared three items that ought to furnish protectionists food for serious reflection. The new underground railway in London is to be equipped with electrical locomotives, carriages, machinery, etc., made by an American concern, the General Electric Company. Protesting English concerns are informed that the American electrical appliances are the best and cheapest that can be procured. In the House of Commons the Secretary of State for India explained that the East Indian Railway, which is owned by the Government, had bought 7,708 tons of rails from the Maryland Steel Company, because that company offered them for £8,675 less than was demanded by the lowest British bidder. And from Wilmington, Del., the announcement comes that the Jackson & Sharp Company of that city has entered into a contract to build a number of cars for the Southeastern Railway of England. What view shall be taken of such extensions of American enterprise as these? It seems reasonable to regard them with satisfaction and to frame our fiscal laws in such a way as not to discourage them. But our new tariff is calculated to discourage them. It is intended to give our manufacturers the home market, and it will end by giving them no other.

The protest against President Andrews's forced resignation, which a majority of the Brown faculty signed and published on Tuesday, puts the case for freedom of teaching in a way to win the sympathy of every lover of academic liberty and progress. We certainly do not want to see the *Lehrfreiheit* in this country descend to the level it touched in Prussia under Frederick William III.; that amiable monarch proclaiming that the university professors were free to teach whatever they pleased, though, of course, they must not advance any views of which he disapproved. The Brown professors also, it seems to us, make a pretty effective retort to the trustees on the basis of the merely pecuniary interests of their institution. The trustees rested their case on the pecuniary losses sustained by reason of President Andrews's vagaries. If they cannot sustain this position their case is weaker than we supposed. Irrespective of the past and of endowments that might have been received, it is at any rate evident now, after the fact, that the action of the trustees is likely, for some time to come at least, to injure the material interests of the university. If they had based their action on the ground that a college president should devote less of his time to outside enterprises, and avoid giving alumni and intending patrons the impression of a flighty and erratic mind, not without a dash of love of notoriety thrown in, they would have had a surer footing. The affair has now taken a shape which all friends of Brown, and of academic peace and dignity, must deplore.

There are 25,000 Japanese in the Hawaiian Islands—probably ten for every American there. If we must annex for the sake of our one, Japan may at least show some concern over what will happen to her ten. Now the Japanese Minister points out that the extension of the naturalization, immigration, customs, and navigation laws of the United States to Hawaii—an extension which would *ipso facto* follow annexation—would injure these 25,000 Japanese in both person and property. They would at once lose their right to become citizens of Hawaii; no "Asiatic" can be naturalized under the laws of the United States. They would lose their valuable carrying trade. They would probably

lose their "full liberty to enter, travel, or reside in any part" of the country. That phrase is taken from the treaty between Japan and the United States, which is to go into effect in 1899; but the clause quoted is modified by another which says that the stipulations of the treaty "do not in any way affect the laws, ordinances, and regulations with regard to trade, the immigration of laborers, police, and public security which are in force or which may hereafter be enacted in either of the two countries." United States courts have held that the Chinese exclusion act applies also to Japanese. Mr. Sherman remarks that this decision has not been sustained by the Supreme Court; but what guarantee have the Japanese that it will not be? How can they be blamed for pointing out the danger that the elementary personal rights of 25,000 Japanese in Hawaii will be absolutely and remedilessly extinguished by annexation?

As Mr. Chamberlain sees that he is not likely to cover himself with glory by getting up an imperial customs union, he has fallen back on a minor measure of protection, the foreign prison-made-goods bill. It must be said that the English Parliament has seldom occupied so humiliating a position as in submitting to the "jamming through" of this measure for prohibiting imports. The Government scarcely attempted to defend it, and made a most pitiable showing in trying to evade the awkward questions that were raised in debate. One member stated that he imported wheat from Argentina in bags, and that in that country bags were made in the prisons, and desired to know if such wheat was to be excluded. He was told that the Government would not go to the length of prohibiting imports under such circumstances. Another member said he came from a part of Scotland where they imported from Sweden and Norway many boats caulked with prison-made oakum, and he wanted to know if the trade would be illegal. The Government in reply begged honorable members not to go on raising such trivial points. Members, however, continued, and showed that some of the finest Burmese carving was executed in the jail of Benares, some of the finest Indian carpets in that of Lahore, some of the finest furniture in that of Agra, and some of the best work in copper and brass in the jails of Rangoon and Mandelay. Every traveller in India now brought some of these articles back with him, but the bill would prohibit their introduction into England. The Government had nothing to say about this aspect of its measure, except that it was not meant to interfere with the private collector, and that words should be inserted to accomplish this result. Thereupon, another member pointed out that such words would render the bill utterly useless, for a dealer need only set up his shop on the other side of the Channel and sell his goods directly to purchasers in England. The Government replied to this that all it meant was that if a traveller wished to bring home a piece of old carpet he should not be prevented. This brought out the inquiry how old carpets could be produced in prisons today, to which no answer was vouchsafed.

The action of England in denouncing the old treaties with the German Zollverein and with Belgium is a necessary sequel to the reduction of duties on English products lately proposed by the Dominion of Canada. Under these treaties such a reduction of duties would apply to Belgian and German goods. The treaty with Belgium contains the following clause: "Articles the produce or manufacture of Belgium shall not be subject in the British colonies to other or higher duties than those which are or may be imposed upon similar articles of British origin." The German treaty contains a provision of similar effect. It might be naturally inferred from some of Sir Wilfred Laurier's remarks that the Canadian Government had not considered the nature of these treaties when it decided on its new policy towards English imports. The contrary is true, although the Premier spoke as if it were doubtful whether the treaties constituted an obstacle, whereas they are entirely free from ambiguity. No plainer language could be employed to express the intention that no higher duties should be imposed on Canadian imports from Belgium and Germany than on those from England. Had Belgium made her own treaty with Canada, then the "most-favored-nation" clause would have read that the products of Belgium should not be subject to any higher duties than the products of any other foreign country. The fact is that England undertook to answer for the tariff laws of her colonies, and that she has now decided that the colonies shall determine their own policy. The occasion of this decision is undeniably the proposal of Canada to grant England some special favors; but it is in harmony with free-trade principles to accept reductions of tariff obstacles whenever they are offered. The Cobden Club recommended the termination of these treaties.

A set debate on foreign affairs took place in the House of Commons on July 19, on occasion of passing the Foreign Office estimates. This gave Mr. Curzon an opportunity to review the course of events in Turkey for two years past, and a gloomy review it was. As to Armenia, all that Mr. Curzon could assert was that, while "no doubt great distress continues to prevail," there have been no organized massacres since March. "Isolated cases of murder" he admitted, but the great, the signal proof of the wisdom and beneficence of the Concert of Europe in dealing with the Armenian question was that for three months the Sultan had refrained from wholesale slaughter of his Armenian subjects. Touching those wonderful "reforms" which the Powers secured from the Porte two years ago, Mr. Curzon said that they had been put into operation "in parts of Asia Minor," but added regretfully that he did "not know that the result had been altogether satisfactory." It seems that in many cases the Armenians, who, according to the Sultan's agreement with the Powers, had been appointed to the police and the gendarmerie, had "subsequently resigned." One wonders if the "isolated murders" of Armenians had anything to do with these strange resignations. All told, the confession of impotency and frustration, as far as Armenia is concerned, could not well have been more humiliating.

After a severe struggle the charter of the Bank of France has been renewed by the Government, upon terms that are comparatively satisfactory. A very determined attempt was made to get the Government into the banking business, as we have done here, but a majority of the Deputies finally voted against the proposal. The arguments against banks with which we are familiar were all rehearsed; our demagogues have no monopoly of them. Even the sub-treasury scheme of our Farmers' Alliance was vigorously advocated, and the deplorable condition of the French peasant was depicted in the very language of our free-silver agitators. The Socialists were determined that the bank should establish a mortgage department, and issue money to the peasants on real-estate security, and some concessions had to be made to them on this point. The "Agrarian" party in Germany is apparently about to make similar proposals concerning the Reichsbank. This party has long complained that the bank did not consider the "landed interest"; this interest wants credit, and the bank has refused to give it. The demand now is that the bank shall "issue money directly to the people"—that is, shall increase its notes in order that they may be loaned to the proprietors of land. The Agrarian party is so strong that these demands cannot be ignored. They will not be defeated without a struggle, and the "currency problem" may therefore presently confront the German people. When we compare the smooth working of the English system with the difficulties and dangers that most other countries experience, it seems strange that any considerable number of people in this country should object to establishing our currency on a permanent basis.

THE REFORM VICTORY.

President McKinley deserves and will receive the heartiest praise of good citizens, without distinction of party, for the amendments to the civil-service rules which he made before starting on his vacation last week. It is not too much to say that, under all the circumstances, they constitute the greatest victory for the reform since the passage of the original law on the subject early in 1883. The spoilsmen themselves will be the first to see that this action by the President sounds the death-knell of the hopes which they have always cherished that the merit system might be overthrown.

There have been four changes of administration since the law of 1883 was enacted. Only a few thousand places had been brought within the classified service before the end of Mr. Arthur's term, and Mr. Cleveland was so thoroughly committed to the reform that even the spoilsmen of his party recognized the folly of trying to make him undo his predecessor's work. In point of fact, he extended the system by material additions to the classified service during his first term. Mr. Harrison was not in warm sympathy with the reform, as he showed by suspending Mr. Cleveland's too-long-delayed order regarding the railway mail service; but he had been elected by too narrow a margin to render it prudent for him to take the back track any further then, and before the end of his four years he had been so far converted to a belief in the new system as to make some extensions of it. When Mr. Cleveland was elected the second time, everybody knew that the only steps taken in this matter would be steps forward.

The crucial test came with the accession of Mr. McKinley. During the last year of his second term Mr. Cleveland had made wholesale additions to the classified service, until substantially all the places in the whole civil service, except the small post-offices at one end and the most important positions at the other, were removed from the reach of the spoilsmen. The professional politicians in the Republican party had never sympathized with the reform, nor intended to live up to platform pledges that it should be extended. They only awaited a favorable opportunity to attempt its betrayal. The overwhelming majority for the Presidential candidate of their party last fall, and the well-known disposition of that candidate to yield to importunity, seemed to bring the man and the hour together. So confident were Gen. Grosvenor and other notorious spoilsmen that they would have their way at the White House that they had the Ohio Republican State convention, a month ago, adopt a resolution that "we denounce the vitiation of the spirit of the civil-service act by President Cleveland in those orders which extended its operation beyond its purpose and intent, and demand such revocation of orders or modification of the law as will accomplish its manifest purpose."

The assurance of the spoilsmen that they would carry their point was confirmed three weeks ago by an extraordinary announcement in the chief Republican organ of the country. The Washington correspondent of the New York *Tribune*, explaining that he made his statements "on authority," declared that the President would, "on or about the 20th of the present month," make important modifications of the civil-service rules, in order to "correct the partisan work of the late Administration in reference to certain inclusions in the classified service." These corrections, according to this "most important authoritative statement," were to exempt from competition the thousands of employees in the Government Printing-Office; deputy collectors, and other minor employees of the internal revenue service; the sub-officials and employees of federal marshals and district attorneys; and probably also "the chiefs of divisions and chiefs of bureaus and so forth."

Mr. McKinley had made so many surrenders in other matters that the *Tribune's* proclamation of his intention to yield here did not seem incredible. The attitude of the Ohio Republican convention, presided over by Grosvenor, one of the President's intimates, and absolutely controlled by Hanna, his next friend, had already aroused serious apprehensions. But the friends of the merit system resolved to utilize the fortnight of grace which the ostensibly "inspired" despatch allowed, to enter the most earnest protests and arouse the public sentiment of the country.

Whether the President ever intended to do what his chief organ "authoritatively" declared was his purpose, will probably never be known. Nor is the question any longer of importance. The vital point is that Mr. McKinley has not only refused to make the wholesale exemptions from competition which were threatened, but has brought a large number of new places within the classified service; while as to the few dozen places withdrawn, properly enough, from that service, he has ordered that examinations shall still be required equal to those held by the Civil-Service Commission for places of like grade, and that these examinations shall be conducted by the Commission. Most important of all, he has amended the rules so as to provide that "no removal shall be made from any position subject to competitive examination except for just cause, and upon written charges filed with the head of the department or other appointing officer, and of which the accused shall have full notice and an opportunity to make defence."

The President, then, has not only successfully resisted tremendous "pressure" to take a long step backwards, but has advanced further than the most sanguine reformer dared to expect. The executive orders of July 28, 1897, assure the stability of the merit system beyond possibility of further dispute, and will reflect enduring credit upon the President who has thus rendered a public service of signal advantage to the nation.

FOSTERING THE BEET-SUGAR INDUSTRY.

The *Tribune*, by an editorial in a recent number of its weekly edition, gives this bit of encouragement to the farmers of the United States:

> "Two years of war have almost destroyed the cane-sugar industry of Cuba, and an Imperial Commission is holding what seems much like an ante-mortem inquest upon that in the British West Indies. At the same time the beet-sugar industry in the United States has been greatly developed, and, under the energetic encouragement of the present Administration, bids fair to continue its growth at an accelerated rate."

What is this "energetic encouragement" of the present Administration? Is it the President's message asking $50,000 for suffering Americans in Cuba, which gave such joy to the Jingoes who seek to annex that cane-sugar factory? Or is it the proposed annexation of Hawaii, which will be fearfully irrevocable? To invite or advise or encourage the American farmer to embark his hard-won earnings and savings in a beet-sugar venture, and then to overwhelm his little craft with cane-sugar made by millionaires, assisted by coolies and "Japs" and cheap Portuguese, and cheaper natives, is that fair or honest? What is it but to invite the farmer to his own insolvency?

For what is Hawaii? Hawaii, economically speaking, is sixty millionaires. They constitute the capital, the business, the brains, the state. Report says that forty-five of them are Europeans and only fifteen Americans; or it may be that forty-five are Americans and only fifteen Europeans. But the matter of nativity is immaterial. In the eye of the present Administration, "a millionaire's a millionaire for a' that." If forty-five, or fifteen, were not born in America, it is their misfortune and not their fault. Besides these sixty millionaires, there are a few other people. But it is easy to demonstrate by elimination that **they have no part in the love and esteem of the present Administration.** There are 25,000 Japanese. **The present Administration respects the Japanese in a way—that is to say, when they are safe and sound and at work in their** own country; but it is sternly opposed **to their coming into America or its dependencies, or to their doing anything if they should chance to be here or there. There are 22,000 Chinamen,** coolies at that. **What the present Ad-**

ministration thinks of Chinamen in general and coolies in particular is patent—everybody knows it, we need not dwell upon it. The worst enemy of the Administration will not say that it is trying to annex Hawaii for any love it bears towards these 47,000 "Japs" and coolies. There are 15,000 Portuguese. They are, figuratively speaking, white men; but they are cheap labor, and very low-down cheap labor—almost as cheap as the coolies. President McKinley surely cannot love them, much less can he desire to set them up in the business of making sugar, duty free, in competition with our own native beet-sugar industry. No, they must go out by elimination. There are 40,000 Hawaiians, full-bloods and half-breeds. The President, it is believed, once cherished a warm affection for these Hawaiians, but now they are known to have base monarchical proclivities with a hankering for a ruler of their own race, and a growing prejudice against sugar kings, English, German, and American. Moreover, it is suspected in Washington—it is, indeed, believed there—that their respect for Christian civilization has dwindled during the last dozen years. We must, therefore, cancel all of the red races! And there remains what? 8,400 white people of different nationalities and sixty millionaires!

But these Hawaiian millionaires, or sugar kings as they are sometimes called, are not absolutely unknown to the American Government. Some years ago they obtained from us a treaty whereby Hawaiian sugar—that is to say, their sugar—came into this country duty free, while the sugars of all other peoples paid duties. These duties, so remitted on Hawaiian sugar, amounted in round numbers to $60,000,000—a million per capita for each millionaire—when a Republican Congress put sugar upon the free list, and, in lieu of protection, substituted direct bounties to be given to American sugar-growers. It was then speedily discovered in Hawaii that annexation was the direct route to the American sugar-bounty system. That system has now gone by the board, and the financial necessities of the time have compelled us to restore the duties on sugar; and all students of finance, such as Mr. David A. Wells, regard sugar as one of the articles of importation best able to bear an import tax—as one which cannot be smuggled in, as one which cannot evade the revenue, as one which enters into general consumption, etc., etc. So it is not unlikely that a tariff on sugar will continue for many years to come.

The Hawaiian millionaires, however, have not been caught napping. Before the sugar duties were definitively established by Congress, the treaty of annexation was negotiated and signed and sent to the Senate for ratification. Under the new tariff, it is computed that the duties on Hawaiian sugar, if it should be made to pay duties, would amount to from $8,000,000 to $12,000,000 a year. In other words, the present Administration, with its eyes open or shut—probably with them shut—is binding the Government to pay bounties, amounting to at least $8,000,000 a year, upon Hawaiian sugar, to these sixty Hawaiian millionaires. Can the American sugar industry stand up against such favoritism as that? Can the Secretary of Agriculture fight successfully for home-grown sugar against such odds as these?

We observe that Count Okuma, the Japanese Minister of Foreign Affairs, who seems to know as much about Hawaii and American sugar culture as the present Administration, has just brought into view the unpleasant facts that of the 8,400 white people proper in Hawaii only 3,000 or thereabout—men, women, and children—are Americans, while the number of persons in America engaged in the culture of cane, beet, sorghum, and other sugar is 150,000. The Japanese statesman perceives clearly the effects of annexation; so clearly that he can ascribe but one motive to the present Administration. He says, in an explanatory way, that a duty on Hawaiian sugar will of course protect 150,000 American sugar-producers, but that it would be at the expense of the vast body of consumers in America; and therefore it is, he infers, that we are trying to avoid that "calamity by means of annexation." It takes one's breath away to hear protection to an infant industry spoken of as a "calamity," and to be told that the present Administration is trying to evade the "calamity" by throwing the loss upon 150,000 American sugar-producers. This supposition of bad faith we do not countenance. The trouble is that the millionaires know a great deal too much for the President. It really seems as if he cannot exchange the courtesies of the morning or the compliments of the season with a millionaire without the latter's immediately turning round and making money out of the civility. But the consequence of their sharpness and smartness and of the President's amiable credence is that we are now in this evil plight—that we are about to stab the beet-sugar industry under the fifth rib, and bring loss and disappointment and bitterness upon 150,000 American sugar-producers, and pay a bonus of $8,000,000 a year upon Hawaiian sugar to the end that the Government of the United States may acquire title to 25,000 Japanese, 22,000 Chinamen, 15,000 Portuguese, 40,000 native Hawaiians, and 8,400 white persons. That the United States will thereby become the owners of the sixty millionaires, we do not believe. On the contrary, it seems much more likely, as things are going, that the sixty millionaires in a reasonable time will become the owners of no inconsiderable part of the Government of the United States.

CANADIAN PROSPECTS.

To determine the policy of so remarkable a concatenation of petty states as makes up the Dominion of Canada has been no simple task. The territories occupied by these states are connected by nature with our own land, and it was by accident that this natural connection did not result in a community of government. So far as human happiness is concerned, the difference might not have been great had the policy of the United States been more liberal. For a number of years, under the reciprocity treaty, commerce between the two countries was not oppressively restricted, but since the repeal of that treaty our policy has been to discourage trade with Canada, and to create artificial barriers to intercourse where nature had removed them. The United States, therefore, forced the Canadian colonies to combine in self-defence, and in this way compelled them to undertake very comprehensive schemes for intercolonial communication. As the United States had built the Union and Central Pacific Railways in order to hold California in the Union, so the Dominion of Canada was obliged to construct a railroad to British Columbia, and another to Nova Scotia, for the sake of consolidating its diverse elements. Immense sums have been spent on these enterprises, in the construction of canals, and in subsidizing lines of steamships. Very heavy burdens have in this way been imposed on the people, and the debt increases year by year. It is now more than $250,000,000, and the annual expenditure is probably about $32,000,000. The Intercolonial Railway is said to have cost more than $55,000,000, and the accumulated deficits from its operation exceed $6,000,000. Nevertheless, it must be said that the credit of the Dominion is extremely high, so that its interest charges are moderate, and that its public works are not altogether unproductive of revenue.

Thus, by force of circumstances and by deliberate choice, the trade of Canada was determined to be a foreign trade. The United States raised barriers against the natural course of trade, and the Canadians removed the barriers to the foreign commerce which was all that was left free to them. But, with a most perverse folly, they proceeded to build other barriers in their places. They dug canals and built railways and subsidized steamships in order to increase their foreign commerce, and then they clapped on protective taxes in order to diminish it. The consequences were what might have been expected. Foreign commerce increased very little, while the protected manufacturers made but a sickly growth. The vast system

of transportation seemed to have been created after all principally to enrich a few unscrupulous speculators and politicians, and to be more of an incubus than a benefit to the country.

The recent success of the Liberal party has greatly changed the situation. It is, under Sir Wilfred Laurier's leadership, a free-trade party, and this at once makes it possible for the Dominion to adopt and pursue a rational and consistent policy. Whether state aid to railroads and steamship lines is wise or not, it is unquestionably the part of wisdom to lay no obstacles in the way of the traffic to facilitate which so much money has been spent. Very properly the Canadian Government has endeavored to reach some understanding with that of the United States whereby the natural avenues of commerce might be thrown open. Had this result been accomplished, the great Canadian transportation lines would have been deprived of much of their importance, but the gains would have far outweighed the losses. The United States, however, persisted in its hostility, and the Canadian Government at last took the decisive step of reducing the tariff on importations from England. It was not a long step—only a reduction of 12½ per cent. this year and as much more the year following. Yet it may have momentous consequences.

In the first place, it puts an end to the hopes of the protectionists, both in England and the colonies, that an imperial customs union might be formed on protective principles. Mr. Chamberlain silently gives up these hopes; Sir Charles Tupper cannot refrain from wailing an imprecation as he sees them dashed. The *post hoc, ergo propter hoc* argument, which is enough for most people, happens at this juncture in the United States to count in favor of protection. In Canada, happily, it will count the other way, and, with so much prosperity as now seems reasonably assured, the new tariff is likely to remain in force until the results become understood and appreciated. Trade with the United States will suffer, but trade with England will improve, and the history of that Power shows that freedom from legislative meddling may be a greater stimulus to trade than natural advantages. Mr. Goldwin Smith points to the map, and conclusively demonstrates the folly of separating Canada from the United States. Separation, however, has become our settled policy, and the commercial union with England which we have forced on Canada will grow closer and stronger as years go on.

What is of greater consequence, the action of the Canadian Government will tend to revive the cause of free trade. Its immediate effect has been somewhat paradoxical, England having been obliged to notify Germany and Belgium that her treaties with them would be terminated. The Canadian Government does not see how revenue is to be insured if it reduces duties generally, and it proposes, for the present at least, to limit the reduction to countries admitting Canadian products free, which, under the present treaties, would involve a reduction on German and Belgian products. These treaties, however, have nothing to do with the theory of free trade. That theory contemplates the abolition of protective duties, and, as a matter of fact, Canada has partly abolished them. She has not carried the theory out, but she has made a beginning. There is ground for hope that, when the example of her colonies has been added to that of England, the other nations of the earth may at last be convinced that their policy of reciprocal injury is a survival of barbarism.

THE NEW SAYINGS OF JESUS.

Great interest was aroused among Biblical critics when, some months ago, a telegram was sent to the British Museum from Egypt that a papyrus fragment had been found containing hitherto unknown sayings of Jesus. These have now been published in facsimile, and are seen to consist of eight different *logia*, or sayings, some of them overlapping words attributed to Jesus in the canonical Gospels, and others entirely new. It is too soon to say whether critical opinion will decide the fragments to be authentic. There is no higher authority in such matters than Prof. Rendel Harris, and he accepts the authenticity as almost unquestionable; so does Prof. B. W. Bacon of Yale. But, quite apart from these nicer questions of technical scholarship, there is much in the discovery, and in its reception by the Christian world, to excite remark.

For one thing, it is an extraordinary vindication of the much-reviled higher criticism of the New Testament. One of the conclusions of that criticism has long been that the synoptic Gospels derive from a common original source now lost. A clear and convincing exposition of the grounds for that belief may be seen by going no further than the article "Gospels" in the 'Britannica,' by Dr. E. A. Abbott. In fact, critics had come to speak familiarly, using a phrase of Papias's, of *logia* of Jesus—collections of short, pithy savings—as having been indubitably in existence and made use of by the writers of our Gospels. They based this on internal evidence. No such collection, or even a fragment of such a collection, had ever been found, and conservative theologians had scouted the whole theory and predicted that nothing of the kind ever would be discovered. Well, here is the Egyptian papyrus to justify the critics. Even if it be decided not to be authentic, it points necessarily to the actual existence of *logia* which were authentic. No forged or heretical collection could have been set circulating unless there were genuine ones with which it might hope to be confused. The discovery, therefore, establishes the scientific validity of the New Testament higher criticism beyond cavil. It is only a valid science that can predict the unknown; and this Egyptian find of Messrs. Grenfell and Hunt does for the methods of the New Testament critics what the discovery of Neptune did for Leverrier's mathematics—establishes them as incontrovertible.

The calm, not to say indifferent, reception of the discovery by the theological world, by the organs of religious opinion in general, is a thing to make people with memories rub their eyes. It would not have been possible fifty, or even twenty-five, years ago. We should have had hasty champions rushing forward to declare the whole affair incredible, an invention of the Evil One to try the faith of the elect. The solemn threat of the Scriptures against any man who should "add unto the words of the prophecy of this book" would have been levelled at the audacious discoverers and publishers of the *logia*. But things have changed, even with those who vow that they have not changed. It is not simply the growth of tolerance that makes the difference; it is the growth of knowledge. Many things have combined within the past twenty years to popularize information about the real nature of the Bible. There was the Revised Version, which led many Christian people to hear for the first time of manuscripts and texts and versions and variants and interpolations. The result could not have been other than a serious shock—all the more serious because silent and unperceived—to the old idea of the sacrosanct character of every word and letter in our English Bible. Then there was the remarkable recovery, a few years ago, of the "Teaching of the Twelve Apostles"—a discovery illustrating the lost riches of the early Christian era, and naturally arousing hopes of unearthing more such treasures. Thus the finding of the *logia* has come to a Christendom prepared for them, as it were. Instead of surprise or alarm, the uppermost feeling of the Christian world seems to be an ardent hope that investigation may be pushed, and others of the lost *logia* brought to light. This result is gratifying in every way.

Let no one suppose, however, that the discovery is going to make any immediate change in the current Christian theory of the Bible. Not even the defenders of a slavish verbal inspiration will abate one jot of their claims; they will rather find new support for their doctrines in the discovery, just as they have in every other argument or fact that seemed to make dead against them. Theological theories and ecclesiastical prejudices have an astonishing power of bolting inconvenient facts whole, and it

will not fail to be applied to the new-found "sayings." Catholic and Protestant, High and Low Church, Reformed Episcopalian, Pre-Millenarian and Antipedobaptist will each find in the new evidence the one thing that was lacking—if anything at all could be conceived lacking—to make his view irrefragable. We shall see plenty of this instinctive theorizing, whence the fact looks to the eye as the eye likes the look.

But no one, we think, can consider the discovery of the "sayings" in a large and dispassionate way without seeing that it really makes for the confirmation of the Gospels. In the case of any other narrative, the coming to light of the material upon which it was based would be hailed as a ground for renewed confidence in it, and so it will doubtless be, broadly speaking, with the Gospel narrative and its sources. Nor can it be thought any derogation from the Founder of Christianity that he made "current coin," to use Tennyson's phrase, of many more "truths of manhood" than find record in the canonical Gospels; indeed, to suppose that he did not would be to deny what one Gospel expressly asserts. The fact is that the essentials of Christianity are now beyond being moved from the rock on which they are built by any antiquarian discovery that can be imagined. This is not meant in any mystical or Hegelian sense, but is only to say that the truth and beauty of the life and teachings of Christ have so commended themselves to the minds and consciences of men, have become so inwrought with the whole complex of modern civilization, that they are practically independent of external evidence. In this sense Browning's prophecy, in "A Death in the Desert," is already fulfilled, that

"He will grow incorporate with all."

THE YUKON GOLD FIELDS.

OBERLIN, July 29, 1897.

For a long time it has been known that the general geological features connected with the production of gold in the western portion of the United States extended through the western part of British America to the upper Yukon district on the eastern border of Alaska. For more than forty years a continual stream of gold has been coming out of the region drained by the upper portion of Fraser River; while early in the seventies it was discovered in large quantities about the headwaters of the Stikeen River, which enters the Pacific about latitude 57, and of Dease River, which, rising west of the Rocky Mountain chain, flows eastward from near the same latitude to Mackenzie's River. The headwaters of these two streams are in the same broad valley which, north as well as south, separates the Rocky Mountain from the Cordilleran chain that here forms the continental border of British Columbia. From the Cassiar mines at the head of Dease River $1,000,000 of gold was taken out in 1874, the second year after their discovery. The next year the product was nearly as much; but from that time it has gradually decreased, until now the mines are nearly abandoned. Upwards of $5,000,000 worth of gold has, however, been added to the world's stock of gold from that region.

Northward, this broad valley includes the headwaters of the Taku River (which reaches tide near Juneau), and extends without interruption to the headwaters of the principal tributary of Lewis River, which is the real continuation of the Yukon. This elevated valley is the one partially surveyed forty years ago for the trans-Siberian telegraph route, and more lately for a railroad through British territory to the Yukon district. The railroad company recently organized in Delaware to reach the new Eldorado proposes to utilize this plateau through the Taku River. From the reconnaissance of the region made in 1891 by Lieut. Schwatka and Dr. Willard Hayes of the United States Geological Survey, it would seem that this route would be entirely practicable, for summer use at least.

As early as 1887 the explorations of Dr. George M. Dawson and Messrs. R. G. McConnell and W. Ogilvie of the Canadian Geological Survey demonstrated the continuation of the geologic conditions favorable to the production of gold through the Yukon district as far as the sixty-sixth parallel. Commenting upon the formations near the mouth of the "Tatondac" (the old name for Klondike), Mr. McConnell said at that time:

"The schistose beds alternate occasionally with limestone bands, altered in places into marble, and are traversed in all directions by quartz veins. They are exposed all the way to Forty Mile Creek and beyond. They are of the greatest economic importance, as they constitute the gold-bearing rocks of the district, and are on the strike of the same metalliferous zone on which Cassiar and other principal mining camps to the south are situated, and which has now been traced northward across Canadian territory from the forty-ninth parallel to the eastern boundary of Alaska, a distance of fully twelve hundred miles."

But the prospectors had been in this region before the geologists, and 200 miners were already at work there in 1887, and had sent out more than $100,000 worth of gold in a single year from Forty Mile Creek; while the previous year the Stewart River region, a little farther up in the Yukon valley, had produced $100,000. Indeed, according to Dr. Dawson's report, gold was to be found along almost any of the eastern tributaries of the Yukon from the international boundary to its source. But the expense of working the "bars" was such that unless one could get more than ten dollars a day it was not worth while to bother with them. The Governor of Alaska reported 1,000 miners in the Yukon district in 1893 and 1894.

In estimating the significance of the fabulous success which has attended the miners in that region the past year, it is important to consider some of the drawbacks and hazards of the situation. Placer mines owe their richness to the accumulation of ages. The mills of the gods, though grinding very slowly, have been at work for incredibly long periods of time. On an average, subaerial agencies are wearing down the surfaces of the continents at a rate of a foot in about 3,000 years, while the mountains and the river valleys are wearing away much faster. It is not too much to believe, therefore, that thousands of feet of rocks in the upper Yukon basin have been dissolved by subaerial agencies, and their soluble and lighter portions carried away to the depths of the sea by the mighty current of the river. Even the quartz is ground to powder and borne away by the ever-recurring floods in the innumerable streams. Gold is seven times heavier than gravel, and, therefore, settles to the bottom of the gravel beds into which it is washed.

From this it can readily be seen how deceptive a rich placer mine may be as to the richness of the quartz vein from which it is derived. A small yield to the ton amounts to a great deal if a large amount is crushed and separated. For example, the Treadwell mine, near Juneau, yields but three or four dollars of gold to the ton, but the vein is very wide and rises directly from tide-water at the base of the mountain, which furnishes water-power in abundance. Everything, therefore, is present to insure the greatest economy in working. The quartz ore is stripped off from the surface of the mountain at a moderate elevation, from which gravity carries the cars to the top of the mill, where water-power from the same mountain drives the stamping machinery, allowing the product to descend of its own weight to the basement, where the waste is dumped into the sea. With such economy in working the mill, a very low-grade ore can be made profitable. The million dollars a year turned out from the Treadwell mine is largely profit. But were this vein transferred inland for a few miles, especially in that rugged region, the cost would easily more than equal the returns. As there is every evidence that enormous glaciers have ploughed their way through the channel which passes Juneau, it is evident that nature has crushed and "milled" more of this quartz vein than man will be able to do in centuries, with all his labor-saving appliances. If, therefore, we could explore and utilize the depths of the Alexander Archipelago and bring up its buried treasures, there is no telling what riches we should find.

While the accumulated gravels spread out on the flanks of the mountains of California and of the Yukon region afford man an opportunity of penetrating some of the great storehouses of nature's workshop, the above illustration shows how futile may be the effort to find the "mother lode" from which the accumulations have come. For, even if found, it may be of such low-grade ore that it would be unprofitable to work it under favorable conditions, to say nothing of the futility of working it where the miners think a placer which does not "pan out" more than ten dollars a day is too poor to look at.

The inaccessibility of the Klondike region must long preclude it from yielding its full resources. Entrance by way of the Yukon River involves a hazardous journey on that stream of nearly 2,000 miles from its mouth, which can be made only from June to September. To attempt this voyage a week too late in the fall means certain destruction. All the means of subsistence must be carried into the country, for its natural resources of food are exhausted by the few hundred natives that have heretofore occupied it. Moreover, the placer mines are not directly on the Yukon, but many miles back from it on the tributaries. So difficult is this part of the transportation that dogs of burden bring a price of from $100 to $200 apiece. One of the articles of greatest pro-

fit for the hardware merchants of Seattle in fitting out the Alaskan miners for the last three or four years has been these Eskimo dogs, of which each man needs two or three.

The nearer way by the Chilcoot Pass is at present no less formidable. Here, after wending one's way up the precipitous trail on the south side, rising four or five thousand feet in a few miles, the path leading over enormous piles of débris and across numerous glacial streams, the pilgrim finds himself, when at the top, five hundred miles from the mines with a tempestuous mountain torrent to navigate in its downward course to the far distant sea. It is no wonder that wages are cheap in the Klondike region at fifteen dollars a day. The bare means of subsistence will cost nearly that. But woe to the inconsiderate multitudes that get into the trap this fall without a sufficient supply of food and clothing, for during the winter they are beyond reach by any means at the present command of the civilized world. After a year or two, however, many of these difficulties can be removed and many of the contingencies provided against. A sufficient force of boats may be put on the Yukon to transport all that is needed during the short period of navigation. The Chilcat Pass and the White Pass, which are nearly parallel with the Chilcoot Pass, while a little longer, are more favorable to the construction of a trail for pack-animals to the navigable portion of the Yukon, or the Lewis, as it is there called. If the present productiveness of the mines continues, even the railroad by way of Taku Inlet may be built, and operated a portion of each year. But, in any event, the cost of overcoming the difficulties of transportation of large supplies to the region must be enormous.

The most hopeful outlook is in the introduction of reindeer, a beginning of which has already been accomplished. Through the energy of Mr. Sheldon Jackson, 500 reindeer have been imported by the Government from Siberia into the lower Yukon region, and with them several Lapland families to care for them. The flocks have already increased in the natural manner to more than 1,000, and the natives are learning to care for and manage them. An experiment is being made of using them for transportation in the mining country. Indeed, the introduction of reindeer into Alaska is one of the most philanthropic and hopeful enterprises of the century. The Government has moved none too soon in the matter, and should greatly increase its efforts in that direction. Unlike the dog, the reindeer needs to have no food transported for him. After an eighty-mile drive he can be turned loose to forage for himself upon the abundant reindeer moss which covers all the Alaskan fields. When it is necessary to kill him, he furnishes better meat than the dog and more of it, while his skin, and, indeed, every portion of his body, is of superior value. Commissioner Harris estimates that Alaska is capable of supporting many millions of reindeer, and with them a proportionate number of keepers with their families. The civilization of Lapland is therefore in a fair way to be transplanted to our northwestern province, and may serve as a most important connecting link with the great mining interests of the upper Yukon valley. The reindeer express up the Yukon will be almost as fleet as, and far more sure than, the steam-cars could be during the inclemency of an Alaskan winter.

In addition to the inaccessibility of the Klondike region, the temperature is extreme both in summer and in winter. A year ago the reported variation of the thermometer was from 60 below to 103 above zero. The mosquitoes of the country are also more formidable than those of any other region of the world from which reports have come. Schwatka affirms that even the grizzly bear succumbs to the vicious attacks of the Alaskan mosquito. And it can easily be believed, for when Bruin comes out of his lair to feed upon the succulent food of the valleys in summer, these pests swarm around him and feast upon the blood of his eyelids until, in his desperation, he claws his own eyes out in vain endeavor to rid himself of them; thus, like blind Samson, compassing his own destruction in securing that of his enemies.

In forecasting the future of the gold product from this region it should not be forgotten that the returns have been far slower in coming in than they were from California. The California discoveries were made in 1848. Within two years from that time more than twenty millions had been secured. There has been no such rapid work in the Yukon district. Probably it is because there is no such general distribution of rich placers. Nor should we be too enthusiastic over the occurrence of occasional large nuggets of gold. Many years ago a nugget of gold weighing twenty-eight pounds avoirdupois was found in North Carolina, and others of equal weight have been found in regions which have not been specially productive. The goose that lays such golden eggs, though a rare bird, has wandered widely over the world.

A word should be added about the new names appearing in the abundant literature that is springing up. "Klondyke," as already remarked, is the new way of pronouncing "Thronduic," or "Tondak," which means plenty of fish. It is marked Tondak, or Tatondac, on the maps. The word Deï-a is the same as was formerly spelled "Tayay" or "Dayay," the name of the inlet above Chilcoot which has led to the favorite pass into the headwaters of the upper Yukon. The Chilcat Pass branches off to the west from this, and the White Pass to the east; but all three meet about 100 miles beyond. Schwatka's report still gives the most minute information concerning this route.

G. Frederick Wright.

ELECTRICITY FROM DUST DESTRUCTION.

London, July 27, 1897.

The horn of Shoreditch is exalted. To use what passes for an Americanism on this side, she has licked creation. And this is how she has achieved that proud eminence.

Shoreditch forms a London parliamentary borough on the north side of the Thames and in the East Central District. It has an area of one square mile and a population of 124,009, with the largest proportion of artisans of any London borough, viz., 35 per cent. Shoreditch is therefore poor. To the impartial eye it has rather a grubby and frowsy appearance, as of one not addicted to the use of the bath, and indifferent to the high sense of morality conferred by clean linen and hygienic surroundings. But, on the other hand, Shoreditch has proved herself not only up to date, but capable of setting the pace municipal.

On one of the last days of June, Lord Kelvin, our greatest living scientist, travelled to Shoreditch, spoke all these and many other handsome things of the borough, and formally declared open the Combined Electricity and Dust Destruction Undertaking, the object of his visit to the wise East. In consequence of Jubilation and the resulting dislocation of business, it was exactly three weeks before I could follow Lord Kelvin's example and inspect the C. E. and D. D. U. What I saw is well worth a brief description. The first claim of Shoreditch to universal admiration is that she had the sense to elect wise stewards of that which is committed to their care, and that the vestrymen chose a capable clerk, Dr. H. Mansfield Robinson, to conduct their affairs. Many an electric-lighting company had wished to light up Shoreditch, for, as already said, its area is but one square mile, its population is dense, many of the people requiring a light motor for the staple industry of the borough, furniture and cabinet-making; besides, public-houses abound, to the number of 300, and they are the great consumers of electricity until a very late hour (12:30 P. M.), although many other small shops successfully rival their bad example.

But Shoreditch resisted the wiles of electric-lighting companies, and in 1892 obtained the consent of the Board of Trade to furnish its own electricity for public and private purposes. Other English corporations—to wit, Bradford, Brighton, St. Pancras—have produced their own electricity, and have calmly put the profits of monopoly into the municipal pocket. But it was reserved for Shoreditch to produce electricity from dust—"E pulvere lux et vis," as the corporation now proudly boasts. Shoreditch produces daily between fifty and sixty tons of dust and house refuse, and for the removal of this to the sea by barging it used to pay 3s. 2d. per ton. The problem for the municipality was to burn the dust to make electric light, and, incredible as it may seem, this is what is being done to-day. The whole municipal world is agape with admiration. Every day visitors come from the most remote local bodies, and depart determined to do likewise. Out of that dust, the destructor produces steam, and the steam is used to drive a great high-tension engine producing 1,100 volts of electricity from each of three generators; there are, besides, three low-tension dynamos, each producing 165 volts. One would like to say that the electric-lighting station is handsome, but truth compels the admission that it is more utilitarian than elegant. However, it is respectable, and it ought to be chronicled that the site, which also serves for baths, wash-houses, Central Library, Museum, and is very close to the municipal technical school, cost £33,500. The total cost of these different schemes is very nearly £200,000.

Naturally the complete scientific description of this undertaking belongs to an engineering paper. But the main outlines of the scheme are well within the grasp of the unscientific mind. Between fifty and sixty tons of refuse are brought to the Dust Destructor daily, and tipped from the carts into lifts. These are moved by electricity up to the tipping platform, run on rails and emptied into bins from which the furnaces are fed. There are twelve destructor cells, or furnaces, with the large heating

area of twenty-five square feet each, and also six water-tube boilers at the side, each with 1,300 square feet of heating surface. Now it is evident that dust and refuse will not burn as coal burns. To coax it to burn, there are motor-driven fans which cause a strong current of air to circulate. Each fan makes from 500 to 700 revolutions per minute. The hot air is drawn by suction from the top of the engine-house, forced into an air-duct by the fans, and goes underneath the cells and boilers to compel the refuse to burn. The air-supply is carefully regulated by valves, so that in case of coal or other easily burning fuel being used, it can be cut off. It was evident that dust is collected and preferably burned in the daytime; whereas night is the great time for using electricity. Dust destruction continues day and night at Shoreditch, twelve men stoking in three shifts of eight hours each, four to a shift. The question was, how to save up the steam generated in the daytime for use at night. This has been achieved by the Druitt Halpin thermal storage system, by which steam passes into a cylinder and is mixed with a small quantity of cold water from the feed-pumps. This steam is supplied to boilers in connection with the dynamos, and by this arrangement the boilers evaporate one-third more steam than would be the case if they were connected with the water-mains.

There remains to consider the waste product of the refuse, which is reduced to about 30 per cent. of its original bulk. At present it is given away; but there is little doubt that a market will arise for it. It can be ground down to make good sand for mortar of excellent quality for bricks, for artificial paving-stone, concrete, and also for drainage and road-making before macadam is laid down. The Shoreditch vestry are at present considering the advisability of grinding the ash and using or selling it themselves as a subsidiary industry. There is absolutely no coal used in the destructor cells, nothing but refuse. Lord Kelvin, for my benefit, calculated that from five to ten tons of dust is equal to one ton of good steam coal; some dust is full of cinders, especially in winter, and is better for cremation purposes than summer dust. The vestry clerk calculates that, in view of the large sum formerly paid for the barging of the dust, the saving of fuel for the baths and washhouses, and the receipts by the sale of electricity, there will be an annual economy of £1,500. This is probably much below the mark. For the purposes of your journal, the vestry clerk communicates the fact that all the electricity the machinery can now yield is taken up, and no fresh customers can be supplied until more machinery is added. Additional engines and gear are now being built.

The electric-lighting station supplies the arc lamps with which Shoreditch streets are now lighted. At midnight these are switched off, and by automatic action incandescent lamps of less power are lighted until dawn. In case of accidental extinction of one set of lamps, the other set will light automatically. The station also lights the town-hall, lights and heats the baths and technical school, ventilates the sewers, supplies electric motor-power to cabinet-makers at specially low rates during the day-time, has entered into a contract with the Electric Cab Company, and supplies every private consumer, dealing tenderly with him in the matter of fittings. It is good to know that workmen's dwellings are being fitted with the Bastian penny-in-the-slot meter; for a penny the poorest home can have an eight-candle-power light for six hours. And, delightful thought, all this light is churned out of dirt!

It is, perhaps, fair to state that at Southampton there is a small thirty-horse-power engine worked by steam generated from the burning of refuse; but, naturally, this is on an insignificant scale. Shoreditch can undoubtedly claim the honor of being the pioneer municipality in combined electricity and dust destruction. C. S. BREMNER.

Notes.

Dr. Alexander Brown, author of the important work on the planting of North America by Englishmen (1605-1616) entitled 'The Genesis of the United States,' and published in 1891, invites subscriptions to a companion work, 'The First Republic in America' (1605-1627). This relates to the colonizing movement in the period last named, and about a third of its contents is largely a digest of the earlier narrative, yet embraces a good many contemporary documents discovered in the meantime; for again Dr. Brown has resorted to original sources, and writes not at second hand. 'The First Republic' will make an octavo volume of 550 pages, and will be elegantly manufactured by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. as soon as 350 subscribers (at six dollars) are obtained. Subscriptions may be addressed to the author at Norwood P. O., Nelson County, Virginia.

'The Old Santa Fé Trail,' by Col. Henry Inman, late of the United States Army, and 'Singing Verses for Children,' by Lydia Avery Coonley, with music and illustrations, are in the press of Macmillan Co.

Thomas Whittaker will issue next month a one-volume edition of Boswell's Life of Johnson, supervised by Percy Fitzgerald, and accompanied by a biographical dictionary of every person mentioned in the book.

Mr. Henry Farrar's 'Index to Marriages in the *Gentleman's Magazine*,' of which the first portion extended from 1731 to 1780, inclusive, is about to be finished to 1868. The edition is limited to 250 copies, and subscriptions at a guinea a volume for four volumes should be addressed to Swan Sonnenschein & Co., Paternoster Square, London. Only seventy-five copies will be printed of the same diligent compiler's 'Index to Marriages in Walker's *Hibernian Magazine* 1771-1813,' with a supplementary index to births, marriages, and deaths in the *Anthologia Hibernica* 1793-1794. This will make two volumes at two guineas, and is promised for October. Subscriptions may be made as above.

Mr. Quaritch will publish, in a folio edition of 300 copies, facsimiles of a series of ninety-nine early Italian drawings representing scenes and personages of sacred and profane history, formerly in the possession of Mr. Ruskin and by him given to the British Museum. It will be called 'A Florentine Picture Chronicle,' and in the accompanying letterpress the designer will be identified by Mr. Sidney Colvin with Maso Finiguerra. The text will be itself embellished with well-chosen contemporary designs from various sources.

A popular Life of the great Elizabethan statesman, William Cecil, Lord Burleigh, is being written by Major Martin Hume for Nisbet & Co., the London publishers. Lord Burleigh's descendants, the Marquesses of Exeter and Salisbury, have promised Major Hume access to the archives preserved at Burleigh and Hatfield respectively. Major Hume is especially qualified for the work he has undertaken from his close acquaintance with Burleigh's era. His 'Courtships of Queen Elizabeth' has run into a fifth edition. He made a decided hit with his book upon the Armada, and his forthcoming volume upon Sir Walter Raleigh, for the "Builders of the Empire" series already in the publishers' hands, but "delayed by the Jubilee," will maintain his reputation as an entertaining and accurate historical writer. His ever-busy pen is now engaged, among other things, upon a 'History of Modern Spain' for the Cambridge University Press.

Mr. George R. Parkin, principal of Canada College, Toronto, is now in London seeing through the press a Life of Dr. Thring, the famous headmaster of Uppingham School, a kind of latter-day Arnold of Rugby. The family of Dr. Thring intrusted the work to Mr. Parkin, who, however, is best known as an ardent advocate of imperial federation. At one of the public dinners given to Sir Albert Milne before his departure for South Africa, the present Governor of the Cape stated that he had been much influenced, when a young man at Oxford, by the eloquent exposition of imperial federation made by "a young Canadian" to the University, meaning Mr. Parkin.

It is understood that little progress has been made by Mr. Frederic Harrison with his Life of William the Silent.

The Life of Tasman, the navigator, upon which Mr. Coote of the British Museum and Mynheer Heeres of The Hague have long been engaged, will not appear for some time, owing to Mr. Coote's engagements with other business. The Log of Tasman, which was discovered at The Hague, will form a prominent feature in the work of the two able authors.

Prof. Adolph Ernst, the Curator of the National Museum at Caracas, has recently been examining the records of British Guiana and of Dutch Guiana (Surinam), at the instance of the Government of Venezuela. Dr. Ernst is a German by nationality, but has been settled in Venezuela for thirty-six years. He is familiar with the Spanish, Dutch, and English languages.

The Year-book of the Massachusetts Society of Colonial Wars, in addition to lists of the members and their ancestry, contains Mr. A. C. Goodell's address at the celebration of the six-hundredth anniversary of the first representative English Parliament, and some interesting historical materials. These are the muster-rolls, etc., of the successful expedition against Port Royal, Nova Scotia, in 1710, as well as a journal of the expedition preserved in the Public Record Office, London, and now printed for the first time. This is followed by a curious list of "the names of the men belonging to the north regiment in Essex opoint[d] to keep snowshoes and mogginsons," and also a list of English prisoners in Canada in 1710, the larger part being from the towns of York, Wells, Exeter, and Oyster River. There is also a brief account of the unfortunate expedition of Admiral Sir Hovenden Walker against Quebec in 1711. The volume, which has several

illustrations and a portrait of the late Mr. H. O. Houghton, is unusually attractive in its typography and general appearance.

Mr. Hamlin Garland has earned the distinction of a uniform edition of his stories. A handsome set of four volumes, his 'Spoil of Office,' 'Wayside Courtships,' 'Jason Edwards,' and 'A Member of the Third House,' has just been issued by D. Appleton & Co.

A little volume, 'The Missions of California: Their Establishment, Progress, and Decay,' by Laura Bride Powers (San Francisco: William Doxey), will serve the cause the author has at heart, the preservation of the buildings of the missions. She writes agreeably and with ardor, and presents conveniently the leading facts about the several missions described and (for the most part) photographically shown. She does not always define the age of the present remains, or portray their condition, but says enough to excite a popular sentiment in favor of their preservation and restoration.

Mr. H. de B. Gibbins's 'Industry in England: Historical Outlines' (London: Methuen; New York: Scribners) will prove of great service to teachers of economic history and to students first attacking the subject. It is, indeed, so far as the greater part of its contents is concerned, hardly more than a compilation, chiefly from some eight or ten well-known writers; but, as a compilation, it is an excellent piece of work, methodical, thorough, and clearly written. In Mr. Gibbins the late Prof. Thorold Rogers has found almost his only quite respectful disciple; and though, with widening knowledge of his subject, Mr. Gibbins has lost much of the violence of expression and cocksureness of tone which he adopted from his master in his earlier writings, there is still a very visible bias to be allowed for. However, it is not difficult to make the allowance; and a little strong feeling certainly makes a book more interesting reading.

The Edinburgh professors of philosophy seem to be considerably exercised in their minds over the problem of teaching their fellow-men to know their place in nature, and otherwise. Such, at least, is the inference likely to be drawn from Prof. Andrew Seth's imitation of the title of Prof. Henry Calderwood's 'Man's Place in Nature.' 'Man's Place in the Cosmos' (Scribners) is certainly, as Prof. Seth acknowledges in the preface, a somewhat disproportionate, not to say turgid, title for a number of essays which discuss some of the chief literary events of the philosophic world during the last half-a-dozen years. In themselves Prof. Seth's criticisms are well enough; they are always unexceptionable in their tone and attitude, and sometimes even edifying, and the points made are sound in the main. But they are wholly critical, and make the reader feel more than ever that if Prof. Seth has anything original to say, he has yet to say it. Thus there may be two opinions on the question whether it was absolutely necessary that these papers should be gathered together and made into a book. For the rest, suffice it to say that the essay on Huxley's 'Evolution and Ethics' will be found the most interesting, and that on Mr. F. H. Bradley's jugglery in causing the "disappearance of reality" the most solid, while the quarter of the book devoted to a solemn defence of Mr. Arthur Balfour's brilliant *jeu d'esprit*, 'The Foundations of Belief,' constitutes an affecting tribute to gratitude and friendship.

Some articles by M. Pierre Leroy-Beaulieu descriptive of the English colonies in Australasia and South Africa have appeared within the last two years in the *Économiste Français* and the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, where they attracted attention, particularly because of the account they gave of the socialistic legislation of some of these communities. These articles have now been reprinted in book form under the title, 'Les Nouvelles Sociétés Anglo-Saxonnes' (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.). The book is to be recommended to those who desire to understand the history of these colonies as well as their present condition. It contains much statistical information derived from official publications, and it also contains many pages of effective description of nature, as well as of man and his works in the regions under review.

The same firm has published the fifth volume of the 'Discours et Opinions' of Jules Ferry. The volume is perhaps the most interesting of the series, containing, as it does, the speeches on the Tonkinese policy of the Minister—a policy which excited such bitter opposition at the time. The Egyptian question has also its share of this volume.

M. Henri Weil gives us a volume of 'Études sur le Drame Antique' (Paris: Hachette & Cie.), well written and instructive. The author devotes considerable space to the Promethean legend, examines the lyrical forms employed in Greek tragedy, and the rule of the three actors in Seneca's tragedies. The book is worth reading.

The twenty-first instalment of Hatzfeld, Darmesteter & Thomas's admirable French Dictionary ('Dictionnaire Général') carries the work along towards its much-desired completion, as far as *panicule*. The Paris publisher is Delagrave.

If the voice of the German people could reach the ear of Emperor William, an open letter by Dr. Bruno Wagener, 'Kaiser, höre die Wahrheit' (Leipzig: W. Friedrich), would hardly fail to make an impression upon that autocratic ruler. The author and publisher of the little brochure were prosecuted for leze-majesty, but were acquitted by the courts on the ground of the author's "patriotic standpoint" and "honest intention." The writer appeals to the Emperor to become a *Volkskaiser*, instead of remaining a *Hof-* and *Parteikaiser*. His tone is respectful, but such frank advice and earnest warnings are, of course, very unconventional.

In the June issue of *Folk-Lore* is given Miss Mary H. Kingsley's paper on the "Fetish View of the Human Soul," recently read before the Folklore Society. Beginning with the suggestion that a committee of the society be formed for the consideration of African folklore, in view of the great practical usefulness of "a careful and unprejudiced study of African beliefs and customs," Miss Kingsley proceeded to touch upon the terms Fetish and Ju Ju as practically equivalent, the former being of Portuguese, the latter of French derivation. The African did not, she said, divide up the world into God, man, and nature. A vague pantheism underlay Fetish, a conception involving few or no distinctions of kind, wherein man belongs to a high order of spirits, but not to the highest order. Many orders are below him; and above him, beyond his absolute control, are two great classes, while the order to which he belongs contains a vast number of spirits coequal with men, and yet not of mankind. The religion of Fetish is a scheme of conduct and precaution to regulate man's welfare in view of these complicated hierarchical relations. It is compatible with the general West African belief in a Supreme Great God, who cares not at all for his creatures, and whom they do not formally worship, though sometimes, after all Fetish observance has been resorted to in vain, there is a desperate final recourse to him. A human soul is never promoted or degraded in the scale of being; it lives on after the body dies, but not for ever; it is constantly reincarnated. Finally, each individual man is regarded as having four souls. Perhaps one of these is the soul proper, and the other three are aspects or senses.

President Tyler of William and Mary prints in the quarterly *Historical Magazine* of the college a paper, some three years old, confirming Prof. Jameson's study of Virginia voting in the colonial period as communicated to these columns in 1893. He finds indications of a perhaps still larger (*i. e.*, more general) polling, and hence a stronger democratic contrast to New England's comparatively restricted vote in the period under consideration.

From another quarter in the South besides Virginia we are getting fragments of censuses showing the number of slaves. To the Pulaski (Tenn.) *Citizen* of July 22 Mr. Flournoy Rivers contributes a list of heads of families, with slave holdings, of Giles County, from the census of 1820. He follows the census-taker day by day for seventeen days, and tracks his course by the family names, as, "I think he must have been S. W. of Pulaski on this day's work," and, "He has turned and gone up Big Creek, I think," and, "He had come down Pigeon Roost Creek and was working up the old Columbia Road." The list will be continued. The largest number of slaves assigned to a single owner is thirty-one; Elizabeth Edwards held twenty-five. There is perhaps a majority of non-slaveholders, and two free blacks are recorded.

The future of Nigeria was the subject of an interesting address by Sir G. Taubman-Goldie, Governor of the Royal Niger Company, before the London Chamber of Commerce. The territory ruled by his company, he explained, was divided into two sections, differing as widely from each other in the character and civilization of the people as England from China. The southern third, lying to the south of the Benue and about the lower Niger, is thinly inhabited by pagans of the lowest type. The remaining two-thirds, which may be called Hausaland, is thronged with an enterprising commercial and industrial people. With good government, he believes that this country will, "at no distant date, become as valuable as any equal area of British India." A question of the first importance, but presenting great difficulties, is how it shall be administered. Until commerce is sufficiently developed to produce a revenue, local government is impossible. The best form would appear to be a permanent council in London, whose duty should be, not as now to conduct the affairs of a trading company, but simply to develop and administer the country.

A very interesting exhibition was recently held at Munich, consisting of manufactured articles and specimens of drawing, penmanship, and needlework produced by the inmates of the Royal Bavarian Institu-

tion for the Education of Crippled Children, a school which, though in existence for more than half a century, was until recently the only one of its kind in Germany. Within a year, however, a similar institution has been founded at Dresden, through the initiative of the Queen of Saxony, who had previously herself visited the school at Munich, and sent a teacher to study its arrangements and methods. The proficiency of the pupils at Munich, as shown by their work, was in many instances surprising. Samples of book-binding and various articles made of leather, such as pocket-books and valises, were of faultless workmanship. So were the sewing, knitting, art-embroidery, etc., done by one-armed girls. One of these unfortunates, who had partial control only of her badly crippled left hand, had learned to draw geometrical figures with great precision and an apparently firm stroke. The penmanship of several boys was absolutely perfect, and some of this year's graduates have been appointed court stenographers. The annual report of this admirable charity can be had of the inspector, I. Erhard, Klenzestrasse 54, Munich.

—Mrs. Bishop's account of her recent journey in western China, in the *Geographical Journal* for July, is a remarkable testimony to the capacities, resourcefulness, and enterprise of the Chinese who live beyond the influence of white civilization. They long ago grasped the idea that the prosperity of a country depends largely upon its roads, and a frequent method of displaying local patriotism is for a man to present a road to his district. Broad, flagged, shaded with superb avenues of trees, and thronged with burden-bearing coolies she found them, while here and there, especially in the rock galleries of the mountain passes, were tablets in honor of the donors. The correct principles of irrigation seem to have been discovered by these people, for the "boundless fertility and wealth" of the great plain of Cheng-tu and "its immunity for two thousand years from drought and floods" are the monument of the engineering genius of a man who lived B. C. 206. In some parts of the province coal is so abundant that "the children hack it daily" from the roadside for cooking purposes, while the traffic in it is enormous. "Every town and large village has its special industry—silk-weaving, straw-plaiting, hat-making, dressing hides, iron or brass-work, pottery and china, chair-making, dyeing, carving and gilding idols," paper-making, etc. The cultivation of the poppy, it may be said, is "annually trenching more and more on the rice lands." The scenery is surpassingly beautiful: heights crowned with castles; temples with porcelain fronts in rich coloring; bridges with roofs decorated in lacquer and gold; and "palatial" farmhouses in groves of cedars, bamboo, and fruit-trees, all amid "a paradise of greenery and fertility." In many of the towns the inhabitants are hostile to foreigners, and Mrs. Bishop was mobbed several times, once seriously injured, her most brutal assailants being men of the literary class. She crossed the border mountains into eastern Tibet to a region hitherto unvisited by a white traveller. The scenery was magnificent, and the inhabitants, the Mantzu, were interesting, the women being noteworthy for their great beauty and their equality with the men. In one instance her official escort consisted of "two handsome laughing girls, distaff in hand, fearless and full of fun." She succeeded in penetrating some distance into this country, when her further progress was stopped by a tribal war, and she returned to Cheng-tu by the same route, and reached Ichang in June, 1896, having travelled in four months and a half 1,200 miles by land and about 1,000 by water.

—The *Journal* also contains an account by Dr. Bell of the exploration of a recently discovered river flowing into the southernmost part of Hudson's Bay. Its basin, which is some 60,000 square miles in extent, has a soil suitable for agriculture, stock and dairy farming, is well wooded, and "promises to be rich in some kinds of economic minerals." The inhabitants consist of only some thirty or forty families of Crees. Among its fishes is a species of chub, which collects gravel and stones, "weighing from less than one ounce up to about one pound," and heaps them together in the bottom of the river, at a suitable spot for hatching its eggs—that is, in tolerably shallow water where there is a moderate current. A picture is given of one of these nests, which sometimes contain four or five tons of material. Col. G. E. Church contributes a careful and detailed account of Costa Rica, in which the most noteworthy fact is the slave-raids of certain rubber-collectors of Nicaragua, who plunder the settlements of the Guatusos, murder the adults, and capture the children, "whom they sell in San Carlos, Nicaragua, as 'servants,' at $40 to $50 per head." Each of these articles is accompanied by a map.

—The Royal Geographical Society of London, despite its recent ineffectual appeal to the Lords of the Admiralty for official assistance towards prosecuting the work of discovery in the south polar regions, has determined not to allow the matter which it has so warmly espoused to drop. The prospective starting of the Belgian expedition under command of Lieut. Gerlache, and the possible robbing of the honors that had been won for the British flag by Sir James Clark Ross somewhat more than half a century ago, were, in a measure, doubtless the incentive to the special appeals of the Geographical Society; but it is the happy fortune of that influential body to have in its chief, Sir Clements Markham, not only an enthusiast for polar exploration, but one of the ablest students of it, and one who has had some practical experience in arctic work himself. At a special conference recently held by the Society, which was attended by some of its most noted members, as, Sir Joseph Hooker, Admiral Sir George Nares, Admiral Sir Erasmus Ommanney, Admiral Wharton, and Sir John Kirk, and was designed to induce the Australasian premiers to bring the matter before their respective governments for coöperation in a general British expedition, a first practical step towards the formation of such an expedition was taken in the announcement that the Royal Geographical Society was prepared to contribute towards it any sum up to £5,000 to the amount which the colonial governments might subscribe. By those who have made a careful study of the needs of an antarctic expedition, it is believed that £10,000 to £12,000 would adequately equip one of moderate dimensions, which yet, under judicious leadership, would probably accomplish as much as the elaborate expeditions ordinarily organized under Government control. Doubtless, Victoria Land, almost due south of Australia, would be the objective point of British attack, and here a year's work could readily be accomplished for the sum mentioned.

—Among the sources, not yet explored, of the history of English colonization in America must be included the records of the High Court of Admiralty which are preserved in the Public Record Office, London. Work among these old documents is of a rather laborious nature. Students will, therefore, recognize the value of the volume recently published for the Selden Society, by Mr. Bernard Quaritch, of 'Select Pleas in the Court of Admiralty,' edited for the Society by Mr. Reginald G. Marsden. The new volume is the second publication of the kind, and covers the period from 1547 to 1602. The value of such documents may not be readily seen by the general reader, but, none the less, that value is very real. At the present time there is a lawsuit as regards the rights of the city of Colchester over fishing for oysters, which will be decided one way or the other according to the jurisdiction shown by some of these old Admiralty papers to have been exercised in years long past. To the student of American history, however, the most interesting portion of Mr. Marsden's volume is that section of his Introduction which treats of documents relating to transactions in the New World. Of records later than the reign of Queen Elizabeth, the following are noted by Mr. Marsden:

Voyage to Virginia (1633); Records of Admiralty Court of Jamaica (1662); Newfoundland Fishery; Voyage of the *Neptune* to Virginia, with Lord de la Warre as Captain-General; Non-delivery of passengers in Virginia; Negro "passengers"; Lord Baltimore *contra* Orchard: Desertion on Voyage to Maryland; Chesapeake Bay: Damages for not carrying provisions to Colonists; Export of Horses to Barbados; Lord Baltimore *c.* Kirke; Claim for destruction of boats and fish stages in Newfoundland—Ordinance of the King; The Dutch in Pernambuco; Cromwell's expedition to San Domingo and Jamaica; Hudson's Bay Company, Interloping, Validity of Charter: Carrying persons from Barbados without license; Captain Kidd, the Pirate; Sir Henry Morgan, Buccaneer and Governor of Jamaica; Lord Willoughby's agreement with Sir George Aisare as to the rendition of Barbados.

—Despite the numerous assurances that have been given regarding the entire trustworthiness of the method employed in what is known as the Dansan-Chassagne process for color-photography, it would now seem that the "selective" art that was claimed for it is not purely automatic. In other words, the coloring matters which are taken up by the photographic print do not fully attach themselves naturally to such parts of the print as would be of a like color had the image been produced in natural colors, but require for their adjustment—or, more properly, application—the hand of an operator especially discriminative in the selection of colors, as we are told that the results depend largely "on his judgment and skill in applying the colors in the right places." Mr. Henry Trueman Wood, who, in an announcement published in the early part of February last, is mainly responsible for throwing the photographic world into a flurry of expectation, and whose statements received the almost unreserved support of the distinguished President of the London Institute of Chemistry and of the

British Photographic Society, Sir Frederick Abel, makes this admission in *Nature* of July 8. From his statements we learn that a result can be obtained by anybody after a little instruction, but only after working up the different parts of the picture through local hand applications of the different coloring liquids. That a certain natural selective power is exercised by the different tints is still maintained, but, as is rather pointedly remarked, the difficulty is "to satisfy one's self as to how far the process is purely mechanical and how far it is a matter of skill." Scientists will agree with Mr. Wood that, whatever may be the ultimate practical value of the process, it will still prove of theoretical interest if, as an outcome of it, it should be proved that a monochrome photograph has even the smallest power of color-selection, dependent upon the tints of the original.

—Dr. Fairclough's Johns Hopkins dissertation on 'The Attitude of the Greek Tragedians toward Nature' is a conscientious collection of the chief passages of Aeschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides, that bear on his theme. His results are, in the nature of the case, mostly commonplaces. "Every schoolboy knows" that the Greek tragedians let slip opportunities for purple patches of description which a modern would hardly neglect; that nature is for them mainly a stage for human action and passion; that they most frequently take their imagery from the sea and nautical pursuits; and that the utilitarian view of nature prevails over the sentimental in ancient poetry. More interesting are the statement that Aeschylus mentions no specific flower, the observation that the later plays of Sophocles reveal more feeling for nature than the earlier, and the ample illustration given of the sentimental modernity of Euripides as exhibited in the variety and picturesqueness of his flowers, fruits, and trees, his richer color vocabulary, his appreciation of aerial effects, his use of symbolism, and the "pathetic fallacy." The suggestion that Aristophanes was consciously parodying these Euripidean qualities in the "Frogs" arouses the attention, but is not borne out by the natural interpretation of the passages cited. The image in "Prometheus" 885 is probably not that of a muddy river rushing down to meet the clear seawater, but merely of the silt stirred up from the bottom. The "boy that pursues a flying bird" is proverbial. The metaphor of dewdrops for lion-whelps may reveal an Oriental fancy, but it belongs to the language rather than to the poet. It is found, by the way, in Wordsworth. Λεπτοψάμαθος ("Suppl." 4) is hardly an epithet of "material wealth." The meteorological πολυπραγμοσύνη noticed by the scholiast on the "Rhesus" is an altogether different thing from the modern feeling for nature, and in any case cannot make Euripidean authorship probable. It is an indisputable truth that "there is an utter absence of the sense of moral responsibility" in *Clytemnestra* when she likens herself, splashed with her husband's blood, to the corn-land shivering for delight "when the dew glistens on the pearled ears" in the birth-pang of the bud. But, as Pindar somewhere says, it is not best that every truth should show its face everywhere.

—Students of the law of evidence will be interested to know that a new edition of the 'Indian Evidence Act' (London and New York: Henry Frowde) has been issued, with brief notes, by Sir William Markby, formerly an Indian judge and now Reader in Indian Law at Oxford. Sir William is a well-known legal author. The Indian Evidence Act, as is known, was prepared by Fitzjames Stephen between twenty and thirty years ago. It was a crude production, but none the less it was quickly fastened upon India, and, with various amendments, is still the law there. The administration of it has caused much trouble. It is very instructive to read now the brief comments of the careful and exact thinker whose duty it is to expound this statute at Oxford. Many of his criticisms—"It was impossible," he says, "for me to conceal that I disagree entirely with some of Sir James Stephen's views on this subject"—are applicable to Stephen's well-known 'Digest of the Law of Evidence,' and they should be read by all who use that work. The Indian Evidence Act is, indeed, a sort of first draft of what afterwards became the Digest. Markby's searching comments on the topics of relevancy, the hearsay rule, character and opinion evidence, as well as other subjects will be found very useful. Stephen was far too rash and ill-instructed on this subject to have been allowed so free a hand. We should add that the author's notes are brief, and are intended "to assist students in preparing for their examinations."

PASTOR'S POPES OF THE RENAISSANCE.

Geschichte der Päpste im Zeitalter der Renaissance, von der Wahl Innocenz' VIII. bis zum Tode Julius' II. Von Ludwig Pastor. Freiburg i. B. 1895.

It is long since a more important contribution than Dr. Pastor's 'History of the Popes of the Renaissance' has been made to our knowledge of the pre-Reformation period. The present volume is the third, and it is to be hoped that the fourth, comprising the pontificate of Leo X., will not be long delayed by the author's diversion to the editorship of Janssen's 'Geschichte des deutschen Volkes.' For many years so much earnest research has been directed to the archives of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries that it would seem as though little could be left to glean, but Dr. Pastor's untiring diligence in all accessible depositories of documents has resulted in revealing many new and interesting details. Moreover, he has familiarized himself with the labors of all other scholars in the innumerable monographs which have done so much to elucidate doubtful questions and conflicting currents of thought, and to explain the tangled diplomacy and swift alternations of policy of that eventful time out of which the modern civilized world has developed. Nothing seems to have escaped his all-devouring industry, which is amply attested by the crowded references and piled-up authorities cited in the abundant footnotes—though this insatiable appetite for citation, indeed, does not always discriminate as to the character of authorities. It looks odd, to say the least, to see (p. 227) Florian's 'Gonzalve de Cordoue,' in a Spanish translation, gravely alleged as a source for the capture of Granada by Ferdinand and Isabella.

The importance of Dr. Pastor's work is not only thus intrinsic, but it is also extrinsic as a semi-official exposition of the Catholic view of the events which led up to the Reformation in the deep degradation of the Holy See of the Renaissance. The secret archives of the Vatican were thrown open to the author, even to the consistorial records and the Regesta of Alexander VI., which he tells us have been sealed books for three hundred years. His labors have been welcomed with acclamation by the faithful; they have won the special thanks of Leo XIII., and translations have already appeared in English, French, and Italian, while others are preparing in Spanish and Czech. It is evident that the book is to be regarded as the authoritative defence of the Church against the assaults of Protestant scholarship.

The position assumed by Dr. Pastor therefore becomes of interest to all students, irrespective of the facts which he has so laboriously accumulated. There is, on his part, evidently an earnest desire to be fair and impartial, and he unquestionably believes himself to be so. Nevertheless, the personal equation of the author renders his book not a little *tendenziös*. He is necessarily an Ultramontane, believing in the highest claims advanced by the Holy See as to the autocratic constitution of the Church, with the Pope as the irresponsible sovereign over all the faithful in the *temporalia ad spiritualia ordinata*, and it is impossible for him to write in a purely objective spirit. His faith is too robust to be shaken even by the intrigues and shameless bribery of the conclaves, so candidly described in his pages, through which successive popes gained the tiara. The motto from Leo I. prefixed to this volume—"The dignity of Peter is not lacking even in an unworthy heir"—indicates the task which he has set himself to execute, viz., to reconcile the vicariate of Christ with the wickedness which he has to relate of the vicars. Sixtus IV. he exculpates by attributing the foulness of his reign to the kindred with whom his nepotism afflicted Italy. The miserable Innocent VII., we are told, was the soul of goodness and kindness; it was his virtues rather than his faults which plunged the papacy into deeper degradation. Alexander VI., he admits, was depraved, but the atrocities which he committed and encouraged had at least a noble basis, the love of his kindred and especially of his children (p. 288)—a curious excuse for a pope bred to the Church and vowed to celibacy. Besides, he at least maintained the purity of the faith, and the value of a jewel like the papacy is not diminished by an unworthy setting (p. 475). Julius II. is Pastor's hero; there is no reproof of his faithlessness, of his tortuous policy, of his military enterprises; he is lauded without stint as the man who recovered and enlarged the papal territories and drove the French out of Italy, with scanty reference to the fact that he thereby firmly established Spain in Naples, thus rendering the peninsula the battle-ground between those two Powers, with the eventual result of Spanish domination. It is a slight but significant illustration of Dr. Pastor's apologetic attitude that when he has occasion (p. 557) to mention the betrothal of Julius's natural daughter Felice to Marcantonio Colonna, solemnized in Rome during her father's pontificate, he is careful to speak of her, not as the child of Julius, but of Cardinal Giuliano della Rovere—his ante-papal title.

The same probably unconscious tendency pervades the work, and renders it not wholly

worthy of implicit confidence, in spite of the author's boundless learning and evident striving for minute accuracy of statement. It affects not only his judgment, but also his selection and presentation of facts. Thus, in his effort to prove that, in spite of the mocking spirit and heathenish tendency of the Renaissance, the popular masses were still deeply pious and moral, he devotes considerable space (pp. 26-34) to the Confraternities as evidence of the religious activity of the time, and from his description no one would imagine that they were aught but zealous associations for pious works, although the virtually unanimous testimony of the period is that their chief attraction was the riotous feasting and debauchery at their banquets; and Erasmus urged their suppression on the ground that they were nothing but conventicles of Comus and Bacchus. Dr. Pastor's treatment of usury is equally one-sided (pp. 79-82). He dwells on the exorbitant rates of usance customary at the time, but does not point out that this in great part arose from the prohibition and outlawry by the Church of any profit whatever for the loan of money or property, thus necessarily raising the interest charges of those who risked the punishment provided for the usurer; and, moreover, that, while forbidding the taking of interest by the laity, the Church permitted the ecclesiastical foundations thus to derive income from their surplus capital. Again, the neo-paganism of the Renaissance doubtless had much to answer for, but it was not responsible, as Dr. Pastor assumes (p. 97), for a revival of unnatural crime, the continued prevalence of which throughout the Middle Ages is sufficiently attested by St. Peter Damiani, Alain de Lille, Fra Giordano da Rivalto, and other moralists. Equally untenable is the assumption (p. 108) that the absurd confidence reposed in astrology during the fifteenth century is attributable to the Renaissance; for the so-called science had survived the ruin of the Roman civilization, and had been eagerly cultivated ever since the Barbarians had learned enough to comprehend its seductive promises. The papal legate who, in 1256, conducted the crusade against Ezzelino da Romano, was accompanied by a Dominican astrologer, and Ezzelino himself was surrounded by a corps of similar advisers.

Twice Dr. Pastor tells us (pp. 250, 486) that most of the popes of the fifteenth century showed great toleration for the Jews. It is the fashion nowadays to repudiate for the Church all responsibility for the hideous persecutions of the Middle Ages, and the impression which he thus seeks to convey is a *suggestio falsi*, for he omits all reference to the terrible bulls of Eugenius IV. in 1442 and of Nicholas V. in 1447, of which the object seems to have been to force the unhappy Hebrews to conversion by driving them to despair. There is a similar attempt (p. 251) to relieve the Church of the stigma of fostering the fearful witchcraft craze by arguing that the celebrated bull *Summis desiderantes* of Innocent VIII., in 1484, contained no doctrinal affirmation of the reality of witchcraft, and yet, as Innocent confirmed its punishment by the stake and forbade interference with his inquisitors by those who were incredulous, if he did not affirm its reality his action was mere wanton and purposeless cruelty. Dr. Pastor, moreover, is careful to confine himself to this bull, to which an undue importance has been attached, for it was only one of a long series through which the belief in witchcraft was sedulously strengthened by successive popes. Thus, he makes no allusion to similar utterances by Eugenius IV. in 1437 and 1445, by Nicholas V. in 1451, by Calixtus III. in 1457, by Pius II. in 1459, by Alexander VI. in 1494, and by Julius II. some ten years later. We shall be curious to see in the next volume how Dr. Pastor will handle the quarrel between Leo X. and the republic of Venice when the latter defended the so-called witches of Valcamonica against the papal inquisitors.

The same tendency pervades our author's vigorous characterization of Machiavelli, in whom he recognizes the incarnation of the pagan Renaissance. He is reproached (p. 121) with regarding religion as merely a useful tool of statecraft, but Dr. Pastor does not stop to ask himself how Machiavelli could well consider it otherwise when he had never seen a vicar of Christ who had not so utilized it for the aggrandizement of his see or of his kindred. The statecraft of the period was indescribably base and wicked, but it is instructive to compare the author's indignation at Machiavelli's academic acceptance of it with his tolerance of its practical application by the Holy See. Thus when, in 1484, Innocent VIII., to avert the threats of Ferdinand of Naples, executed bulls conveying to him the territories of Benevento, Terracina, and Ponte Corvo, they were not delivered, but were deposited in escrow with Cardinal Giuliano della Rovere, and Innocent caused a notarial act to be taken reciting that the bulls were only for appearance, to avoid the violence of the king, and that he had no intention to surrender the cities, but would resist by force any attempt to seize them. The only comment which Dr. Pastor makes on this elaborate fraud (p. 181) is that it was a strange method of escaping the difficulty. So, when Julius II. secured his election (p. 521) by entering into an agreement with Cæsar Borgia to appoint him standard-bearer of the Church and to support him in his possessions, and subsequently, when occasion offered, redeemed his pledges by arresting Cæsar and delivering him to the dungeons of Ferdinand of Aragon, there is no word of censure for this breach of faith. In fact, the placid way in which the historian describes the crimes, the voluptuousness, and the corruption of the papal court might be taken as a model of philosophical indifference, akin to that of Machiavelli, were it not in strong contrast to the warmth displayed when he treats of the determination of Louis XI. and his successors to maintain the liberties of the Gallican Church, and the efforts of unfortunate Germany to acquire the same measure of independence.

If space permitted, many other topics would invite and repay criticism, but enough has been said to enable the reader to appreciate the character of the work. It is of first-rate importance; it throws fresh light on many obscure points and debatable questions, and no one can hereafter venture to treat of the period without consulting it. The author has amply demonstrated his abundant learning and untiring industry, but he is deficient in the judicial quality which alone could render him an authority to be accepted without reserve.

ANCIENT EGYPTIAN RELIGION.

Religion of the Ancient Egyptians. By Alfred Wiedemann, Ph.D., Professor in the University of Bonn. London: H. Grevel & Co.; New York: Putnams. 1897. 8vo, pp. xvi, 324.

Judging by the recent past, we are destined soon to have a very respectable Egyptological literature in English, even if a considerable portion of it comes to us by way of translations from the French and German. The 'History' by Prof. Flinders Petrie has progressed as far as the second volume and the eighteenth dynasty. Miss Amelia B. Edwards's books are of the genial sort which rivet the attention even though their scientific value is not of the very highest. Maspero's 'Egyptian Archæology,' 'Life in Ancient Egypt,' and 'Dawn of Civilization' are valuable in every way, being the work of a first-hand and first-class scholar and explorer. Erman's 'Life in Ancient Egypt' is a work somewhat similar to the volumes of Wilkinson ('The Ancient Egyptians'), but surpasses them in consequence of the author's thorough acquaintance with the contents of the texts which he interprets, as well as by reason of the many discoveries made since the days of the pioneer. Brugsch's 'History' is also to be mentioned, though, even in the one-volume abridgment of Miss Brodrick, it contains much that is conjectural and probably untrue. The many memoirs of the Egyptian Exploration Fund, the special volumes of Prof. Petrie, too numerous to be mentioned here, Sayce's repetitious works, and Mariette's 'Outlines' may also be added to the list. Budge's 'Mummy' is among the more recent volumes to appear, and it is one of the most useful and valuable of all in the vast amount of archæological lore which it contains. The translation of the 'Book of the Dead,' by Le Page Renouf, now appearing, and the version of Budge are the best that exist anywhere, greatly superior to the volume of Davis, which contains an unimproved and (as to the notes) somewhat curtailed rendering of the version of Pierret. A previous volume of Wiedemann, on 'The Ancient Egyptian Doctrine of Immortality,' was translated and published a short time since, and now we have the present work as a very valuable contribution to the subject so far as English readers are concerned. It has been known to scholars since 1890 in the original, and has been valued for its conspicuous merit. Other English books, of recent date, but of less striking worth and originality, might be enumerated, but the above suffice to justify the assertion with which we set out, and which takes no account of the older works of Wilkinson, Birch, and others, which retain a certain amount of value even if it be largely historical, marking the steps of the progress that has been made since the opening of the century.

No mention has been made of Renouf's Hibbert lectures on the Egyptian religion, because that work, while valuable in many ways, is vitiated by the preconceptions of the author and by the fact that he holds a brief for a particular theory. In fact, this is the difficulty with all books on the subject, the one now under consideration being, probably, the most free from this rather damaging imputation. Wiedemann agrees with Maspero in many fundamental positions and in general explanation of the

growth and development of the Egyptian pantheon; Renouf follows the lead of Max Müller; and De Rougé, with his followers, Pierret, Brugsch, and others, see traces of an original monotheism in the religion of the Egyptians. The naturalistic theory of Wiedemann and Maspero agrees more nearly with the views of such scholars as Erman and Eduard Meyer, and seems to be the one likely to prevail in the long run. It may therefore be regarded as a fortunate occurrence that the treatise now made accessible to English readers is the work of Wiedemann, rather than the somewhat fantastic and largely fanciful work of Brugsch.

A national religion is a very large matter, especially when the period of its existence is to be measured by thousands of years instead of by centuries. It is impossible to conceive of a system of belief that should remain unchanged during so long a time, as asserted by Renouf, but there is a sense in which the statement is true. Wiedemann characterizes the Egyptians as "conservative," and so they were if it be meant that they preserved that which was old; but it is not true if it be understood in the sense that they were not open to change, innovation, and addition by accretion. The old and the new existed side by side, neither displacing the other, with never a consciousness of inconsistency or incongruity. Deities were merged into one another, qualities of one were attributed to another, till the pantheon resembled the shifting pictures and combinations of the kaleidoscope. The religion thus had a history, but the nation never had a religion in the sense of a dogmatic system, congruous and articulated in its parts and divisions. The ultimate nucleus, so far as it is possible to trace it or to discover its origin, was in the god of the nomos or city, together with his family or adherents. Each of the forty-odd nomes (the number varied in different periods) of both Upper and Lower Egypt had its tutelary deity, who was usually the leading god of the capital of the nome. The cities had their special god or circle of gods, and these grew powerful or weak according as the prestige of the city waxed or waned. A notable instance of this is seen in the preeminence of Ptah, the god of Memphis, in the period when Memphis was the seat of the ruling Pharaoh. The condition was changed at the time of the invasion of the Hyksos, and Ptah was relegated to an inferior position, or to the rank of a local deity. The revolt which finally ended in the overthrow of the Hyksos had its origin at Thebes, whose god was Amon. When the rule of the native princes was restored, it was that of the Theban house, and the god Amon, particularly as Amon-Ra, attained to a fulness of religious recognition which corresponded to the Theban political hegemony. The single attempt at the establishment of a monotheistic faith, the solar worship of Aten (Semitic, Adoni or Adonis), was an importation from the East, or at least was instituted under Oriental or Semitic influence. Its principal conflict was with the Amon worship, and it developed an *odium theologicum* which found vent in hammering out the name of Amon from the monuments even where it occurred as a component part of the name of a royal predecessor of the "heretic" king. The latter himself changed his name from Amenhotep (Amenophis IV.) to Khunaten, in order to remove all reminiscence of the hated god. But the domination of Amon was too powerful, his priesthood too strongly entrenched, their interest in the return to recognition of Amon too intense, to allow the revulsion to be long delayed after the passing of the innovating king.

The monotheistic theory of the religion of the Egyptians finds its support in numerous phrases which, taken alone, suggest nothing more evidently than a monotheistic conception. The word "god" occurs unqualified as subject in many sentences. Such expressions have been used by theorists, after the antiquated proof-text method, to support a hypothesis which cannot stand the test of the context. In spite of surface appearances, these passages in no case refer to deity in general, but invariably to the local divinity whose rule was acknowledged in the city or region in question. The problem of the original religion, however, is a far different one, and in this matter the author observes a cautious discretion which refuses to permit him to make any positive statements or even to hazard a hypothesis. The fact is, that, at the time of the earliest monuments, we are met by a well-developed pantheon, whose origin and genesis are veiled in the obscurity which preceded the dawn of human history. To be sure, the Egyptian myths peopled that period with gods, but they, of course, do not afford us any basis on which to build. It is also rather doubtful whether further excavation will furnish material by which to solve these questions.

To all outward appearance there is no lack of material from which to gather the elements to be woven into an account of the religion of Egypt. But closer examination shows that the texts on temple walls, stelæ, obelisks, and other objects contain a mass of bombastic phrases and repetitions which defy all reason. They are to some extent descriptive of the gods, but their phrases are hard to read and harder to comprehend. They often contain references by implication to myths which were so well known or so closely guarded that they were, apparently, never written out. Consequently the major part, in reality nearly everything, of the Egyptian mythology has perished. There are some survivals, for instance, the Osiris and Isis myth (preserved principally by Plutarch), and the tradition of the destruction of disobedient and rebellious mankind; but the very richness of these stories makes the extent of the loss only the more apparent. All that is left in most cases is an occasional phrase which hints at much behind.

The 'Book of the Dead' is the great storehouse of Egyptian theology, but it never attained to the dignity of a canon in the Egyptian period proper, and at no time did it come to a degree of definiteness of content which prescribed its exact and unalterable limits. It was a growth, and chapter was added to chapter till they approached two hundred in the aggregate, but we have no evidence that any single papyrus ever contained an absolutely complete compilation of them all. This part of the material has not been utilized with the fulness that it deserves, and the main criticism which one is tempted to make on the present work concerns this topic. There are others which one would like to find treated, but which were excluded, probably because, while they relate to religious observances, they fall in the archæological division of the subject rather than within the proper scope of this work. Furthermore, the author's previous work on 'Immortality' covers much of this ground.

The general scope of the book may be briefly stated. The most prominent but not the sole characteristic of the religious beliefs in the valley of the Nile was in the preëminence of the solar element. Many of the deities in human form typified phases of the energy of the solar radiance or the different positions of the sun himself at morning, noon, or night. The treatment of "Sun Worship" therefore takes first place and is followed by an account of what is known with regard to the "Solar Myths," and "The Passage of the Sun through the Underworld." The author then proceeds to describe the various "Chief Deities," their attributes, their involved and promiscuous family and marital relations, and the forms under which they were conceived and adored. A chapter of considerable interest is devoted to "Foreign Gods" and another to the "Worship of Animals." Two more are given to "Osiris and his Circle" and to the "Osirian Doctrine of Immortality," indispensable to an understanding of the funerary practices of the people. Incidentally much light is thrown upon the moral standards of this people by the wonderful "Negative Confession" of the 125th chapter of the 'Book of the Dead.' "Magic and Sorcery" receive also their due consideration, and the final chapter on "Amulets" is one which will enable the visitor to the Egyptian collection of a museum to appreciate and understand the small objects which are ordinarily exhibited there in such profusion.

In its English form this work is practically a second edition of the original, rewritten and enlarged. The translation is anonymous, but it is in gratifying contrast with many of the mechanical, penny-a-line renderings of German historical and theological works which are foisted upon a long-suffering public. In some ways, also, the English is a great improvement upon the German publication. The foot-notes are more numerous and valuable; seventy-odd illustrations, some of them folding-plates, serve to set off the subject admirably, while the extensive index even doubles the value of the work for purposes of consultation and reference—a fact which the present writer appreciates to the full, as he was compelled to make his own index to the original. The book reads well, and it is now no longer true that we have no good book in the language dealing with the religion of Egypt.

The Fall of the Congo Arabs. By Sidney Langford Hinde. T. Whittaker. 1897. Portraits, plans, and map. 8vo, pp. viii, 308.

This work possesses a two-fold interest. It is the narrative, by an eye-witness, of scenes in the Central African phase of the struggle of Mohammedanism with Christianity, which is still in progress in south-eastern Europe and in the eastern and western Sudan, and which is imminent in North Africa and Asia. It also gives important testimony in regard to a charge recently made against the Congo Free State. The Berlin Conference, twelve years ago, gave a commercial company sovereign power over a vast region, not simply to develop its material resources, but to put down slavery and the slave-trade, to civilize and educate the

natives. For a time nothing was heard but commendation for the zeal and succcess with which the State was opening the great river and its tributaries to commerce, by building a railway, establishing lines of steamboats, founding trading-stations, and sending out exploring expeditions. But of late this chorus of praise has ceased. In its place, first faint, then distinct, charges have been made that the State, so far from being a civilizing agent, has been instrumental in introducing a barbarism and slavery worse than that which it found upon the Congo. It has been accused of employing cannibals for soldiers and of practising inhuman methods for the collection of the rubber-tribute and the punishment of the wretched people who failed to pay it. The chief witness in support of the former charge is the author of this book, and his proofs can be found in repulsive fulness in his narrative.

On entering the service of the Free State, Capt. Hinde was sent into the interior to join an expedition to explore Katanga, and reached Lusambo in May, 1892, on the day on which Commandant Dhanis returned to it from a successful campaign against one of Tippu Tib's slave-raiding agents. The route of the expedition lay through a devastated region, in which "every height was covered with splendid palm plantations and the remains of villages," to N'Gandu, the residence of this chief. The town, containing from ten to fifteen thousand inhabitants, was surrounded by a palisade, nearly every tree of which was crowned with a human skull. The entrances to the several gateways were "ornamented by a pavement of human skulls, . . . of snowy whiteness, and polished to the smoothness of ivory by the daily passage of hundreds of naked feet. I counted more than two thousand skulls in the pavement of one of the gates alone." A short distance from this place, Capt. Hinde and his companions were stopped by the tidings that the son of Tippu Tib, at the head of a large force, was marching to attack them. The Arabs, jealous of the advance of the Europeans into territory which they had ruled for forty years, and angry at the consequent interference with the slave-trade, had now determined to drive them out of Central Africa. The intended destruction of the Katanga expedition was a part of extensive operations in the course of which several stations were captured, Emin Pasha murdered, and his followers enslaved. These were their only significant successes, for Commandant Dhanis, in a vigorous campaign which lasted more than a year, completely defeated them and destroyed their two great towns, Nyangwe and Kasongo.

Capt. Hinde sketches briefly the history of the war, which covered a wide extent of country, dwelling naturally more at length upon the incidents of which he was an eyewitness. Especially interesting are his descriptions of the centres of Arab civilization, towns of from thirty to sixty thousand inhabitants, but now entirely deserted. The forest had been cut down for miles around them, and in the clearings were maize and rice fields, sugar plantations, and fruit gardens. In the houses at Kasongo, "silver and glass goblets and decanters were in profusion," while "even the common soldiers slept on silk and satin mattresses, in carved beds with silk mosquito curtains." Here also were found the diary and two decorations of Emin Pasha, who, "our Arab prisoners told us, . . . was the most inoffensive man that was ever seen in Africa. They had, according to their own accounts, no other reason for murdering him except that a general massacre of white men had been decided on, and, coming into a district in which all the white men had already been killed, he shared their fate." After the taking of the last Arab stronghold, Capt. Hinde explored the Congo as far as the mouth of the Lukuga, a stream connecting the river with Lake Tanganyika. An attempt to reach the lake failed through his illness, and he was obliged to return to England.

The war with the Arabs was of no slight importance, considering the numbers engaged and the issues at stake. At the beginning, Commandant Dhanis had under his command "about 25,000 natives, 400 regulars, and six white officers." The number of their opponents is of course purely conjectural, but it was immensely greater, as their losses are "estimated at seventy thousand men." The result was the overthrow of what bid fair to be another great Mohammedan empire. "A great element in our success," Capt. Hinde says with a frankness almost brutal, was "the fact that both sides were cannibals, or rather that both sides had cannibals in their train." The Mohammedans, dreading the mutilation of their bodies, and their consequent exclusion from the highest heaven, would on a reverse "fly from the field with all possible speed—not so much in order to save their lives as through fear lest their carcasses, in the event of their falling, should be torn to pieces." This seems to have been invariably the fate of the wounded and killed. After a fight at Nyangwe, when "over one thousand men fell," the burial force found only a few hundred heads, "all the bodies having been carried off for food." The practice is not confined to one region or race, but is prevalent throughout the whole Congo Basin. There were instances of it even among the men employed on the steamboats at Stanley Pool. According to Capt. Hinde, it is on the increase. He mentions one tribe, the Balubas, "a fine, healthy, industrious race," "agriculturists, iron-workers, and cloth-makers," who until quite lately "were not cannibals, and even now the *men* only eat their enemies who fall in battle." This growing appetite for human flesh he attributes to the greater intercourse among the natives since the coming of the Europeans has made travelling easier and safer. "Formerly the people who wandered from their own neighborhood among the surrounding tribes were killed and eaten, and so did not return among their own people to enlighten them by showing that human flesh was useful as an article of food." If these statements are true (and they are supported by numerous facts taken from the author's personal experience), the increase of cannibalism is perhaps only a temporary phase of the inevitable deteriorating effect of the contact of the whites with the negroes. Apparently it would seem to be impossible for the Free State to administer its territory without occasionally employing cannibals. The crime, when detected in one of its servants, it should be said, is punished with death.

The interest of the book is well sustained throughout. The author's descriptive power is shown, not only in the incidents related, but in his admirable account of the ten-inch path which traverses Central Africa in every direction, and of the forest with its absence of life and color, except sombre greens and browns. He is not a scientific observer, however, and he adds little to our knowledge of the people among whom he lived for three years. Nor is he sufficiently careful in some of his statements. An account of the Batwa, a pygmy race inhabiting the forest bordering on the Lomami River, is occupied mainly with their skill in the "shooting of three, or even four, arrows so rapidly that the last is discharged before the first reaches its mark," and with the deadliness of their poison. "An elephant in one of our stations, which was scratched on the haunch by a poisoned spear, fell down dead before going a hundred yards." Of their appearance, their manner of life, their habitations, their language Capt. Hinde says nothing, and yet if "their average height is under four feet," as he states, they are the most remarkable race in the world in this respect and well deserve the closest observation. If we are not mistaken, the smallest people known to science are the Akkas, who range in height from 4.3 to 4.7 feet. A striking portrait of Baron Dhanis, as well as one of the author, together with some diagrams and a map of the southeastern Congo Basin showing recent explorations, add to the attractiveness and value of the volume.

Julian M. Sturtevant: An Autobiography. Edited by J. M. Sturtevant, Jr. Fleming H. Revell Co. 1897.

The personal interest attaching to this autobiography is not slight, for we are put in touch with a man of sterling character and many winning traits, whose experience was one of much more than ordinary hardship and variety. What is incidental, however, is the most valuable and attractive element—the rough and hard beginnings of a new civilization in the West from sixty to seventy years ago, and especially the humors and the sinuosities of ecclesiastical politics as they were exhibited on a narrow stage, which, nevertheless, was typical of a pretty general condition. Mr. Sturtevant writes the story of his life with great frankness and simplicity, and with that evident enjoyment which goes far to insure the reader's sympathy. Now and then his grammar halts as we should not expect a college president's to do if we were applying the severest modern standards to the pioneers of college education on the verge of civilized society.

Dr. Sturtevant was Connecticut born, in Warren, Litchfield County, in 1805. All his early associations were those of New England Puritanism, and he was always true to them, his portrait confirming the text in this particular. At the same time, he was a growing man, and he sincerely deprecates the narrowness and bitterness of sectarian zeal, and the signing of creeds which can be neither understood nor intelligently assented to by young or old. He writes intelligently of the industrial conditions which encouraged emigration from New England to the West, the more so because political economy was for a long time one of his courses of instruction in Illinois College. His parents joined the emigrants in 1816. The account of the journey to Ohio, mostly on foot, is so fascinating as to make us wish we had been there, for all the rigors it entailed. The first stop, in Richfield, proved unsatisfactory. There was neither church nor school, and the homesick family "wept when they

remembered Zion." Very pathetic were the yearnings for the usual "means of grace." These yearnings took the Sturtevant family to Tallmadge, where education and religion had some germinal activity. There is a capital story of how the parents going for the belated cows were lost in the great forest in a terrific storm.

We soon find ourselves touching on the lives of men well known to history and fame. Elizur Wright was the principal of the local academy, and his son, of the same name, the better known abolitionist, translator of Lafontaine, and Massachusetts Commisioner of Insurance, was caught up into the vortex of a religious revival. Afterward he departed widely from the traditional faith, but Dr. Sturtevant has only kindly recollections of his early friend. Hudson was near by, and there lived Owen Brown, the father of "Old John." Owen was one of the worst of stammerers, and young Sturtevant in visiting him anticipated the morning prayers with natural anxiety. Strange to relate, in his Scripture reading Brown stammered little, and in his prayer not at all. When the boy was about leaving for Yale College, his father's voice choked with emotion and he could not go on with his own Bible reading. Then, fortunately, Owen Brown appeared, took the Bible, and brought the painful business to a solemn and impressive end.

From Yale we follow the autobiographer to New Canaan, where he taught school and fell in love with the lady whom he married, when, after a course of theological study, he set out in 1829 to found Illinois College, the plan for which had originated in a company of Yale theological students. The story of the journey and the small and rude beginnings of the enterprise is full of interest, one of many such stories concerning the initial stages of our schools and colleges. But at Jacksonville there were peculiar difficulties. Dr. Edward Beecher was made President of the college in 1830, and assumed the office in 1832. He and Mr. Sturtevant were Congregationalists in a Presbyterian community, and the college was under Presbyterian control. The arrangement was part of that doubtful development of ecclesiastical politics, the Plan of Union between the Congregationalists and Presbyterians, whereby the Congregationalists were to have New England to themselves and the Presbyterians all the rest of the country. Here was sufficient opportunity for jealousy and bickering, but it was indefinitely increased when the differences between Old and New School Presbyterians reached their climax in the formation of two separate bodies. Dr. Beecher and Mr. Sturtevant fell under suspicion and were tried for heresy, but acquitted by the local presbytery. Mr. Sturtevant's position was particularly trying, because the more he saw of the Presbyterians and their bickerings, the more stanch became his Congregationalist convictions of church polity. The situation was aggravated by the establishment of a Congregational church in Jacksonville with which he could not but sympathize, though he deprecated the movement. He writes with much feeling of the injury done to educational enterprises by sectarian jealousy.

The glimpses he affords us of the Beechers who flocked to Jacksonville are entertaining. He blames Catherine severely because her argumentative intensity made him forget the deference due to her sex. Dr. Beecher resigned in 1844, and Mr. Sturtevant succeeded him. There were times during the next dozen years when the fortunes of the college were extremely critical, but at length his persistent efforts gave it financial security, and, for its ecclesiastical basis, a compromise between Congregationalists and New School Presbyterians, which, however ludicrous in its appearance, has promise of success. The President is to be elected first from one sect and then from the other. It can easily be imagined how either party to this arrangement will look out for a young man of vigorous constitution as often as its turn comes round.

Dr. Sturtevant did not live to finish his autobiography, and the appendix by his son is mainly personal. We learn that he resigned his office in 1876, and that in 1883 he delivered an historical discourse on the fiftieth anniversary of the founding of the college. Some details from that discourse, comparing the grown-up college with its infancy, would have been welcome, but unfortunately they are withheld.

Chapters xv. and xx. are two of the most interesting in the book, though they are episodical. In the former, "The Negro," Dr. Sturtevant is at some pains to indicate his anti-slavery position. He was made an abolitionist by Garrison, but could not go with him the length of his anti-Union and non-voting declarations, and, although a clergyman, he misquotes the famous "covenant with death, etc." But apparently the Liberty party did not satisfy him, seeing that he did not vote for President at all until 1848 (not 1849 as written), when he voted for Van Buren. There is warm praise for Elizur Wright, Charles B. Storrs, and Beriah Green. After Lovejoy's first press was thrown into the river at Alton, Mr. Sturtevant was one of a company discussing the advisability of his getting another and going on with his work. He advised against it, and submits that he was more consistent than those who retreated from their position after Lovejoy's death. If they were right in urging resistance before that event, he thinks they would have been doubly right after the catastrophe. President Beecher was at Alton just before the riot, and received the new press at night with Lovejoy, and stood guard over it with him until morning, and then returned to his college duties, escaping in this way a dangerous situation and, perhaps, a martyr's crown. Mr. Sturtevant's anti-slavery enthusiasm is, however, reserved for the rise and growth of the Republican party. He dwells at length on Lincoln, whom he knew very well, but adds little to our knowledge of his history. Especially futile is his endeavor to establish Lincoln's Christian character. But it has this advantage over some hundreds of others: it concedes that if the churches had been more religious and less theological, Mr. Lincoln would probably have thought better of them, and have joined one or another. In fact the simplicity of religion, as compared with the complexity of the creeds, appears to have been the one lesson which Dr. Sturtevant learned as he did no other. It is the lesson that he teaches most impressively.

Medical Climatology. By S. Edwin Solly, M.D. Philadelphia: Lea Brothers. 1897.

Two Health-Seekers in Southern California. By William A. Edwards, M.D., and Beatrice Harraden. Philadelphia: Lippincott. 1897.

Dr. Solly's 'Medical Climatology' is a declaration of principles followed by a fair directory of the health resorts of the world. Very properly the author makes much of the action of sunlight, laying stress upon the germicidal influence of direct insolation, and upon its general invigorating power. The best example on a great scale of the vivifying influence of light, not noted herein, is the extraordinary stimulus its annual return gives to arctic animal life. There the reappearing sun excites emotional as well as invigorates physical existence, and the coming of the nightless day is marked by storms of passion and by other outbursts of restlessness and energy. Taking the whole globe under review, much of the detail in this work is necessarily meagre, but in all important respects the accounts seem trustworthy. The Rocky Mountain region is brought into particular prominence by its possession of the special quantities of abundant sunlight, low relative humidity, and freedom from atmospheric impurities, which are the essentials of a consumptive's climate; for, after all, the consumptives outnumber all others who change their skies in the hope of bringing strength to their bodies and rest to their minds. A comparison of Davos-Platz, which may be taken as the best of such European resorts, shows that on the first of January it has not quite four hours of possible sunshine against a little more than nine at Denver. The average relative humidity for the autumn and winter is 81 at Davos, against 50.5 at Denver; in January it was 86 abroad to 39 at home. The precipitation for the six colder months is 11.24 inches on 53 days at Davos, against 6.79 inches on 28 days at Denver. There may be other points in Colorado that make a better showing than Denver, but at their best the Alps are not as health-restoring as the Rockies. The book is well made, and has nearly a dozen maps, climatic rather than topographical. There are a few blemishes, as Saginaw for Saguenay (p. 189); Forts Yuma and Defiance, abandoned interior military posts, noted as having a present existence; bald, gazetteer-like entries of no real value except as names; no reference to the Catskills or the high Sierras; and the very serious defect of commonly failing to cite the page of authorities used.

In the second book on the same subject specialized, Miss Harraden reminds one that, notwithstanding the wonderful attractions of air and sky and distant scenery, country life for an invalid or for a woman means horses and servants or collapse. Dr. Edwards's claim is for the best yearly climate in the world, not absolutely the best in every particular all the time. His warning is that every health-seeker should not take some one else's climate, but by patient and intelligent exploration find his own. To seek health in California, or anywhere, except as resting in the convalescence from acute illness, means long-continued if not perpetual residence, with the reasonable precautions of food, moderate exercise, and freedom from special care. When these conditions are attained, life that is worth nothing in some climates is renewed and maintained there. But where almost every square league has individual characteristics, it is absurd for an invalid to settle thoughtlessly anywhere south of Point Conception, assured that the whole region is a terrestrial paradise.

Southern California is a paradise, but not a paradise for fools; and neither the glories of the sky nor the splendors of the ocean can replace judgment. With the exercise of judgment and the possession of some capital, a tranquil, happy, and prolonged life may be expected in suitable cases. As mere description, regardless of any utilitarian question, the little volume charmingly sets forth the advantages and honestly states the disadvantages of that unique country. As a guide-book for the chronic invalid, it makes the way plain. The last two chapters, on those who are and those who are not benefited by the climate, are eminently serviceable.

The Literary Movement in France during the Nineteenth Century. By Georges Pellissier. Authorized English Version, by Anne Garrison Brinton. With general introduction. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

M. Pellissier's volume, soon after its appearance in 1889, called forth from the pen of M. Brunetière another treatise on the same subject, covering a large part of his volume, 'Nouvelles Questions de Critique.' Emphasizing the influence of writers whom the younger critic had underrated (Voltaire, Buffon), abating the overestimated importance of others (Diderot, Chénier), supplying additional causes for the rise or decline of the classic, romantic, realistic, and naturalistic schools, criticising points of detail, rarely advancing views radically different from M. Pellissier's (as in the case of 'Madame Bovary')—M. Brunetière's essay forms an important supplement to the larger work of M. Pellissier, while at the same time showing its real value.

To welcome in its first English version M. Pellissier's philosophical study of the successive phases of French literature in the present century, appearing, as it does, in a garb most attractive by its combined elegance and good taste, would be as pleasant a task as could fall to the reviewer's lot. In these times of university extension movements, Chautauqua reading circles, and ladies' literary clubs, there is need of English editions of just such serious books as the present one. It is, therefore, to our sincere regret that we feel compelled to characterize the translator's performance as quite inadequate. A few specimens will suffice to bear us out in this summary judgment.

The very first sentences of the Introduction (which is lacking in lucidity), purporting to be translated from Brunetière, read: "M. G. Pellissier's *Mouvement Littéraire au XIXe siècle* is no less the picture than the history of contemporary French literature. In addition, it is also the philosophy, or rather describes the evolution of the literary movement of our century." In truth, Brunetière says, in substance: "M. P. has given us in his book neither a picture nor the history of the literary movement in the nineteenth century, . . . but rather its philosophy, or, still better, its evolution" ('Nouvelles Questions de Critique,' p. 153). Pellissier writes (p. 7, edition of 1889): "Le XVIIe siècle ne saisit par mieux Homère que Pindare. Ce qu'on [that is, the writers of the 17th century] lui reproche, c'est justement ce que nous goûtons le plus dans son épopée." The second clause, in the English version, reads (p. 9): "What *we miss in them* is exactly what we like best . . . ," and so the translator continues through several sentences, attributing to us moderns the literary judgment and taste of the French 17th century critics. On page 13, "On passe son amour conjugal à Andromaque parcequ'Hector n'est plus" is rendered: "Conjugal affection is passed over to A.," where it should be "forgiven," "condoned." Page 16, "When poets rhyme about old age, about the Psalms, etc.," should be: "If many poets, as old age approaches [*sur leur vieillesse*], put in rhyme the Psalms," etc.

Among unwarranted omissions of words and phrases we notice: Page 10, line 3 from bottom, after "His distinctive characteristics are perfect manners," the English for "une mesure exquise" is left out; p. 12, l. 22, "la risée des honnêtes gens" is translated simply by "ridicule"; p. 13, l. 11, after "protects himself" the phrase "par une jalouse étiquette" is omitted in the translation. At other times, words are added by the translator which slightly, or even seriously, affect the meaning; thus, p. 15, in "for she has no secrets for them," the conjunction is wanting in the original; p. 17, l. 1, there is no reason why "et" should be translated by "moreover," beginning a new sentence. On p. 12, l. 8, "whenever" should be "even when" (*lors même que*); p. 15, l. 21, "in effect" is given for "en effet"; p. 16, l. 19, "So also is he" does not render "Aussi resta-t-il"; nor (in the last line) is "also that Athalie" the equivalent of "et, quant à Athalie." We further call attention to such slips as "the careful *arrangement* of contiguous propositions *announce* and *lead* up to" (p. 17), and to constructions like this: "This reason, upon which Racine congratulates Corneille for having been the first to place on the stage, upon which Voltaire will, in turn, commend Bourdaloue for having been the first to preach from the pulpit, Perrault carries into fairy tales, and is also exacted by Boileau from the *chanson*" (p. 18).

These quotations do not exhaust the defects to be found in the first chapter of twenty-one pages. A cursory examination of the remaining portions of the volume does not disclose any essentially superior skill or care in translation. It remains to be said, however, that, in spite of its many errors, the book will furnish to English readers the best means available for gaining an insight into the nature and relations of the principal currents of modern French literature. There are passages in which the *traduttore* will prove to be a *traditore*, but in the majority of cases the mistakes are not serious enough to falsify the meaning of the original. And as to the style, it is generally fluent, and felicitous renderings are not rare.

Student's Dictionary of Anglo-Saxon. By Henry Sweet. Macmillan.

The condition of Anglo-Saxon lexicography is "a curse, an hissing, and a reproach." Bosworth is so bad that a distinguished German philologist has been known to congratulate himself, in print, on not possessing it. Ettmüller is both tormenting and obsolete. Bosworth-Toller is neither fish nor flesh, and, though indispensable, has called forth more just wrath from the long-suffering student than any other book of its inches. Besides, Bosworth-Toller seems to be hopelessly stuck in the letter S. Clark-Hall is useful, but dreadfully inaccurate. Grein alone can be consulted with comfort and satisfaction, and the advance of knowledge has made a thorough revision of even Grein devoutly to be hoped for. At this juncture Dr. Henry Sweet offers us a 'Student's Dictionary of Anglo-Saxon,' which is very welcome, like everything which Dr. Sweet writes, but which, after all, excites feelings rather of regret than of gratulation. What the world wants of Dr. Sweet is not a two-hundred-page dictionary, but a thesaurus. It was somebody's plain duty years ago to set Dr. Sweet at a great Anglo-Saxon dictionary. Instead, Prof. Toller was bidden to complete Bosworth, and then Dr. Sweet was asked to prepare an abridgment! However, it is too late to find fault with the Delegates of the Clarendon Press, if, indeed, they are to blame. We are ready to make the best of that queer conglomerate, Bosworth-Toller—if only the Press will give us the long-deferred last part—and to extend to Dr. Sweet's little book, which will be enormously useful, the greeting it deserves.

Like all of Dr. Sweet's books, however, this Student's Dictionary is rather hard to use. He has devised a most ingenious system of condensation, and, as a result, he has packed more into this smallish volume than most lexicographers would have got into a book of double its size. But it takes some time to learn his conventions, and one would willingly pay half a dollar more and have less trouble. Of the scholarship of the book it is unnecessary to speak: Dr. Sweet's name is surety enough. Yet we could wish more attention had been paid to the poetical texts, and in particular to the recent critical studies to which many of them have been subjected. Such attention would have modified a considerable number of the articles.

The dictionary, though sold at a low price, is well printed and far from unsightly; but the paper, we regret to observe, will not take ink.

On Veldt and Farm. By Frances Macnab. Edward Arnold. 1897.

The first impression one gets of this work is unfavorable. We see that the writer has merely travelled about South Africa, picking up miscellaneous information which, with little attempt to weigh it, she imparts to the public. Whereas her views on many questions are the undigested partisan ones of the people with whom she came most in contact, she abounds in lofty counsel and thin generalization. In politics, of course, she echoes the usual complaints of colonists against the home Government, without showing any grasp of the difficulties of the subject; she continually attacks the Boers (if she knew Dutch she might have heard a little more of their side of the case), she warmly admires Cecil Rhodes, and she indulges in such stuff as "the Pharaoh of Pretoria with the usual near-sightedness of a mere tyrant," and "It is impossible to believe that Paul Krüger is anxious, as he pretends to be, to promote the true interests of South Africa." In short, it is the complacent shallowness of the ordinary rambling journalist, unconvincing to any one who does not agree with her already. The style, too, is commonplace and frequently trivial.

However, as we get on, we admit that the volume contains a good deal of scrappy information about a country which is exciting

much interest at the present day. We may not trust the author, but she does seem to mean well, striving to describe the various resources of South Africa and what may be hoped from them, with a measure of success, and in a tone that improves as she gets away from politics. She is, in the main, enthusiastic about the country, but the reader cannot help being struck with its drawbacks, even over and above those common to all new regions.

"South Africa is the land of variety and of sudden, sharp contrasts. This is exemplified, not merely in the sphere of humanity by the black and white races, or by the phlegmatic, mediæval Boer and the *fin-de-siècle* civil engineer, but the climate possesses the same peculiarity. If one day is unearthly in loveliness and serenity, the next is certain to be visited with that unparalleled curse—a dust-storm. Then, when it rains it is a deluge, and the land is swept by rivers which yesterday did not exist. When the plague of floods subsides, a wind follows, and the appalling plague of thirst. It is a land where grasses are so rich that cattle grow fat in the open veldt. But the scourge of mysterious diseases afflicts them, and they drag paralyzed limbs and emaciated bodies through acres of rich pasture."

The farmer finds it hard to prosper permanently under such circumstances. Then, too, in spite of irrigation, most of the land does not seem well suited to wheat, which "is not a successful crop in Africa generally, and it is open to doubt whether, under the most improved methods, it may be possible to grow sufficient for the colony's consumption." Wine-growing has not been very prosperous of recent years, any more than ostrich farming; still, "There are few features in South Africa which it is more agreeable to dwell upon than Drakenstein hock, and certainly none which has about it greater appearance of an immense success in the immediate future." Unluckily, several countries in these days have golden dreams of making and exporting wines, for which the demand is by no means unlimited. The author speaks of mining only incidentally, being evidently much more interested in agriculture. We may leave it to those whom it concerns to appraise the value of the advice she offers to all sorts of intending settlers.

In conclusion, the publisher deserves thanks for giving us a volume so easy to hold as the present one. We hope that the example will be generally followed, for good print and paper need not mean, as they so often do, a disagreeable weight in the hand.

An Illustrated Flora of the Northern United States, Canada, and the British Possessions, from Newfoundland to the Parallel of the Southern Boundary of Virginia, and from the Atlantic Ocean westward to the 102d Meridian. By Nathaniel Lord Britton, Ph.D., Emeritus Professor of Botany in Columbia University, and Director in Chief of the New York Botanical Garden, and Hon. Addison Brown, President of the Torrey Botanical Club. The descriptive text chiefly prepared by Professor Britton, with the assistance of specialists in several groups; the figures also drawn under his supervision. In three volumes. Vol. II. Portulacaceæ to Menyanthaceæ. Portulaca to Buckbean. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1897.

This, the second, volume of a treatise already noticed in our pages, fully keeps the promise of the first. The typographical execution is, in all respects, as good, and the illustrations are as profuse. In some instances, the engravings strike us as better than their predecessors; the contrasting characters having been selected with greater care, and depicted with greater emphasis. Concerning the nomenclature and the subdividing of orders, genera, and species, largely matters of judgment, we are not wholly in accord with the treatise, and we believe that many of the decisions in the work will not stand the test of time; but these questions are too technical to interest our readers. Therefore, we shall content ourselves with a reiterated general protest against what appears to us to be precipitate and unwise action, which will by and by require a retracing of the steps. We cannot avoid the conviction that a more conservative course, both in regard to names and to ultimate divisions under genera, would have increased the permanent value of the work.

The arrangement of orders is, as we have noticed before, that of the lamented Eichler, adopted and largely modified by his successor Engler and associates. At least three arrangements, based essentially on Eichler's suggestions, are now in print. The one here chosen is on some accounts the best for present use, and we are glad it has been employed. That great changes in classification are impending, there can be little doubt; each system is an attempt to accomplish an impossible task, namely, to represent in terms of one dimension innumerable relations in space and time. Hanstein, one of the most gifted botanical philosophers, endeavored to construct in a new fashion the family tree of plants, and, in so doing, revealed to his contemporaries relations which had hardly before been suspected. The privately printed sketch which he placed in the hands of his pupils has been valued as a revelation, and has had much to do with the present attitude of systematic botany in Germany. The adoption of one of the stimulating systems which have grown out of Hanstein's and of Eichler's study, will certainly be of service here, and we approve this heartily. The juxtapositions of orders seem sometimes unnatural, but they are, for the most part, founded on dominant relations which ought to come out clearly.

There are two other matters which, though on a different plane, deserve hearty commendation, namely, the care which has been given to accentuation and to trivial names. There is likely to be criticism enough, and to spare, in relation to the general questions of specific names and treatment; but the fact should be kept clearly in mind that the authors have given botanists a treatise of exceptionally attractive appearance at a marvellously low price. Even without accepting the questionable specific names and without adopting the splintering policy in the management of genera, the work can be of convenience to every active amateur and professional botanist.

A Glossary of Indian Terms. By G. Temple. London: Luzac & Co. 1897. Royal 8vo, pp. 332.

This work may prove helpful in several ways, not merely to the specialist in the field of Eastern research, but also to general readers of literature, the works of Rudyard Kipling, and of such authors as lay their scenes in India. Students of Oriental travel may find something serviceable in its pages; and those who are engaged in trade with the East Indies might occasionally turn to the volume with profit if it were on the office shelf. To a young Englishman going into the civil service, one might conceive of such a book's becoming indispensable. In short, the glossary comprises terms relating to "religion, customs, government, land, and other terms and words in common use."

A glance at the definitions under such entries as "rupīya" (rupee, coin), "Ramazān" (the Mohammedan Lenten season), "satī" (suttee, widow-burning), is instructive. One also finds that "Fars, Fārsi" (Persia, Persian), "Gabr" (fire-worshipper), "Dozakh" (hell) are included; but "Dakhma" (Tower of Silence) seems to be missing among Perso-Indian terms that have grown familiar from the Parsis of Bombay. Some cross-references might have been added with advantage; the reader, for example, must look for "Juggernāth" (Jagannāth) under Rath-jātra (festival of the procession of the car). The specialist may notice several points for slight correction, and then he will join with others in thanking author and publishers for producing a book which is of use.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

About, Edmond. L'Oncle et le Neveu. W. R. Jenkins. 25c.
Archibald, Douglas. The Story of the Earth's Atmosphere. Appletons.
Bailey, L. H. The Principles of Fruit-Growing. Macmillan. $1.25.
Balzac, H. de. A Distinguished Provincial at Paris. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Banta, T. M. Year Book of the Holland Society of New York. 1897. Knickerbocker Press.
Belloc, Bessie R. A Passing World. London: Ward & Downey.
Bertheroy, Jean. Les Trois Filles de Pieter Waldorp. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Brisson, Adolphe. Portraits Intimes. 3me Série. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Browne, Irving. In the Track of the Bookworm. East Aurora, N. Y.: Roycroft Printing Shop.
Bruce, M. W. Alaska: History and Resources. Seattle: Lowman & Hanford. 75c.
Clever Tales. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.25.
Colton, Julia M. Annals of Switzerland. London: Hodder & Stoughton; New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.25.
Crawford, J. J. The Negotiable Instruments Law. Baker, Voorhis & Co. $1.75.
Cowell, Prof. E. B. The Jataka; or, Stories of the Buddha's Former Births. Vol III. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Duniway, C. A. Graduate Courses. 1897-98. Macmillan. 25c.
Farina, Salvatore. Fra le Corde di un Contrabasso. W. R. Jenkins. 35c.
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Goffic, Charles le. Sur la Côte. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Griffin, A. P. C. A Catalogue of the Washington Collection in the Boston Athenæum. Boston: The Boston Athenæum.
Gudeman, Prof. Alfred. Outlines of the History of Classical Philology. 3d ed., revised and enlarged. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Harrington, C. L. Physics for Grammar Schools. American Book Co. 50c.
Harrison, Mrs. Burton. A Son of the Old Dominion. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.50.
Hay, John. Speech at the Unveiling of the Bust of Sir Walter Scott. John Lane. 35c.
Henderson, Prof. C. R. The Social Spirit of America. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent.
Hill, G. F. Sources for Greek History between the Persian and Peloponnesian Wars. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Hodge, Rev. J. A. The Ruling Elder at Work. Randolph. 75c.
Johnston, R. M. Old Times in Middle Georgia. Macmillan. $1.50.
Mathews, F. S. Familiar Features of the Roadside. D. Appleton & Co. $1.75.
McFarland, James. Miscellaneous Poems. New York: W. C. Parker.
Mérimée, Prosper. Letters to an Unknown. Brentanos. $1.25.
Montefiore, Arthur. Leaders into Unknown Lands: Being Chapters of Recent Travel. Whittaker. $1.25.
Murray, J. A. H. A New English Dictionary. Doom—Dziggetai (Vol. III.). Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Pellison, Maurice. Roman Life in Pliny's Time. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent.
Powers, Laura B. The Missions of California. San Francisco: William Doxey.
Reid, G. A. The Present Evolution of Man. London: Chapman & Hall.
Richard, Marie E. The Country Charge. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society. 75c.
Richard, Marie E. Philip Jacob Spener and His Work. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society. 40c.

Russell, W. C. A Noble Haul. New Amsterdam Book Co. 50c.
Savage, R. A. Miss Devereux of the Mariquita. Rand, McNally & Co. 25c.
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Singer, Ignatius, and Berens, L. H. Some Unrecognized Laws of Nature: An Inquiry into the Causes of Physical Phenomena, with Special Reference to Gravitation. Appletons. $2.50.
Stubbs, William. Registrum Sacrum Anglicanum. 2d ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Sturgis, Julian. The Folly of Pen Harrington. Appletons. $1.
Thatcher, O. J. A Short History of Mediæval Europe. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent.
"The Book Buyer." Vol. XIV. Feb.-July, 1897. Scribners.
The Encyclopædia of Sport. Parts II., III., and IV. Putnams. Each $1.
The Quest of the Gilt-Edged Girl. [Bodley Booklets.] John Lane. 35c.
Thwaites, R. G. The Jesuit Relations. Vol. VII., Quebec, Hurons, Cape Breton: 1634-1635. Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co.
Two Women Who Posed. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co. 25c.
Walker, Hugh. The Merry Devil of Edmonton. [Temple Dramatists.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. 45c.
Warren, Kate M. Spenser's Faerie Queene. Book I. London: Constable; New York: Macmillan. 50c.
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Weichart, C. Pompeii vor der Zerstoerung. Leipzig: K. F. Koehler; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 12, 1897.

The Week.

The Sound-Money Democrats of Ohio will follow the example set by their brethren in Michigan, Iowa, and Kentucky. The State central committee of the National Democracy held a meeting on Thursday, and appointed a convention at Columbus next month to nominate a full State ticket. The committee were unanimous in this decision, and it will be heartily endorsed by Democrats of the same faith throughout the country. A standard ought to be raised in every State where an election is to be held which will rally voters who cannot accept the platform of either Republicans or Bryanites. The National Democrats of Ohio can "stand up and be counted" for a State ticket, with perfect assurance that such action will prove for the public good. As regards legislative tickets, the question in each district will be one for the independent voter to decide according to local conditions, and it may be taken for granted that he will nowhere contribute to the election to the Senate of a man so bitterly opposed to the sound-money cause as must be any Senator who should be chosen by a Bryanite Legislature.

The Iowa campaign has already progressed far enough to show that successful fusion between the Bryan Democrats and the Populists is impossible. It was much against their will that a large proportion of the Populists throughout the country supported the Democratic Presidential ticket last year, and a significant number refused to swallow Sewall, 15,181 ballots being cast for Bryan and Watson in Massachusetts, for example, as against 90,530 for Bryan and Sewall. The "Middle-of-the-Road" men of 1896 have received accessions in 1897, and in Iowa five of the eleven members of the Populist State central committee have declared against supporting the fusion ticket put in the field a few weeks ago by the Bryan Democrats, the Silver Republicans, and the Populists, who held conventions at the same time. These leaders evidently find much following among the rank and file, for we observe that in two Populist county conventions held in one day recently there were splits on the question of fusion, a large majority in one case opposing any further union with the Bryan Democrats. Only a few States hold elections this year, so that the sentiment of the Populists regarding fusion cannot be generally expressed; but there is no doubt that like causes must produce like results everywhere in the Congressional elections of next year. The Chicago platform never satisfied the thoroughgoing Populist; free coinage at 16 to 1 was well enough in his view, but it was a mere trifle compared with what he really wanted in the way of "financial reform." Moreover, the honest member of this party has no more faith in Democracy than in Republicanism, and is as loath to boost into office one set of politicians as the other. The attempt of the fusionists to stay the stampede in Iowa does not succeed because, when they warn the come-outers that such action will help the Republican party, the "Middle-of-the-Road" men reply that the other course will help the Democratic, and they would as soon assist one of these equally objectionable organizations as the other. It is already evident that the fusion game can never again be played on so large and successful a scale as in the national canvass of last year.

The election in Tennessee on Thursday was a fresh illustration of the difficulty so often experienced in interesting voters in what are really the most important of all questions—as to the kind of constitution under which they shall live. For more than a quarter of a century that State has gone on under a constitution which was framed in the stormy times of the reconstruction period, and which has come to be the shelter of gross abuses. The necessity of radical changes has been recognized by progressive citizens for years, but long agitation was required before the Legislature could be induced even to submit to the people the question whether a convention should be called to frame a new constitution. Thursday was the time set for the decision, and the result shows that the advocates of reform had not appreciated the degree of inertia to be overcome in their conservative community, for the vote was the lightest polled in the State for a generation, and the proposition for a convention was overwhelmingly defeated.

The press was furnished last week with what purported to be literal extracts from the injunction against the striking miners obtained from the United States Court in West Virginia. According to these extracts the prohibitions were nearly as extensive as those of a mediæval statute against treason. The miners were enjoined from interfering "by word or deed" with the affairs of a coal company, and might as well have been forbidden altogether to imagine any mischief against it. But if we may depend upon the accuracy of a copy of the injunction which was published on Monday by the New York *Sun*, what the court orders Debs and his companions to refrain from is interference with the operation of a coal-mine by menaces, threats, and other intimidation directed against the miners employed therein, especially while they are going to or from the mine. There is no prohibition of meetings in the public highways; it is the paths and roads on the property of the coal company which are to be kept clear. There is no general injunction against trespassing, but a particular warning not to enter on the property of the coal company for the purpose of interfering with or intimidating its employees, or of holding meetings to induce them to quit their work. The injunction does not even forbid urging the miners to strike, but only the "unlawfully" inciting them to do so. While it is evident that the police ought to prevent all the acts enjoined without any action by the courts, it is equally evident that no natural or constitutional right is menaced by such an injunction as seems to have been actually issued.

Perhaps the most noteworthy thing about the coal-miners' strike is the orderly way in which it has been conducted. It is now more than a month old and involves thousands of miners in four or five States; yet, except for an occasional and isolated act of violence, the efforts of the leaders to keep the peace and respect public order have been remarkably successful. We doubt if so prolonged a strike, on so large a scale, ever before occurred in this country without producing more public disturbance—assaults and rioting. This is the more notable in that the strikers have had the open sympathy of the Governors of West Virginia and Illinois—Republicans both. It has been as good as intimated to the strikers that the military power of those States would be used against them only in case of dire necessity. But no such necessity has arisen, and everybody must hope it will not. The leaders of the men have learned the great lesson that public sympathy for them, however keen, will speedily be alienated by public disorder. This is a teaching of the events of the summer of 1894, in connection with the great railroad strike, which laboring men have apparently taken to heart. It is a great gain every way. Whether the strikers win or lose, they have, so far, managed their strike in the way to convince the public that they value the orderly administration of the law.

The latest Hawaiian rumors would seem incredible if any rumor about the

foreign policy of the present administration could longer seem incredible. It appears most unlikely that, with a treaty of annexation pending, the President should decide to annex by the short and easy method of running up the flag; but the treaty of annexation itself appeared most unlikely, after what Mr. McKinley had said of it in public and private. The reasons alleged for declaring a "protectorate" at this time are preposterous; unless the American flag is hoisted, it is said, the islands will not be able to maintain themselves against Japan while awaiting the slow process of annexation by treaty. But Japan has formally and explicitly declared that she has no hostile designs upon Hawaii. The only question between them is a claim for indemnity arising out of the refusal to allow Japanese immigrants to land in Honolulu, and that question has been submitted to arbitration. If annexation by ship and gun and flag has been determined upon, it is only because the men whose personal interests are at stake have come to believe that annexation by treaty cannot be secured. They argue that the flag once up will never be pulled down, treaty or no treaty. All this is conjecture, of course, and there may be nothing whatever in the rumors. They would be dismissed as wildly improbable had not the vacillating conduct of our foreign affairs during the past five months prepared us to believe anything. "Nothing is impossible on Bunker Hill," said Webster; and nothing is impossible to a diplomacy which has tricked the Japanese Minister and written the Sherman despatch about the seals.

What dreadful people those Canadians are in the matter of tariffs, when they propose to collect duties on the provisions and outfit of miners going into their territory. Why don't they take pattern from us when they pass their tariff bills and allow $100 worth of such truck to come in free? An idea seems to prevail in some quarters that our will is law on this continent—an idea somewhat hastily thrown out by ex-Secretary Olney—and hence that Canada ought to square her ideas of protection to home industry by ours, or rather ought to abandon them altogether as regards gold-miners. The business men of Seattle seem to have this notion, and they want retaliation at once. But have we not retaliated sufficiently in the Dingley bill, by putting prohibitory duties on lumber, eggs, barley, fish, hay, and everything else we could think of to make the Canucks mad? It would be hard to see how we could do more. We might cut off the transit of Canadian goods in bond, but that would deprive our own railways of the business of carrying the goods. Great is protection, when you have it all your own way.

We have had occasion to refer before this to the unprecedented increase in this country's exports of manufactured goods. In the calendar year 1896, it will be remembered, the total of such exports showed an increase of $52,534,864 over 1895, or more than 25 per cent. The Bureau of Statistics has now compiled the record of manufactured exports for the twelve months ending June 30, 1897, comprising the fiscal year, and the record is even more remarkable. During these twelve months, aggregate exports of manufactured goods have risen to $276,357,861, against $228,571,178 in the same months of the year preceding, $183,595,743 in the fiscal year 1895, and only $151,102,376 in 1890. Moreover, this increase has been continuous throughout the last twelve months. During the six months beginning last January, manufactured exports increased nearly $23,000,000 over the same six months of 1896, and $50,000,000 over 1895. The importance of these growing exports of manufactures, during the fiscal year 1897, may be judged from the fact that, enormous as our shipment of cereals has been during the same twelve months, the manufactured exports exceeded the value of outgoing breadstuffs by $76,000,000, whereas in the corresponding period ending with June, 1892, breadstuffs exports ran beyond the shipment of manufactures by $141,000,000. In short, the manufactured exports of the fiscal year 1897 made up nearly 27 per cent. of the largest total export trade in the history of the United States.

Mr. Mulhall's review of the commerce of the last twenty years, which appears in the *Contemporary* for August, contains figures of stupendous magnitude. The year 1896 was, he says, the *annus mirabilis* of British trade, the value of exports and imports exceeding all previous records. Moreover, in spite of the alarm expressed concerning foreign competition, British trade amounted to 37 per cent. of that of the world, as compared with 36 per cent. in the year 1876. So far as values are concerned, the increase is not very striking. Taking the values of exports from the United Kingdom and of imports retained for consumption therein, their sum was in 1876 about £520,000,000, in 1886 only £506,000,000, and in 1896 nearly £625,000,000. But there has been an enormous cheapening of production and consequent fall in prices during these twenty years. If we consider quantities rather than values—and quantities are what we should look to in estimating the real wealth of a people—we find that the actual volume of this trade has increased 88 per cent. since 1876, or four times as much as population. In other words, had the prices of 1876 prevailed, the trade of 1896 would have been valued at £975,000,000 instead of two-thirds of that sum.

The Philadelphia *Ledger* learns that "the advocates of international bimetallism in Washington are much disturbed by the news from London that the British Government is not prepared at the present time to answer, favorably or unfavorably, the request that it should participate in an international conference to be called by the United States." The names of these disappointed persons are not given. Evidently they do not include any Bryanites of prominence, for the same paper says that the prospective failure of the negotiation gives the free-coinage men much pleasure. They must be very happily constituted if they can derive pleasure from anything just now. The whole world seems to be going against them. Senator Stewart has been roused from torpor by the recently published statistics of gold production by Mr. Preston, the Director of the Mint. The statistics he pronounces false and wicked. As to Preston's opinion that Mexico cannot pay the interest on her foreign debt if she maintains her silver standard, Stewart says that is all bosh, because Mexico pays the interest on her foreign debt with her products, and these products bring just as much gold in foreign countries as ever. Her coffee, her tobacco, her dyestuffs, her mahogany, and everything except her silver sell at as high prices as before. Yes, but she does not collect her taxes in coffee, tobacco, and dyestuffs, but in silver, and she pays the interest on her foreign debt with the proceeds of her taxes. Stewart naturally concludes that Preston is "recreant to his duty and an enemy of his country."

We presume that the bimetallists will indulge in some jubilation over the report of the minority of the British Royal Commission on Agriculture. Headed by Mr. Henry Chaplin, this minority declares that depression in agriculture is wholly due to the demonetization of silver; in proof of which they point out the particular severity of the depression in the United States. Of course the only remedy is the abandonment of the gold standard. It is somewhat unfortunate for Mr. Chaplin and his bimetallic friends, however, that their minority report was not filed a year or two ago. Coming as it now does on the heels of the 26 cents per bushel rise in wheat, the recovery of enterprise throughout our farming regions, and the daily sales of a good wheat crop by English farmers at equally high prices, the bimetallic report has a far-away sound which falls curiously on the ear.

Mr. Chaplin is, in fact, a very unlucky

prophet, a fact which his associates on the Agricultural Commission ought to have remembered. In the early spring of 1879, this same acute observer unfolded to Parliament the true cause of the depression in English agriculture. It was not due then to silver demonetization—that is one of Mr. Chaplin's more recent fads. It was occasioned wholly by the abandonment of high protective tariffs on grain, both by Great Britain and by its grain-producing neighbors. Until these high taxes were restored, Mr. Chaplin proceeded, low prices for wheat would rule. But the time for uttering this prophecy was as ill chosen in 1879 as in 1897. Within eight months of Mr. Chaplin's analysis of the situation, wheat had advanced some 50 cents a bushel in exporting countries, and England was only too happy, demonetization or no demonetization, to pay the price. It was an unforeseen deficiency, Mr. Chaplin's friends will answer, which turned the grain markets at the moment of his prophecies. Yes; the bimetallist is very willing to talk of unforeseen deficiencies in 1879 and 1897; but does anybody ever hear him speak of the huge unforeseen surplus product of 1878 and 1894?

It appears to have been assumed all along that England would join in a bimetallic conference on the basis of restoring the free coinage of silver in India and carrying a certain amount of that metal in the Bank's reserves. The authority for this assumption was the *National Review*, which, it now appears, was not charged with the task of declaring the policy of the Salisbury ministry. That task was assigned to Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, who said, when his opinion was asked, that her Majesty's Government could not give a decisive answer till October, because it was necessary to consult the Government of India on the subject. What shall we say to that? Is it not a subterfuge? Do we not know that England has absolute power over India and can change her coinage system every day in the week if she likes? What nonsense, then, to talk about waiting till October! How absurd to talk about consulting the Government of India! The Government of India, to all intents and purposes, is situated in Downing Street. Evidently there is a deep-laid scheme here, for we find that France immediately shows signs of weakness, and asks to be "counted out" altogether unless England joins. Meanwhile, our special commissioners are going to try their luck at Berlin and St. Petersburg, with dubious prospects in both.

The replies of the British colonies to Mr. Chamberlain's request for information as to the extent to which foreign imports are displacing those from England are in the usual vein of such communications. The foreigners are "making steady inroads." The English merchants do not consult the taste of their customers. German and American competitors furnish cheaper goods of improved finish, and threaten to capture the entire trade in certain articles. Of course these replies are just what Mr. Chamberlain wanted in order to lay the foundation for his imperial customs union, but Sir Wilfrid Laurier and Mr. Reid, the Premier of New South Wales, have upset the scheme. As a matter of fact these "foreign inroads" are a mere figment of the imagination. The gross returns of British trade prove that it is well maintained with her own colonies as well as with much of the rest of the world. Indeed, her colonial trade exhibits in some lines a wonderful development. Tea is associated in our minds with China, but a correspondent of the London *Times* calls attention to the prodigious advances that have taken place in the cultivation of the tea plant in the British possessions. So recently as 1868 China supplied England with about 100,000,000 pounds, while India sent 7,000,000 pounds. In 1896 England imported 227,000,000 pounds of tea, of which 24,000,000 pounds came from China, and the rest from India and Ceylon. This does not indicate that England's colonial trade is in a state of decay.

The Queen's speech proroguing Parliament makes no mention of the Bering Sea question, the Hawaiian question, the bimetallic conference, the Alaska boundary, the Klondike mines, the Hon. John W. Foster, the Hon. Whitelaw Reid, Senator Wolcott, or of the United States as a whole. It refers to Greece, Turkey, Belgium, Germany, China, and King Menelek. Is not this an intentional slight? May it not be the British way of answering the "shirt-sleeves despatch"? Should it not be considered a *casus belli?* We think that an explanation should be demanded at once, and that a time limit should be put upon the answer. Lord Salisbury has an exasperating way of dilly-dallying about matters involving our dignity. Ex-Secretary Olney can tell something about that. Salisbury should be asked whether the omission of all reference to the United States in the Queen's speech was intended as an affront. If he says that it was, or if he refuses to answer, then let war be declared as soon as the Indiana can be got out of the Halifax dry-dock. We are glad to see that Secretary Sherman, old as he is, stands ready, like Sir Peter Teazle, for every emergency. He is quoted in one morning paper as saying that "England quarrels oftener than she fights." That is so much like the shirt-sleeves despatch that its authenticity can hardly be doubted. The same newspaper quotes Mr. Foster as saying that he did not write the shirt-sleeves despatch and did not connive at its publication. Really our foreign affairs are getting into a deplorable state, and we see no way to rehabilitate them but by a little blood-letting. If the Hon. Theodore Roosevelt were Secretary of State, he would find the proper remedy.

The capture of Abu Hammed by the Anglo-Egyptian expedition completes another stage of the march to Khartum. The movement is slow but sure, and the overthrow of the Khalifa can be counted upon as absolutely certain. If it is of any use to "avenge Gordon," he will be avenged in due time. What is of use is the restoration of the Sudan to the influences of civilization, and the breaking of a tyranny, one of the most cruel and blighting that the world has ever known. Every step taken by the expeditionary force up the Nile is an additional reason why England should not abandon Egypt, and the public opinion of Europe will sustain her in retaining her hold upon it even though jealousy may linger in France and Germany. Abu Hammed is about equidistant with Khartum from the mouth of the Atbara, and controls a long stretch of navigable water.

Spain is still able to borrow money, as is shown by the success of her recent Philippine loan, subscribed for five times over. But the rebellion, insurrection, or whatever it is to be called, in the Philippine Islands drags along as discouragingly as does the Cuban revolt. An instructive article in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for July 15, by M. Charles Benoist, lets in a great deal of light upon the Philippine difficulty, and upon Spanish politics in general. The great part still played in Spanish government by ecclesiastics is suggested by two incidents: four monks sitting in the Prime Minister's ante-chamber, and announcing that they had been invited by Cánovas to "talk over the political situation"; and a bishop entering the palace, summoned by the Queen, while grandees, generals, and ladies of honor knelt before him. It is such things, as M. Benoist says, that make one feel that the real Spain is still living in the sixteenth century. As far as foreign policy is concerned, this was admitted by a distinguished public man with whom the writer talked. "Without a break," said he, "we have for three hundred years tried to govern our colonies with monks and soldiers." This suggests the radical difficulty in all the talk about applying "reforms" to Cuba. The old Spanish idea of colonial government must first be reformed itself, and there are few signs that it has been. The condition of affairs both in Cuba and in the Philippines gives too much color to the depressing conclusion of M. Benoist: "The Spaniards have always known better how to fight and to die than to live and organize."

THE LOW PETITION.

The astonishing figures representing the number of signatures to the Low petition prove that, whatever may be the result of the coming election, the nominations for Mayor of New York are not likely to be managed in the future as they have been in the past. The body of voters demanding the nomination of Mr. Low, already reaching about 70,000, is as large as the genuine membership of the Republican machine, if not of Tammany Hall, while none of the smaller organizations can be mentioned in the same breath with it. We have always expressed the conviction that it would have this success, and indeed we may go further and say that for New York its ultimate triumph, as things stand, is as necessary as was the defeat of Bryan last year for the country at large. For everybody who has anything to lose, or cares about civilization, the election of a Platt Mayor, or of a Sheehan-Croker Mayor, or of a Platt-Sheehan-Croker Mayor, with a term of four years, in the commercial capital and principal city of the United States, would be an almost unendurable calamity. It would mean here a return for four years, if not longer, to barbarism, plunder, spoils, and blackmail, and at Albany a continuance of the carnival of deals, jobs, and steals, plunging the city continually into worse and worse disorder. But the Low movement, even at its present stage, is an assurance that no such future is before us. Every thousand signatures added to his petition makes it more and more impossible for his enemies to play the game they originally had intended. The Low petition is a loud and solemn warning that the voters of the city demand a man of established character and capacity, unfettered by pledges, and that, no matter who is put up, they will allow no other sort of man to be elected.

In this respect it differs from all similar previous movements. The movement against Tweed, for instance, was designed to eject a corrupt ring from power; the movement against the New Tammany had the same object in view. In neither case was the fact attended to that the nominating machinery left in existence would, if let alone, produce the old evils over again. But the Low petition represents a movement against the nominating machinery itself. It is a volunteer popular movement, not merely for a particular man, but to prevent the nomination by the machines of the type of man they want. It is a popular nomination, without a machine, of a candidate without a pledge—that is, it is the accomplishment under our eyes of that very impossible, unattainable thing which we have insisted, year in and year out, must be attained, if republican institutions were not to perish.

That a genuine popular nomination of this sort, in advance of any action by any regular political body, could be accomplished by a midsummer volunteer movement, is a phenomenon so novel in the history of New York and the country that we may be sure that it is significant of something much more important than the drift of a particular contest. Some critics can find in it only an exceptional effort made for an exceptional crisis—the election of the first Mayor under the charter of the enlarged city; but, unless we are mistaken, there is something in it more important than this—the undermining, in its citadel, of a rotten and outworn nominating system.

We have no word in our political vocabulary which corresponds to the old English "rotten borough," because we have not the thing. But we have in our nominating system a very similar product of corruption, for which we have invented the excellent word machine. Nominations are nominally made by a popularly chosen body known as a convention, but this convention is itself chosen in reality by small organized bodies of workers, who live in some way at the public expense, and whose paymaster, when they are not actually in office, is the boss, or treasurer of the whole corporation. In New York, and in Pennsylvania, and indeed in every rich, powerful community having a large city in it, he draws his funds either from blackmail or from the "voluntary contributions" of those who have a lively sense of gratitude for benefits which they expect him to confer, or dread of evils which they fear he may, if not appeased, inflict. There is nothing new, of course, in this description; what is new is that we are beginning to see clearly that it is chiefly through nominations to office that this machine exerts its power. Formerly the machine had great power, once in control, through the federal and State civil service; but this has been in great measure lost. The other day, when Mr. Bidwell was appointed Collector of this port, a tremendous to-do was made over it by Platt, because twenty years ago the collectorship was one of the keys to the control of the machine; but in reality most of the Collector's political power has vanished, through the application of civil-service reform to the custom-house. So when Black undertook to get hold of the State civil service, the plot was in a great measure defeated by the very heads of departments, who in former days would have been his tools. To-day the machine must continue in power through its control of elective offices, or it must disappear as a factor in politics.

We have become of late years so accustomed to machine nominations that we can hardly conceive of any other system. Yet the signs are many that the system is doomed, and the Low petition is one of them. That the system must disappear we have always believed, because it cannot be purified, and it is incompatible with free government. A machine with a boss at its head tends to absolutism and tyranny and the destruction of free speech and free thought in our system as inevitably as the old English rotten boroughs tended to produce the same results in the English parliamentary system a hundred years ago. All attempts to ameliorate it by exhortation of citizens to "attend the primaries," or by legislation to prevent corruption in the primaries, have broken down, and yet there is nothing more certain than that without good nominations to elective offices the whole government will ultimately become as rotten as the machines which call it into existence. No government can in the long run be any better than the men who carry it on; and our crying problem is how to get good men put up for election.

Our system of nominations, originally introduced as a democratic reform, has become in process of time essentially corrupt and tyrannical, leading to the domination of such creatures as Platt, Quay, and Gorman in the most intelligent and civilized communities in the country, and to such extraordinary phenomena as the capture of the whole machinery of a great national party in the interest of a sordid plot. Unless we are wrong in believing the United States to be a genuinely democratic country, this rotten system must be superseded by some new one that will give free play to the forces which underlie our civilization, and which on the whole make for improvement. What the new system will be, it is, of course, impossible to predict, but the Low petition shows one avenue of escape from machine rule, which will be hailed with delight.

HOW THEY DO IT IN FRANCE.

France, as protectionists of the classical school such as Carey and Greeley used to proclaim, was the first of European states to illustrate the theory of protection in a systematic manner. The legislation of Colbert was so well conceived as to furnish the basis of most subsequent customs acts; and while the French have had occasional lapses into something like free trade, they have as a rule maintained a protectionist policy. From the time when M. Thiers came in as President of the newly formed republic, this policy has prevailed in France without interruption and with increased intensity. No such revulsions have taken place there as occurred in this country in 1894, and we naturally turn to France for examples of the most perfect and complete development of protection so far produced. Such an example is furnished in the passage of the so-called *cadenas* (or padlock) bill.

This law provides that when any bill is presented by the Government to in-

crease the duty on corn, wine, cattle, or fresh meat, a decree shall be made applying the duty from the very next day. It further provides that the proceeds of such supplementary duties shall not become the property of the Treasury until the law has been enacted. If it fails to pass, the extra duties shall be returned to the importer who has paid them. What disposition the importer shall make of them after he gets them is not prescribed. He may keep them in his own pocket, or turn them over to the merchant who bought of him; but it is not probable that the consumer would get back the increased price that he paid.

This act has been criticised by such journals as the *Temps*, but the criticism is not important from the protectionist point of view. The *Temps* urges that whenever an increase of taxes is contemplated by the Government, it implies that this increase has been solicited by interested parties. The members of the Government are therefore in position to take advantage, and to allow interested parties to take advantage, of a decision to raise duties. This decision being immediately operative, those who know of its existence before it is announced to the public may make use of their knowledge by speculating for a rise in prices. The possibility of such demoralizing practices the *Temps* regards as constituting a grave objection to the law. In its judgment the increase of a duty should be the subject of open, careful, and prolonged discussion by the Chambers. The *cadenas* law it declares to be the *coup d'état* applied to customs administration.

The experience through which we have recently passed in this country shows that the *Temps* is misled by what Mr. Bagehot used to call the "literary theory" of government. We have no *cadenas*, but we have seen that the recent changes in our duties have not been arrived at as the result of open discussion in Congress. It would be hardly incorrect to say that they were not discussed at all in the House of Representatives, and the discussion in the Senate is not believed to have really had any influence on the rates as finally determined. In fact, the very contingencies regarded as deplorable by the *Temps* are thought to have been realized here. Members of the Legislature have been solicited by interested parties to establish certain increased duties, and the decision to adopt these duties has been reached secretly, so far as the public and even the greater part of the members of Congress are concerned. The evils of which the *Temps* complains are evidently not peculiar to such acts as the *cadenas*.

The proper contrast to be drawn is between the French plan and that suggested by Mr. Dingley of making the tariff retroactive. Under the French system a tariff goes into effect as soon as it is brought forward by the Government, and if the Government does not pass its bill the duties collected under it are refunded. There would be no "anticipatory importations" except by those importers who felt sure that a tariff was to be passed, and who knew what it was to be. Under the rejected Dingley plan, the importers would get their goods through the custom-house and sell them before the tariff was enacted, and then the Government would collect its duties as best it could. From a protectionist point of view there seems little question as to which plan is the most desirable. Let the "parties interested" agree with the leaders in Congress upon a satisfactory tariff, and then let the Treasury collect these rates from the very day the tariff is introduced. By this plan the Government would get more revenue, while the "parties interested," it is safe to say, would look out for themselves.

Considered as a means of retaliation, the *cadenas* law also compares favorably with the Dingley act. Under that act the President of the United States may enter into negotiations with countries exporting argols, wines, and spirits for "equivalent concessions" in the matter of duties, the concessions on our part being rather strictly limited. So the President is empowered to "secure reciprocal trade," by taking tea, coffee, and tonka beans off the free list when imported from countries that show a reluctance to reciprocate. But the powers of the French Government to raise duties are quite unrestricted, and under the new law they can be very promptly exercised. So far as immediate results are concerned, it is intimated that Mr. McKinley may be able to make some concessions to France which will relieve that country from the necessity of applying the *cadenas* law against us.

THE ASSASSINATION OF CÁNOVAS.

The first question which everybody is asking, in connection with the shocking news of the assassination of the Spanish Prime Minister, is, What will be the effect on the political situation in Spain? What, above all, will be the effect on Spanish international relations—on the Cuban rebellion, on the Philippine revolt? Those who know most about Spanish politics are most reserved in making predictions of any kind; but they are all agreed that the consequences of Cánovas's dastardly taking-off are certain to be grave, and may easily amount to a national disaster.

To begin with, Cánovas was the only man who could hold the Spanish Conservative party together. Even he could not do it perfectly. For some time there have been mutterings against his leadership, and Francisco Silvela, at the head of a small Conservative following, has been in open revolt. No one is in sight able to unite in his person the qualities which gave Cánovas his prestige. He had, in the first place, a peculiar claim to the confidence of the royal family, the restoration of the Bourbons in 1874 having been mainly his work. Thus he stood in an unusual way for the idea of stable government, which has come in Spain, on the confession of even Castelar, to be connected with the monarchy. In addition, Cánovas was a man of distinguished ability and high personal gifts. As an historian he had a deserved repute. As a philosophical writer on politics, and as a friend and patron of letters, he was a prominent figure in the literary life of contemporary Spain. His oratory was trenchant and precise beyond the use and wont of Spanish statesmen, who, for the most part, delight to disport themselves on the windy plains of Troy. Cánovas had thus an extraordinary personal and political authority, to which, as we say, no other Conservative public man—and no Liberal leader, not even Sagasta—can pretend.

Whether he was not, for his fame, happy in the opportunity of his death may be a subject hereafter debated. The gravity, the well-nigh desperation, of Spanish affairs, have been masked from the world by the indomitable energy and high spirit with which Cánovas has faced his thickening difficulties. His task has been one to daunt any heart but the stoutest. The drain and depression of fruitless war in Cuba and the Philippines have been added to discontent at home, to anarchist outrages and conspiracies, and, latterly, to the threat of another Carlist rising. The financial situation of the country has become critical in the extreme. If the statement of the British Foreign Office just given out is correct—and it cannot be very wide of the truth—the interest on the Spanish national debt now swallows up considerably more than half the national revenue. It seemed impossible, we say, for any man to stand up against such a beating storm of public peril, and Cánovas's assassination may have saved his name from being associated hereafter with a great national catastrophe instead of simply with a horrible crime.

Whatever political readjustment may follow in the Spanish government, it seems certain that the prosecution of the colonial wars will be greatly relaxed. Sagasta has openly opposed the policy of blood and iron in Cuba. So has Silvela; so did, the other day, Señor Moret. Even under Cánovas there had been an abatement of the fierce energy with which the suppression of the Cuban rebellion was at first undertaken. A different, a milder policy may be looked for; negotiations for Cuban independence may possibly be admitted after a time. If there were any way of retir-

ing without apparent disgrace, there can be little doubt that Spanish statesmen would eagerly adopt it. But all such speculations are of small account. When we see all calculations upset by such a bolt from the blue as the assassination of Cánovas, we are led to put less faith than ever in political prophecy.

But there is one aspect of the matter about which there can be no doubt. The mania for murdering public men is on the increase. Assassination as a political remedy is coming to be a favorite resort of desperate revolutionists or unbalanced minds. Cánovas was shot down not because he was Cánovas, but because he was Prime Minister of Spain. And there seems to be no efficient way of protecting public men against such dangers. The shrewdest detectives are at last eluded, the most vigilant police evaded. Precautions should, of course, be redoubled, but they will not insure the personal safety of conspicuous statesmen, who cannot all of them lead the life of the Czar of Russia. Public office of the higher grades will for some time at least have to be classed among the extra-hazardous callings.

But if political assassinations cannot be prevented, they can be shown to be futile and so effectively discredited and discouraged. They can be met with serenity, such as the President of the French Chamber displayed when the Anarchist bomb was flung from the gallery. The lurking reptiles can be shown that their fangs may strike but cannot frighten; that they may threaten but cannot disorganize society. Those responsible for the administration of law must make it clear that they are not to be swerved one inch from their course by panic fear. The situation undoubtedly calls for a new and high form of civic courage. Kings and presidents and prime ministers will have to cultivate the jaunty coolness shown by King Humbert, who simply shrugged his shoulders at the recent attempt to assassinate him, remarking that it was merely "one of the incidents of his profession." With civilization nerving itself against such shocks and determining to go on its way regardless of them; with men in conspicuous stations taking calm account of the new risk, the new-style political agitators by means of bomb and knife will at last get tired of going to death for nothing, and of dashing themselves in vain against a society immovably based on law and order.

THE INTERVIEW AS LITERATURE.

In the preface to his latest volume of 'Portraits Intimes,' which consist, as is well known, of "walks" and "evenings" and "dinners" with various celebrities, M. Adolphe Brisson makes a plea for the interview as a legitimate literary form. He admits its novelty. He is dimly aware of its American origin—though his historical account of its beginnings in the attempt of "M. Joseph Cullagh," "a convinced deist," to cover "M. Robert Ingersall" with confusion, has a strangely foreign air. But new and crude though the interview be, out of the Nazareth of American newspaperdom though it come, M. Brisson yet maintains that it deserves, or may deserve when perfected, to rank as a "genre littéraire." At any rate, as he says, in spite of all objections and opposition, the interview goes on its way; it has entered into our manners; it cannot be ignored; besides its practical utility, it has some striking qualities, even merits, from the point of view of literature.

In his analysis of the interview and the interviewer, M. Brisson has many things to say that show how the French practice is assimilated to the American; some that indicate how much the French have yet to learn from us in this art. Everybody will recognize, for example, the kind of interview which he describes as a "duel" between a reporter and a man unwilling to be interviewed. In this species, the adversaries take each other's measure, make feints with their swords (or pencils), and try to deceive each other. But this simply puts the interviewer on his mettle; if his victim will not speak, it merely imposes the duty to gather the truth from his gesture and expression, to guess at what is left unsaid, to surprise the secret thought. M. Brisson only hints at this in passing, and gives no examples. They could be supplied in abundance by any American. Senator Wolcott will say nothing, but his "smile" is a sufficient proof to the astute correspondent that England is about to abandon the gold standard. Platt refuses to be interviewed, but he looked greatly "depressed" as he came away from the Mayor's room, Governor's chamber, or White House, as the case may be, and the inference is plain that his man is not going to get it. These are but samples of the skill of the American interviewer in breaking down the fence of his adversary in the interview which is a duel. They do not do these things better in France.

The willing interview is pictured to the life by our Frenchman. We cannot do better than quote his account of it—particularly as it relates to an interview with a literary man. The literary interview has been having a great run in America, and some very pretty things have been done in that line. The method is accurately described by M. Brisson:

> "I remember a call I had to make upon one of our most charming writers. He had given me an appointment in the morning. When I arrived everything was ready. . . . He had taken the pains to write out for me a sketch of his life; he had added to it a list of his principal works, and of criticisms of them, generally favorable, taken from the leading reviews. Several flattering letters from Lamartine and Victor Hugo, some photographs, two or three unpublished pages, were included in the bundle which he forced upon me. And when I entered, as when I came away, he delivered himself of some exquisite phrases, which he took care to utter slowly, so as the better to engrave them on my memory, etc."

The prepared interview M. Brisson seems not to know. Chauncey M. Depew ought to explain it to him on his next trip abroad. It consists, as every cultivated American knows, in typewritten question and answer, all worked out by the person interviewed, and passed out entire to the lucky interviewer. It is a pity that M. Brisson is not acquainted with this form of the interview, as it would immensely strengthen his argument that it deserves a place in literature. In few other writings is there discernible so fine a play of the imagination. The information, the shrewdness, the intimate acquaintance with European politics attributed to the interviewer, in questions he did not ask, but which were printed as if he did, have often brought a smile to the face of the most melancholy reporter. There is deep literary art in this. So there is in the phrases scattered up and down the prepared interview—"Mr. Depew was reluctant to answer this question"; "Mr. Depew hesitated before replying"; "Mr. Depew reflected several minutes before saying," etc. When we know that all these realistic touches were dictated to Mr. Depew's stenographer, and clicked off on Mr. Depew's typewriter, our respect for the prepared interview, as a literary production, cannot but be greatly heightened.

Where our French authority will seem to experienced Americans weakest is in his account of the qualities which go to make up the successful interviewer. He intimates that a good fund of general knowledge is well-nigh indispensable. He even maintains that the interviewer must have "a certain delicacy which will suggest to him how far he may fairly go in his revelations, and what limits are imposed upon him by discretion." It is sufficient to say that either of these rules would put an end to nine-tenths of the interviewing in American newspapers; therefore, they cannot be necessary. M. Brisson is of the opinion that the interviewer is born, not made; this may be a sly way of allying the interview with poetry; but his contention that no man is fit to interview before he is twenty-five, or after he is fifty, shows a narrow horizon. After this, it is quite needless to follow him into his discussions of the interviewer's careful preparation for his work, his courtesy, his good faith, and other qualities which we know to be wholly unnecessary in practice. All that may do very well for literature; but if you make the interview literary in that sense, you run a great risk of making it altogether cease to be the American interview as we know it.

WITH THE RUSH TO THE KLONDIKE.

STEAMER QUEEN, June 27, 1897.

When the excursion steamer *Queen* left Seattle and Victoria on the twenty-third of this month, besides the usual collection of tourists who had come to make the Alaska trip, she had on board another crowd of a very different kind. A few days earlier the tale had gone out to the world of the return of miners with great quantities of gold from the Klondike region in the far north of British America, and the news had created widespread excitement. The "rush" began at once, not only because thousands of people wish to be among the first to arrive in the new Eldorado, but also because they well know that the time before the beginning of the next Arctic winter is short enough in which to traverse the immense distance that separates them from their promised land. Naturally they turned first to the usual means of transportation that would bring them nearest to their goal. With the whole Pacific Coast, not to speak of other places, thrilling with the excitement, and with wiseacres talking of discoveries to surpass those of 1849, the number of applicants for passages far exceeded the regular supply, so that many extra boats have been hired, there being at least five of them due within a week after ours.

The easiest, if the longest, way of getting to the Klondike is by ocean steamer to St. Michael's Island in Bering Sea, and thence, in a smaller boat, up the Yukon River. Many have already gone in this manner, yet it has serious drawbacks. Although we are still in June, the Yukon, which at present is too low for good navigation, freezes so early that it is by no means sure that those who start now can reach their remote destination without being caught in the ice and forced to winter on the boat. Then, too, the transportation companies do not allow miners to bring up their food with them, thereby forcing them to buy at the companies' stores at any price. The other, much shorter, routes are from points on the coast of southeast Alaska to the lakes and rivers that flow into the upper waters of the Yukon. Of these routes the best known is via Dyea, a trading-post boasting of a grocery-store and a post-office, a thousand and twenty-five miles by sea from Victoria, at the head of an inlet called the Lynn Canal. The trail from Dyea to the nearest lake is only twenty-seven miles, but part of it is over a mountain, and is so difficult that it is impassable even to pack-horses. When we remember, accordingly, that, besides his "kit," each man should carry provisions to last him for the greater part of a year, we can see that even this short distance is no trifling obstacle. Nor is the long journey, in small boats made on the spot, a thing to be lightly undertaken.

Of course, every place on the *Queen* was filled; the tourists, much the ordinary assemblage, looking with interest and wonder, a certain admiration and some pity, on their two hundred or so unexpected companions. These were mostly Americans, with a number of Canadians and Englishmen, as well as a few of other nationalities. There were, indeed, many sorts and conditions of men: veteran miners, who had prospected and mined for years in more than one State of the Union, and pale shop clerks, vainly trying, with the aid of flannel shirts, broad-brimmed felt hats, and pipes, not to have the stamp of the "tenderfoot." There were lawyers and doctors, a candidate on the Populist ticket at Tacoma last autumn, two Yale graduates, a prize-fighter known as "The Montana Kid," an ex-judge, and an ex-Governor of a Territory. There were men with gray beards, mere boys, and even a few women, not mostly of the best kind; there were many with attractive if rough faces, and here and there one who looked as if he had seen the inside of a jail; but all were now full of the same thought, the same desire to rush to the gold fields, the same dreams of fabulous wealth. Each one had, on an average, nearly a ton of baggage, with whatever money he could scrape up, as he knew that he was bound for a country that produces nothing but gold, and where all the necessaries of life may be expected to be at famine prices. Each needed, besides his camping outfit, mining tools, tools for cutting wood and for other purposes, clothing to stand a winter where the thermometer goes down to seventy degrees below zero, a gun and ammunition to shoot game, and food for about a year, if he were prudent, as those who leave now may, in case of accident, be frozen up for many months before reaching inhabited territory. If a man's provisions give out, what can save him, if anything, but the charity of others? And Heaven help him in a region where every one has to guard against the danger of starvation.

Some, of course, were much more fully provided than the rest, thanks to greater wisdom and experience or to longer purses. Some, undoubtedly, are running terrible risks, even if they are modest in their desires, and merely intend to hire themselves out as day laborers, at any rate at first, and thus will not be absolutely obliged after their arrival to have independent means of support. The most favorably situated are those with experience who have banded together in parties of from two to twenty, under some good leader, and have had the means to supply themselves with whatever is necessary to guard against all contingencies. Even they spoke seriously enough of the business on hand, and of the hardships and disappointments that must await the majority of the seekers.

A question much discussed was the probability of having to pay customs duties. The Klondike River and adjacent streams, where the richest "strikes" have been made, are situated in British territory, though near to the Alaska boundary. Already there are mounted police on the spot to keep order, and the Canadian newspapers, spurred by jealousy at the great impetus the "rush" is giving to the trade of certain American cities, notably Seattle, are clamorous for customs officers to collect duties which should not only benefit the Canadian revenue, but, it is hoped, induce future miners to buy their outfits in Victoria and Vancouver. The Dominion Government probably will act as soon as possible, but it is hard to see where some of the present immigrants are to get the money from if they have to pay much, for they are certainly not all provided with superfluous funds. It is to be feared, too, that these latest gold discoveries may lead to political complications. When more gold is found on the Alaska side of the frontier, as in time there probably will be, and a large mining population, composed chiefly of Americans, is scattered through this distant and difficult region, it is not going to be perfectly easy to police the territory or make boundary lines respected. More serious is the fact that the nearest entrances to this Canadian country are through land now held by the United States, but claimed by Great Britain. The increased importance of just such places as the heads of the Lynn Canal will not facilitate the settlement of the Alaska boundary controversy.

Our journey from Victoria to Dyea passed without any particular incident till at about twelve on the third day we reached our destination—three or four houses at the end of a bay, walled in by lofty mountains with steep, wooded sides and snowy tops. The prospect looked blank enough for those who were to land. It was not so much that the wind was high and the sea rough, as because the water was too shallow to permit the *Queen*, which was here for the first time, to get far up; so the miners, with their almost two hundred tons of goods, would have to be put on shore among the rocks, with no way of getting out of them except by small boats which might take a week before completing the job. This was discouraging as a start; accordingly the captain went off in a steam launch to examine the neighboring harbor of Skagway, five miles distant, where there is a better landing. An hour later he returned with the joyful tidings that from Skagway, where a wharf was almost completed, a new trail to the lakes had been opened within a week through the White pass, which, though five miles longer than the one from Dyea, was a thousand feet lower and could be entirely crossed by horses. What was more, a few horses were there for hire, while others were expected within three or four days. This announcement was received with jubilation, even if there were some grumblers who would have preferred the original route; anchor was weighed, and before long the steamer was at Skagway, where a store has already existed for a fortnight. Although the work of disembarking lasted almost till next morning, the men themselves were soon ashore with part of their goods, and a whole village of tents sprang up under the shelter of the trees. On some were facetious signs such as "The Lobby" and "Paradise Alley"; one, presumably for unfortunates whose tents were not yet landed, or for lazy men, was labelled "Franklin Hotel," and by it all could read "Ham, ten cents." Fires, on which supper was being prepared, blazed everywhere; all was activity and good humor. Behind were comfort and civilization; ahead, thirty-two miles of trail and five hundred and thirty-four in boats constructed by the adventurers themselves, and then the Klondike with all its wondrous chances and terrible uncertainties.

ARCHIBALD CARY COOLIDGE.

THE POLITICAL SITUATION IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, July 31, 1897.

It is very interesting, in revisiting England two years after the subsidence of the Home Rule agitation, to observe the situation made by the great Conservative victory. The very first thing which strikes me is the general political apathy—that is, the languor with which nearly all political questions are discussed. Much of this is undoubtedly due to the absorption of the public mind in the Jubilee, and there are already signs of some change. But, twenty

years ago, the rôle which England is playing in the Mediterranean would have created the fiercest popular excitement. That the great fleet which was reviewed at Spithead the other day, which cost so much, and is the cause of so much pride, should give England so little weight in European councils, that the say of Austria or Italy should count for just as much as her say, in a problem which is mainly maritime, is undoubtedly felt to be a little humiliating. I have met no one who denies this, but I do not meet with much indignation about it. The general comment is, "What could Lord Salisbury do?" and there is a general and almost amusing disposition to throw the blame on the Greeks, who have done simply what Charles Albert did in 1849, and Garibaldi did amid thunders of applause in 1860. I notice, too, a disposition to treat the success of the Turk, in defending himself, as, in some sort, a restoration to the position of respectability as a sovereign power which he lost by his massacres in Armenia and in Crete. There is really an odd contradiction between the way in which the people treat it as a matter of common right and decency that the Greeks should pay his expenses for slaughtering them, and the way in which they repel with horror the idea of letting any Christian population pass under his rule as a consequence of his victory; that is, he has a right to kill and burn, but not to annex.

Then there is a widespread dissatisfaction with the way the Ministry is represented in foreign affairs in the House of Commons by Mr. Curzon. Nobody can recall a period when the Government spoke in the House for the Cabinet on international concerns through a man as young and as unimportant politically as Mr. Curzon. I do not mean to depreciate him in saying this, but he has produced no impression in public life to make him seem a fit successor for Canning or Palmerston or Gladstone. And then, he has that priggish air which young men who have travelled and observed much find it so difficult to avoid. Moreover, he has no backers on his side of the House. Mr. Balfour and Sir M. Hicks-Beach know much less, and care less, about foreign politics than he does, so that the task of explaining things and putting a good face on Lord Salisbury's Eastern policy is exceedingly hard and is performed with the prevailing languor and doubt. No one would imagine, to listen either to Mr. Curzon or to his chief, that England was a first-class Power and had the command of the seas.

With Lord Salisbury there is general disappointment, which even his warmest admirers find it difficult to conceal. His love of biting epigram and "blazing indiscretion" in speech, and the way he spoke of the old Turk a year ago at Guildhall, led people to expect some vigorous action in the Mediterranean, where he would have the Turk in his power. In Armenia he could do nothing, but Crete would be as completely under his guns as the Isle of Wight. His apologies for doing nothing and for being led by the three Emperors, and calling rather weakly for another Bismarck to get him out of his trouble, as he did recently in the House of Lords, even his own supporters find mortifying. That he was not a man of vigorous action has been well known ever since the Berlin Conference, but it was somehow forgotten during the Home Rule agitation. In fact, the way the dread of Home Rule led Englishmen to exalt everybody who opposed it, is a feature in the situation which is almost diverting. Nothing of late years appears to have done as much for the reputation, moral as well as political, of politicians, as to have been Unionists and to have assisted in Gladstone's overthrow. Mr. Chamberlain, for instance, has risen into the ranks of an austere moralist, even with so stern a critic as the *Spectator*, through opposing Home Rule, and yet he makes, in his works and ways, the nearest approach to the typical American politician as yet seen in English public life. For Lord Salisbury, however, there is the excuse of many months of great domestic anxiety, for Lady Salisbury has long been in a very precarious condition of health.

The size of the Tory majority, too, has much to do with producing the prevailing languor. It is so large that every one feels that nothing can happen to endanger the tenure of the Ministry. No "scare" or dissension is in the least likely to harm them. This has its effect on both sides. The Liberals feel that there is no use in agitating while the elections are at least three years away, and the Tories are quite satisfied with the situation as it is. Moreover, if the Tories were to go out to-morrow there would be the utmost uncertainty among the Liberals as to their leadership. Sir William Harcourt is very able, and has rendered great services to the party, but he is old and his health is somewhat impaired. It is doubtful whether Lord Rosebery could be induced to take his former place, even if his temperament fitted him for it, which it certainly does not. He is not serious enough for the Liberals, and then, too, he sits in the House of Lords, and the inconvenience of leadership by anybody outside the Commons is fully acknowledged. Mr. John Morley is too earnest and literary, and Mr. Asquith has hardly grown up to the place politically. So that even if it were possible to turn the Tories out to-morrow, I think the Liberals would shrink from the succession. The party, too, is a good deal rent by the "labor problem." The talk of the extreme Radicals frightens the middle classes, and in England the middle classes are always a powerful body.

No discussion of the causes of the prevailing apathy would, however, be complete without touching on two powerful aids to political indifference—sport and society. The absorption of the public mind in bicycling, football, horse-racing, boat-racing, yachting, grouse-shooting, and deer-stalking, is something of which you can have little idea, great as is the amount of attention bestowed on these things in America. It is to these mainly that people give serious and continued attention, not to the Turk or the Emperor. It is about them and not about politics one hears talk in the trains and in the parks and the taverns. Going into a barber's the other day, the operator, although I am plainly past the sporting age, asked me eagerly whether I "had any cricket news," that being, as I afterwards learned, the day of the Eton and Harrow match. I said no, I had just come to town. "But I thought you might have heard it at your club, sir," he said. Grace, the cricketer, is, in the upper circles, a greater man than Gladstone. The way the bicycle has opened the country roads to the masses, and to the women, too, in fact, has exalted muscle and staying power and speed to extraordinary eminence as objects of human interest and desire. That sport has not swept the colleges with a violence like the football cyclone in America two years ago, must be ascribed, I think, to the greater phlegm of the English temperament, and the confinement of games to simple amusement, instead of making them paying exhibitions.

The national devotion to pastime is, of course, a great help to a ministry which has a troublesome foreign policy on hand, as it is a great hindrance, especially in foreign affairs, to any kind of agitation. But, useful as it may be in this way, it cannot compare to the social influence. I do not think any contrivance in English history for the support of a party can equal what is known here as "The Primrose League." The idea on which it is based—the enormous power in English life of what is called "good society"—is said to have originated with Disraeli. No man felt the seductions of "high life" more keenly than he. He saw that the desire "to rise in the world"—that is, to get into a higher social circle than the one you live in, and, even before getting into it, to be recognized and have any kind of intercourse with those who are in it already, or, to use the popular slang, "to take tea with the Duchesses"—was the darling passion of a vast number of Englishmen and Englishwomen of the middle class. It is said to have first occurred to him that this could be readily used for political purposes, or, in other words, that it might be made to seem "caddish" to be a Liberal. So the "Primrose League" was really founded on his grave. That is, a mistake about the Queen's meaning, when she laid primroses on his tomb, and said, "They were his favorite flower" (Prince Albert's), associated the flower in the popular mind with Disraeli, to such a degree that, on his birthday, the shrewd, cynical Hebrew countenance of his statue in Westminster is comically covered with wreaths of it. When, during the Home Rule agitation, it was determined to bring this new force into play in politics, it was called the "Primrose League," and local "Habitations," or clubs, were established all over the country, to which any one might belong who was opposed to Home Rule and admired Lord Salisbury and Mr. Balfour, and in which he could, on stated occasions, take tea with the women of the county gentry, and join Duchesses and Countesses in denouncing the "Rads."

The plan has been a great success, and is probably the most potent influence behind the Tories to-day. It has put a kind of social stigma on Liberal politics. With a certain set, all Gladstonians are "caddish," or "rotten," and pains are taken to deny them social recognition. A large number of the Liberal women feel this, and regret that Tom or Charley cannot be a Conservative, as his politics cuts them off from invitations to the smartest balls and dinners. I have heard of a case where a lady who is in the habit of seeing Liberal politicians of the more radical kind, finds that her sons, who belong to the sporting world, carefully avoid meeting them, and call them "Mother's cads."

It is perhaps going too far to say that Disraeli originated the plan of making Society tell on politics. Ever since the passage of the Reform bill, a man's politics has made a difference to him socially in England to a degree unknown in America, except during the civil war. I remember that, during that

period over here, the aristocratic set "cut" and looked down on friends of the North, just as more recently they "cut" and looked down on the friends of Home Rule; but the idea of organizing social influence so as to make of it a political power, is of recent date. The middle class is making money rapidly; titles are becoming more and more within their reach. Aristocratic exclusiveness has gone down completely before the fall of rents, and every man with money and Conservative views finds association with peers and peeresses very easy. For a middle-class Englishman, especially the young generation, few things are more intoxicating than such associations. It means invitations to country houses, "a few days' shooting" on the moors, excellent fare, and good wine; and the fever goes down till it gets almost to the laborer. It is hardly necessary to say that when a party is largely dominated by such an influence, sympathetic or imaginative politics are not in favor with it, so that the Turk chose an excellent time to do some massacring, and the Greeks a very bad time to rise, when the Conservatives were in power.

Nevertheless, the Tories are making some efforts to redeem their ante-election pledges, and to make out that they are really the true friends of the workingman. They have got through the Commons a workmen's compensation bill, under Mr. Chamberlain's direction, which is shocking employers by its liberality towards persons injured in factories and machine-shops, and the fate of which in the House of Lords is still problematical, and they have, through the Jubilee, made prodigious efforts to draw the colonies to England, with, I think, great success. All these things help to keep down the indignation which the foreign policy, and the queer failure to bring to light Mr. Chamberlain's connection with the Jameson raid, are well calculated to excite. But, after all is said that can be said of mistakes, blunders, and weaknesses, the fact remains that England is an enormous, unprecedented political success. The Government is admirably administered in every department. The best men the country can produce, whatever their faults or shortcomings, are engaged in the work of legislation. Legislation is well considered and much debated. The Boss has not yet begun to show himself. Fitness, and not "representation," is still universally recognized as the one title to office. I was glad to see that in your article on the Jubilee you called attention to these things as the true sources of English prosperity. Neglect of these things, the treatment of offices as "plums," and "representation" or "recognition" of classes and interests as the true rule of distribution, and the employment of second and third-rate men and jobbers and speculators in our legislation, are what keeps us behind England in the race.

The Foster despatch about the Treaty, which it is now said President McKinley and Mr. Sherman never saw, has, of course, excited a good deal of disgusted attention, and naturally much afflicts decent civilized Americans here. They were astonished by its emanation from the pen of Mr. Foster, who has been so long familiar with diplomatic usages. The English ascribe it, some to well-known American coarseness and bad manners, others to the desire of the Republican politicians to get up a foreign quarrel to turn popular attention away from their tariff tricks and from the currency problem. I cannot myself help explaining it, in some degree at least, by the success of Cleveland's outburst in the Venezuela affair. When I say success, I mean that it apparently produced the desired effect on the English. That is, if a friend owed you some money, and you went to his house without warning and threatened to punch his head if he did not pay you by to-morrow morning, you could well say, as so many said in America after the Cleveland message, that this was the way to make the fellow pay, for pay he certainly would if he had the money. It was a sort of proceeding which of course delighted the bar-rooms and the race-tracks. But I am bound to say I think that a very large part of Cleveland's triumph, and the resulting effect on the tone of American diplomacy, was due to Lord Salisbury's bad management. He wasted his breath arguing with Mr. Olney against "the Monroe Doctrine," as if there were any use in arguing against a "doctrine." Diplomacy has nothing to do with "doctrines," but with the application of them. Half the space would have sufficed, not for showing that the Monroe Doctrine had no force, but that the American claim of protectorate over Venezuela had not appeared in the previous correspondence, and had, in fact, been disclaimed in it, and that its sudden production in the guise of a threat was unaccountable and unmannerly. Far from this, he swallowed the threat, and meekly accepted the commission which was to draw his frontier for him, and which turned out to be perfectly useless, except for the purpose of collecting maps. It is not wonderful that, after this episode, American politicians should conclude that they might talk to him in any way they pleased, and might use any international controversy with him as a means of stirring up Jingoism.

All this was brought home to me forcibly by an article in the June number, I think, of the *Atlantic Monthly*, showing that all persons who condemned the Venezuela message—and the writer mentioned seriatim the journals which did so—were "un-American" and afflicted with over-refinement and remoteness from "nature." If this had any meaning, it meant that the forms of social intercourse, the moderation in language, and the air of respect for others, which mark the relations of civilized men in our day, indicate a falling-off on our part from the demeanor of Apaches and Comanches, to say nothing of the Australian "black fellows." An Australian savage gets his bride by hitting her on the head in the night around the fire, and then dragging her by the heels, insensible, into the bush. This is much nearer to "nature" than the methods of the civilized wooer, with his bouquets of flowers and his presents and his wedding ring, but is it better? Civilization means the imposition of a thousand restraints on "nature," and above all in social intercourse; and the methods of diplomacy are based on those of social intercourse between educated gentlemen. One of the cardinal rules of such intercourse is that, when trying to settle anything by discussion, you must not call your adversary names, or charge him with dishonesty, or, in fact, do anything needlessly to provoke him. It is unfortunate and a bad sign of the times that the more ruffianly style of debate with foreigners finds increased favor among us, when the foreigner happens to succumb to it for the sake of a quiet life. But politeness is something the civilized man owes to himself still more than to others; we should always behave civilly for our own sake as well as for that of our neighbors. It is, too, almost impossible to avoid the inference that the hatred and contempt for foreign nations which have become part and parcel of the support given to the tariff during the last twenty years, have had also a very bad effect on our diplomacy, and have done much to change foreign opinion of the American character. Many people here have the idea that we are using our remoteness and our strength to set up a barbarous nation of the fifteenth or sixteenth century, despising literature and art, loving battle, murder, and savage rudeness of speech.

E. L. G.

MUNICH IN SUMMER.

MUNICH, July, 1897.

A little volume for the pocket recently published by Dr. Gsell Fels, the well-known author of guide-books, gives the outlines of one hundred excursions from Munich, and thus bears testimony to the exceptional situation of the Bavarian capital as the centre of a multitude of enticing spots distributed in its vicinity like the knots in a spider's web. The high altitude of the city, its cleanliness, the purity of the drinking-water, obtained far away in the mountains, and the excellent sanitary conditions in general, make modern Munich one of the most salubrious cities in the world. The canalization and flooding system, since its extension in 1896 over fifty-nine additional streets and squares, reaches a present total length of 178 kilometres. The swift-flowing Isar, when at low-water mark, carries off the contents of the sewers twenty times diluted, while, according to Von Pettenkofer, the proportion of one to fifteen would be very favorable. The mortality among the population has been reduced by nearly one-half within twenty-six years, and, to judge by the looks of the common people, it cannot possibly be high. It would be folly to question the dictum of the medical profession as to the deleterious effects of beer-drinking, or to suppose that the enormous consumption of the brown fluid is productive of a high state of intellectuality; but there is a strong temptation, as one observes the people in Bavaria, to take an optimistic view of the beer question. The people, men, women, and children, soldiers as well as civilians, look hale and hearty; they have that good-nature and kindliness which, with simple people, are sure signs of physical well-being. Well-fed men and women are a common sight, but cases of inordinate corpulence are much rarer than one would expect. A certain politeness is peculiar to the people of all classes in Munich. They not only have a *Grüss Gott*, or *Wohl bekomm's*, or *Wünsche wohl zu speisen*, for every one as the occasion may suggest, but they are ready to render to the stranger those little services he is so often in need of, and to acknowledge by a *Danke bestens* the smallest fee one may happen to give. They are not quarrelsome, nor do they get excited on slight provocation. When the tramway is obstructed—which seems to happen rather frequently—the conductor good-naturedly helps to remove the obstacle without indulging in loud and undignified demonstrations of ill-humor; those scenes of vociferating officials surrounded by boisterous crowds, which attend similar mishaps

in Paris, are not to be witnessed here. On the other hand, it must be confessed that the horses on the tramway line travel at a very deliberate pace; electric cars are running on some lines and are being rapidly introduced on others.

On Sundays the churches of the city are filled with men and women. At the same time the villages and *Sommerfrischen* in the surroundings attract multitudes of artisans and tradesmen, with their families, every Sunday when the weather is fair; according to the daily papers, over 70,000 tickets were sold on a recent Sunday at the railway stations. Disorder at the popular resorts is said to be rare; at those of the better class, such as the Kaimsaal, the conduct of the crowds is certainly irreproachable. In this large, well-constructed, and well-ventilated music-hall the audience is seated at round tables, eating, drinking, and smoking, while listening to a "popular" concert whose programme is largely made up of compositions of Handel, Haydn, Beethoven, Mendelssohn, Wagner, etc., etc.—a most characteristic combination of the material with the ideal, the one so little encroaching upon the other that not once during the softer strains of the orchestra is the most complete stillness in the audience disturbed by an ill-timed movement of one of the hundreds of knives, forks, and glasses held in suspense, or an awkward step of one of the waiters, gliding on tiptoe through the rows of tables.

It is stated on good authority that more than 4,000 painters have their studios at Munich, and as most of the productions of the resident artists are at least temporarily exhibited here, it is evident that the amount of painted canvas continually to be seen must be enormous. Aside from the five permanent institutions (the Old and New Pinakothek, the Kunstausstellung, the Von Schack Gallerie, and the exposition of the Kunstverein), the annual "International Exposition" in the Glasspalast forms a great centre of attraction during the summer months. This year's collection, the seventh, has been arranged by Von Lenbach and Prof. Seidl, the architect, with wonderful taste and artistic skill. The distribution of light is all that could be desired, the space allowed each picture abundant, and by a generous supply of divans, as well as the use of great quantities of Gobelins and Oriental drapery in vestibule and ante-rooms, grateful resting-places are prepared for tired limbs and eyes. A good restaurant in the building enables the visitor to prolong his stay beyond his usual meal hours, and thus to get the full value of the admission price.

The representation of the various countries (including America) is respectable in all cases, and in several excellent. As might be expected, the Munich groups, viz., the Künstlergenossenschaft, the Secession, and the Luitpold Gruppe, contribute the largest number of pictures. Von Lenbach has his own room, with some fifteen or twenty pieces, among which the study for a portrait of Theodor Mommsen calls for special mention. Böcklin, Uhde, Firle, Stuck, Defregger, and many other eminent masters exhibit two or more canvases each. It is not difficult, even for a layman, to see that the modern element is gaining ground among Munich artists; while predominating in the division of the Secessionists, it is not absent in the other sections. The peaceable competition of the various groups will doubtless, in the end, be productive of greater good than the bitter antagonism of years gone by; a general levelling and blending of discordant artistic principles is neither to be expected nor to be desired.

A. L.

Correspondence.

GREECE AND RUMANIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your editorial note in No. 1673 on Mr. Dillon's article concludes with the significant sentence, "If they [the Greeks] will learn to govern themselves," etc. What reason have the friends of Greece to hope that such a time will ever come? The Greeks have from time immemorial shown themselves more nearly devoid of political sense than any other civilized nation on the face of the earth. They have never acted together even in the direst emergency, except when tricked into doing so, as at Salamis, or when compelled to do so, as they were (at least in a sense) by Alexander. They were never united against the Persians, the Romans, or the Turks. If ever there was a time when concert of action was all-important, it was during the terrible years that preceded the battle of Navarino. But no leader appeared who was able to secure this concert, and, but for the opportune intervention of the three Powers, the cause of Greece would have been lost, in spite of sacrifices and bloodshed almost without a parallel in modern times. Ever since the dawn of authentic history the Greek had been the same valiant individual warrior, the same bigoted partisan, the same independent thinker, and the same failure as a member of the body politic; though his recent exploits on the Thessalian border make it necessary to revise our judgment on the first point.

And most painful of all, just as, in the days of old, the Persian and the Roman always had numerous partisans on the other side of the Ægean and the Adriatic, so in more recent times the Turk has rarely been without his supporters and champions in the same region. When Fallmerayer first launched his now exploded hypothesis on the origin of the modern Greeks, a veritable chorus of indignation went up all over Europe, but loudest from the Greeks themselves at what they chose to regard as a desecration of their national character. Since then it has been abundantly demonstrated that an infiltration of Slavic blood might have given them some of the docility, the dogged persistence, and obedience to authority which they so sadly lack, and which probably would have saved them from many of their national misfortunes. It is painful to reflect that the people who have taught the world far more than any other, perhaps more than all others combined, should themselves have learned less than any other. It begins to be only too plain that the harsh judgment of Finlay is, after all, not far astray. Everywhere in Greece one sees that almost the entire male population is still seriously smitten with the mania so much ridiculed by Aristophanes, a passionate fondness for politics. No government can long exist where almost the whole male population is either holding an office or waiting for one—all consumers and no producers. It is not easy to say what is to be done with a people that cannot govern themselves and yet will not submit to be governed by others.

It is interesting in this connection to cast a glance at the recent progress of Rumania as set forth in a volume by Consul-General Benger, entitled 'Rumänien: Ein Land der Zukunft, 1866-96.' The showing made by this book is most creditable to both Government and the people. The population is increasing rapidly, chiefly by immigration. Within the last forty years more than half the soil has been taken under cultivation, the number of hectares having been considerably more than doubled, while in the adjacent Servia the uncultivated soil constitutes nearly six-sevenths of the entire area. Its productiveness per hectare has likewise been correspondingly increased, and the increase in both respects is going steadily forward. Six years ago there were in use in the kingdom 11 steam ploughs, 2,283 threshing machines, 1,474 reapers, and 1,183 mowing machines. Benger calls attention to the fact that while the exportation of wheat from Rumania had increased relatively between 1886-7 and 1892-3 from 514 to 730, that from North America had risen only from 4,074 to 5,086, and he believes that the day is not very far distant when his country will be able to compete on equal terms with North America in the wheat markets of the world.

The first railroad was opened in 1869, and was but 70 kilometres in length. Since then the increase has been more than forty-fold, and there has been a corresponding improvement in highways. Telegraph lines are also being rapidly extended. In 1863 Rumania had but 38 post-offices, now it has nearly ten times as many. The Government receipts for 1883-4 were, in round numbers, 123,000,000 francs; in 1893-4, 189,000,000. The rate of taxation per caput is about 28 francs, to which is to be added 2 francs for local purposes. During the last fifteen years the Government has expended nearly 1,000,000,000 francs for railroads, bridges, docks, highways, military equipments, etc. The public debt amounts to 1,180,000,000 francs, of which sum 200,000,000 is held at home, 220,000,000 in France, and the balance in Germany. Much has been done to promote the general intelligence of the people. The schools are free and attendance obligatory. The two universities, Bucharest and Yassy, founded only a third of a century ago, had last year nearly 1,700 students. In recent years the Government has expended annually on its schools over 20,000,000 francs, as against about one-third of this sum twenty years ago. In 1885 the attendance at the village schools was, in the whole kingdom, but 107,000; at present it is more than 220,000.

The handsome volume of Benger, based, as it is, almost entirely on official statistics, makes a very creditable showing for the Rumanians.

C. W. Super.

Athens, O., August, 1897.

THE CHOICE OF PROFESSORS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The communication in your issue of July 29, signed "Prexie," doubtless won the sympathetic approval of many readers. In his quest for a professor of the classics "Prexie" appears to have corresponded chiefly with young men who had recently completed the course of professional study. It might be enough to say that these young men, following the guidance of their in-

structors, had been so engrossed with technical studies that time had been lacking for the production of papers purely literary. Apparently it is not easy in this country, or in Germany, to win the respect of scholars by work that is purely or chiefly literary.

One who has a wide acquaintance among college instructors learns many curious facts regarding the appointment of college professors—and, it may be added, of college presidents. I am tempted to cite one instance that came under my personal observation. A candidate for a professorship in one of our colleges sent to the president a copy of the thesis—a discussion of a literary topic—which he had presented for the doctor's degree. He was appointed to the position, and afterward chanced to see in the office of the president his thesis, *uncut*. The appointment had been made chiefly upon the written recommendations of two older professors, whose judgment the president felt it safer to trust than his own; and he acted wisely in not attempting to pass upon the thesis.

This incident suggests another phase of the problem propounded by "Prexie." Let us grant his ability to appraise written work presented by candidates for a professorship in the classics. Is he equally ready to appraise the work of specialists in modern languages, in history, in philosophy, in mathematics, in the sciences? As a matter of fact, the most trustworthy means of judgment is the testimony of reputable professors who have actual knowledge of candidates and their work; upon such evidence "Prexie" eventually found it wisest to rely. It is not true that professors in our leading universities will recommend men whom they regard as unworthy or incapable; they are guarded in their language, and their strong recommendations are reserved for strong men.

"Prexie" names two of the younger Humanists (one of them better known as a student of linguistic phenomena) who are known to him as contributors to periodical literature. He cannot have scanned with sufficient closeness the mass of this literature. Certainly he should not have overlooked two admirable articles by a young writer—articles that appeared within a few months in the *Atlantic Monthly*—one, on "The Rational Study of the Classics"; the other, on "Brunetière as a Critic."

From what I have written it may not appear how largely I am in agreement with the views expressed in the communication upon which I have ventured to comment.

PROFESSOR.

Notes.

Harper & Bros. have in press 'School-boy Life in England,' by John Corbin.

A genealogy of the 'Old Families of Salisbury and Amesbury, Mass., with some Related Families of Newbury, Haverhill, Ipswich, and Hampton,' down to about 1700, has been prepared by David W. Hoyt, Providence, who invites subscriptions at one dollar per part, the size depending on the support thus accorded.

The life of Thomas Chandler Haliburton, better known as "Sam Slick," which will be issued almost immediately by the Haliburton Club of Windsor, Nova Scotia, will be the joint production of Professors Wrong and De Mille; of Robert Grant Haliburton, elder surviving son of "Sam Slick"; of F. Blake Crofton, Librarian to the Legislature of Nova Scotia; and of Mr. Anderson of the British Museum. The last-named will contribute the Bibliography of the "Old Judge" to the "Centennial Chaplet."

Capt. Wagner has not allowed his transfer to the Adjutant-General's department to stop his "International Military Series," of which he began the editing while instructor at the Fort Leavenworth Infantry and Cavalry School. Number four of the series (Kansas City: Hudson-Kimberly Publishing Co.) is a republication of essays by Captain F. N. Maude of the English Engineers, which originally appeared in the *Civil and Military Gazette* of Lahore, India. Captain Maude's vigorous style and trenchant criticism make his papers always stimulating, and he is sure to select topics bearing directly on the military problems of the day. Number five is an English translation by Lieut.-Gen. East, C. B., of the German General von Arnim's method of rapid instruction in outpost and skirmishing duty. With its maps, it makes a valuable handbook for the peace-time drill, showing what varieties of invention a bright officer has at his command for imitating occurrences of actual war. The same publishers bring out a second edition of Lieut. Root's 'Military Topography and Sketching,' brought down to date by the Fort Leavenworth Instructors in Engineering.

The first of the flood of publications on Alaska in its gilded aspect to reach us is Miner W. Bruce's 'Alaska: Its History and Resources, Gold Fields, Routes and Scenery' (Seattle: Lowman & Hanford). The author writes in good faith and soberly, from six years' experience, supplies a large number of excellent illustrations, and a map of the Territory. A new manual to an old resort is 'The Mammoth Cave of Kentucky,' by Horace Carter Hovey, A.M., D.D., and Richard Ellsworth Call, A.M., Ph.D. (Louisville: J. P. Morton & Co.). It is, in its appointments of letter-press and pictures, the best guide to the cave we have ever seen, and its science is conformable to our present knowledge. A handbook was demanded by the recent Historic Festival in Plymouth, Mass., July 28-August 3, and is given in 'Old Plymouth Days and Ways' (Plymouth: A. S. Burbank). It is a prettily illustrated souvenir, and among its scraps is a catalogue of the loan exhibition in the Winslow House.

The 'Album Géographique' of MM. Dubois and Guy (Paris: A. Colin et Cie.) has reached a second volume, which is devoted to the tropics, except those parts included in the French colonial possessions. For those a special volume, showing their aspect and development, is promised. The present is divided into fifteen sections, each containing about thirty pictures of the scenery, habitations, and people of varying degrees of interest and excellence. In some instances these are so old that, taken together with the descriptive text, they are misleading as regards present conditions. This is especially noticeable in the section on East Africa. The sources from which the materials have been drawn seem to have been unwisely restricted mainly to French and German works.

Nonagenarian contributors to the magazines are rare enough in any country, but the *New England Magazine* for August has one such in the person of Mrs. Elizabeth Buffum Chace, who writes on "Old Quaker Days in Rhode Island" in the town of Smithfield, where her ancestors settled. It is in reminiscence that the old betray their age, but this charming little picture of bygone days and customs is compact, orderly, pithy, and suggestive of anything but superannuation. Indeed, it illustrates one observation of the writer worth repeating. She says of the Buffum tribe that "they spoke the English language correctly; and I can think of no other reason for the class distinction which certainly did exist in this community except that it was determined by the different manner in which the language was spoken. There were families scattered right along this country road, owning farms, behaving as irreproachably as their neighbors, and dealing as honestly, who had no social relations with these same neighbors. They probably used two negatives where there was need of only one, and put plural personal pronouns with singular verbs."

A discussion, chiefly interesting for the curious views expressed, has been going on for some months in the London *Author* with regard to the practical use of the perplexing English subjunctive. A new turn has been given to it by the publication in the June and July numbers of tables stating the results of a search for the inflectional subjunctive in ten volumes of standard modern prose, including works of Dowden, Hardy, James, Lang, Lecky, Meredith, Morley, Stephen, Stevenson, and Traill, and aggregating about 900,000 words. The statistician's results are that subjunctives of any verb except *be* are used by all these ten authors only fifteen times. We suspect that only the third person singular of the present subjunctive of such verbs has been searched for, and that it was with reference to this alone that the discussion has arisen; but, however that may be, a subsequent correspondent deduces from the tables the following "practical" rules for British authors, which we hereby pass on to the American guild, as in duty and courtesy bound: (1.) "Only use the subjunctive mood of the verb *to be*"; (2.) "The subjunctive of the verb *to be* should only be used [he probably means, should be used only] after *if*."

The *Annales de Géographie* for July opens with a tentative sketch of a botanical chart of France, illustrated by a map of the Perpignan district so colored as to show the different kinds of forest trees and their location. This is followed by papers upon the river Oder, the physical geography of the Caucasus, and Tierra del Fuego. Dr. O. Nordenskjöld, the leader of the Swedish exploring expedition to this forlorn land, gives the impressions received during a twelve months' sojourn. The vegetation consists "in great part of evergreens, forming virgin forests almost as dense as those of the tropics, which, moreover, they recall in various ways." Their silence is deathlike. Even the war of the perpetual tempests does not penetrate it. There are no bird-sounds but the occasional cry of a parrot; no insects but spiders. In describing the Ona Indians, the most numerous of the primitive inhabitants of Tierra del Fuego, the writer says that perhaps no people are so badly protected against the climate as they. The paper is illustrated by some interesting photographs. The editor calls attention to the scantiness of our knowledge of the borderland between Algeria and Morocco,

and remarks also that since the Spaniards have made Melilla a free port, a new trade-route has been opened by which arms and European products are carried to the south. In an interesting note a recent official order forbidding further emigration to Siberia, on the ground that there is no more available land, is explained. The nomad Kirghiz, with their enormous herds, now have possession of all the remaining unoccupied land near fresh water. Until they are provided for, emigration will be stopped.

The quarterly statement of the Palestine Exploration Fund for July announces that the excavations at Jerusalem have ceased on account of the termination of the firman permitting them, but that application has been made to the Porte for leave to undertake excavations elsewhere. It has been a source of regret that no specimens of Hebrew writing have been discovered in the course of the work. Just at the close, however, a cornelian seal was found with a name inscribed in characters of the sixth century B. C., according to Prof. Sayce, or "about 450 B. C., or from the time of Ezra," according to Col. Conder. A preliminary account by M. Clermont-Ganneau of the extraordinary fifth-century mosaic map of Christian Palestine, Egypt, and possibly Asia Minor, recently discovered at Mâdeba, a Moabite city to the east, endeavors to identify some of the geographical names displayed. A plan of Jerusalem in this map may throw light on the disputed questions connected with its topography. Other articles are on the water of Jacob's Well, the Damascus railways, and the length of the Jewish cubit by Col. Watson. By a comparison of a large number of fresh Syrian barleycorns with some taken from an Egyptian grave of the third century of our era, he concludes that it was very nearly 17.79 inches long. The barleycorn, it may be added, his researches lead him to believe, is the best natural object which could have been selected as a unit of measure.

The Conference on uniform entrance requirements in English, which met in New York in June, consisted of representatives from the college and secondary school associations of the Eastern, Southern, and North Central States. Its deliberations resulted in the removal of several objectionable books from the prescribed list; in a list of books for 1901 and 1902 that does not differ materially from that of 1900, and in the addition to the requirements of clauses recommending the secondary schools to offer instruction in elementary rhetoric, and allowing colleges to examine candidates on English grammar and, to a very limited extent, on certain periods of English literature. The Conference only partially completed its work, and adjourned to meet at Christmas in Philadelphia.

The number of matriculated students attending German universities during the summer semester of 1897 is indicated by the first figures, the whole number of hearers by the second figures, and the number of women among the hearers by the third figures in the following list: Berlin, 4705. 344, 114; Bonn, 1889, 103, 13; Breslau, 1541, 83, 22; Erlangen, 1140, 13; Freiburg, 1449, 95; Giessen, 663, 29; Göttingen 1123, 72, 34; Greifswald 834, 19; Halle 1534, 101, 6; Heidelberg, 1230, 92; Jena, 704, 50; Kiel, 727, 37; Königsberg, 695, 31, 11; Leipsic, 3064, 157; Marburg 1042, 48, 7; Munich, 3871, 160, 2; Academy of Münster, 487, 10; Rostock, 499, 10; Strassburg, 1016, 31; Tübingen, 1289, 12; Würzburg, 1430, 13. The whole number of matriculated students was 30,982, and hearers 1519, of whom 207 were women; students of theology 4326, of law 8368, medicine 8232, and philosophy 10,006. There was a marked decrease of students of theology and medicine, and an increase of students in the philosophical department, especially in philology and natural science. There seem to have been no women hearing lectures at Leipsic, although there were several in attendance last winter.

The professors of the Berlin University, Wagner and Sering, in the department of political economy, and Erich Schmidt, in that of modern philology and literature, speak in the highest terms of the attainments and achievements of the women who have attended their lectures during the last three semesters. A year ago there were 39, in the following winter 95, and in the summer semester just closed 114 in attendance. Many of these were not only "hearers," but also "doers of the word," inasmuch as they worked diligently and successfully in the seminaries of their respective professors. Prof. Schmidt mentions especially one young lady, a Russian, who had already taken the degree of Ph.D. at the University of Berne, and whose dissertations in his seminary were "the best." Several women have also carried on independent investigations with remarkable success in the physiological institute in the departments of physics as well as of microscopic biology.

On May 31 Elsa Eschelsson read and defended her thesis before the law faculty of the University of Upsala, and received the degree of Doctor juris, with the customary badges of this academical promotion, namely, a ring, a diploma, and a doctor's hat. Her thesis was "On the Idea of Donation in Swedish Law." We may add that the hat was not quite as tall as that given to men. This difference was, however, purely æsthetical, and had no reference whatever to the comparative height of her scholarly attainments. Soon afterwards she was admitted to the faculty of the same university as privat-docent, and will lecture on civil law.

—In the month of November last, the committee appointed by the Harvard Board of Overseers to visit the Department of Composition and Rhetoric called upon the students in all the English courses of the college to prepare a composition upon the following subject:

"Describe the training you received, or the experience you may have had, in writing English before entering college, giving the names of the schools in which, or the instructors from whom, you received it; and then, speaking in the light of your subsequent work and experience in college, point out wherein your preparatory training now seems to you to have been good and sufficient, and wherein it seems to have been defective and to admit of improvement."

In response to this call over 1,300 papers were handed in. The students writing them came from nearly 500 different preparatory schools in all parts of the country and in Europe, and some from other colleges. In the papers they described the systems in use in all these institutions at the time the writers belonged to them—that is, within a comparatively recent period. After going carefully through this large mass of raw material, the committee prepared a report, which has recently been submitted to the Board of Overseers, and will be published during the month. In view of the active discussion of "College English" occasioned by the previous reports of this committee, the forthcoming one can hardly fail to be looked forward to with interest by all teachers engaged in the secondary education. It is understood that in it the committee have reached certain final conclusions in regard to the methods of instruction in the art of writing English now in use, and suggest important modifications; their recommendations being based on the evidence contained in the 1,300 papers they have examined, numerous extracts from which will accompany the report to fortify the conclusions of the committee. The originals are to be bound in volumes, and placed for future reference in the College Library. The committee consists of Charles F. Adams, Edwin L. Godkin, and George R. Nutter; and this, the third report made by them, will also probably be the final one. The previous reports, it will be remembered, were editorially discussed in the *Nation* at the time of their publication.

—Proposals for a new 'Lexicon Platonicum,' signed by Prof. Lewis Campbell and Mr. David B. Monro, Provost of Oriel College, are now in circulation. These proposals begin by calling attention to the need, long felt by classical philologists, of an 'Index Platonicus' corresponding to the 'Index Aristotelicus' published in 1870. The rarity of Ast's 'Lexicon Platonicum' (1835) is then adverted to. It can scarcely be had now at any price under $16. Its treatment of important words is not exhaustive, and its arrangement is defective. It of course contains no record of the extensive and minute research recently devoted to Plato's use of the particles. Mitchell's 'Index Græcitatis Platonicæ' (1832) is still more defective and has been long out of print. For all the minutiæ of Plato's habits of speech, and for the changes observable between his earlier and latest styles, German monographs, not easily procurable and of uneven merit, have to be consulted. These have, for the most part, appeared since Ast's Lexicon. The most practicable scheme is therefore to prepare a new lexicon based upon Ast's and on important monographs which have appeared since his day. The mere cost of reprinting Ast is estimated at $3,500. The cost of the necessary revision of that work would bring up the expense of a new edition to $7,250. This outlay would not be covered by the demand for such a revision when completed. Accordingly, the help of learned societies and the liberality of individual scholars is appealed to. The Oxford Philological Society has shown interest in the matter, and other learned English societies are expected to join in furthering it. The subject has also been mooted in the Paris Académie des Inscriptions. It may be hoped that there are societies in America which will take up the matter. If, by the combined efforts of these societies, $4,000 can be raised, a committee taken from their membership could be formed with good hope of success in the work. Such a committee might invite donations payable in three annual instalments, and could eventually appoint an editor, who should be empowered to organize and direct the undertaking, obtaining help from competent scholars. Finally, the book could be published at something like $10.50 net for subscribers, and about $12.50 for the public. Original subscribers would be entitled to one

copy free of charge. A sale of 350 copies would cover expenses, and any profits might go to the subscribing societies.

—*Scribner's* for August is a "fiction number," and contains some tales which are not noticeably different in character or interest from the thousand and one printed between other covers; Mr. Rudyard Kipling's ".007" is an exception. It is a story about locomotive engines, the locomotive being personified and talking in a dialect which Mr. Kipling seems inferentially to impute to the engineers and drivers of locomotives. If he is right, they talk a language very like that of the loafers and blackguards who hang around village stations. The story appears to be an allegory on the theme that pride goes before a fall, which of course applies to locomotives as well as to men. Mr. Kipling has evidently made a realistic study of the machinery of a locomotive, and introduces a great many technical terms of which we never heard before, and which are no doubt accurately used. The question whether the dialect is good realism or not we must leave to realists. It is a low, blackguardly, vulgar language, and may be said to mark one of the boundaries of magazine realism. An English-speaking magazine audience will not stand filth and obscenity, although filth and obscenity are highly realistic; and hence we have to go for them to Zola, whose liberty some of our great masters of fiction must often envy. What a splendid theme (but for this) an allegory of fire-engines in the old days in this city would have been! If this barrier could be once broken down, as it has been in the domain of certain newspapers, a fiction number might be produced which would make an unparalleled sensation. But realism with us has its prudery, of which the rules are thoroughly understood in the magazine world.

—The August *Century* is altogether an excellent collection of papers. In "The Lordly Hudson" Clarence Cook praises the scenery of the Highlands, and seems not to repel the opinion that the Creator, in designing them, had an eye to their effect as seen from the deck of a North River boat. Thomas Dwight Goodell contributes a charming "Journey in Thessaly," which deserves preservation in some form. "The Alaska Trip," by John Muir, is full of valuable information, as is also the article called "Down to Java" by Mrs. Scidmore. Norway, past and present, in contrast, is treated of by Horace E. Scudder and Hjalmar Hjorth Boyesen. All these are more or less illustrated; in fact, almost every paper in the number has something in the way of illustrations. General Schofield's article on "Controversies in the War Department" contains, besides some weighty professional criticism, an important private memorandum of his made in May, 1868, containing facts never before made public relating to the impeachment of Andrew Johnson. It seems, in brief, that when the impeachment trial had reached a stage at which the issue hung in the balance, Mr. Evarts, who was defending the President, sent for General Schofield, and asked him to consent that "at any time before the close of the impeachment trial" his name might be sent in as Secretary of War in place of Mr. Stanton. General Schofield asked permission to confer with General Grant, and permission was given to speak to the latter "incidentally," but not to refer to the proposition as coming from the President. Schofield therefore told Grant that he had reason to believe that such a proposition would be made, "upon the theory" that the President would be acquitted; on which Grant cautiously said that he supposed there was "no reasonable doubt" of a conviction, but that if such was not to be the event, he would be glad to have Schofield in the War Department. Another interview with Mr. Evarts followed, in which that gentleman stated that impeachment was then seen to be a mistake by the Republicans, and the question was "how to get out of the scrape," and that certain Senators had suggested Schofield's nomination in order that the Senate "might vote upon the President's case in the light of that nomination." The upshot of it all was that on April 24, 1868, the nomination was sent to the Senate, about a month later the impeachment failed by a single vote, and Schofield was unanimously confirmed. Curiously enough, on April 25, Grant confidentially requested Schofield not to accept, having changed his mind because (the editor of the *Century* suggests in a note) he feared the effect the nomination would have on the impeachment proceedings.

—The *Atlantic Monthly* has several papers worth reading. John Muir writes about the "American Forests," and tells the sad story of their destruction with some new touches. His account of the industry of the "Shake-maker," and his anecdote of the curious trade in timber-land claims carried on by the mariners of a certain steamship line, who, on arrival in port, make a "bee-line" for the forests, where they preempt land for their terra-firma employers at so much a head, form a striking contribution to the literature of this subject. Dr. Geo. Birkbeck Hill's first instalment of "Unpublished Letters of Dean Swift" is accompanied by an illuminating gloss by their editor. We see in these letters an unerring reflection of the writer and of the times. On August 2, 1715, for instance, Swift knew as little as any one what was going to happen, and writes, "The story of an invasion is all blown off." The Earl of Mar had then left London to raise the Highlands for King James. Swift's ignorance was the ignorance of half England. Mr. William Allen White gives an account of a "Typical Kansas Community," which should be read in connection with the succeeding essay on "A Massachusetts Shoe Town," by Alvan F. Sanborn. Mr. Sanborn's theory of the present condition of Massachusetts seems to be that a democratic state is in process of being replaced by what he calls "stratified" classes. But the stratification cannot, on his own evidence, be said to have reached a very advanced stage. To a visitor from Austria, Spain, or even from England, we doubt if the classes, orders, or castes of Brompton would seem very clearly marked. Sociologists often forget that a real social class cannot be formed by money alone; it must have rights, duties, customs, and ideas of its own. But there is no doubt which way the wind is blowing. William Roscoe Thayer has a thoughtful article on "The Pause in Criticism—and After"—a plea for individual as distinguished from evolutionary literary criticism of the Taine order. He notes the disappearance of "authoritative voices" in criticism. Goethe, Arnold, Lowell—who are their successors? It is absurd, as Mr. Thayer very truly points out, to determine a writer's value by such tests as *la race, le moment,* and *le milieu,* without also inquiring what he has to say. Several writers may be mentioned—among others, Shakspere—who remain important personages in literature, though little or nothing is known about the personal influences or circumstances under which their work was produced. If any one doubts whether Mr. Thayer's protest is called for, let him read Enrico Ferri's paper on "The Delinquent in Art and Literature," and see what Taine's more advanced successors are doing. Here we have the new criminological search-light turned on art and literature with extraordinary critical results. According to the writer, " nearly all criminologists" classify criminals under five heads, as first arranged by him. This is rather depressing to those who have been in the habit of believing that crime was as various as human character; but it is not so surprising as to find the old dispute about *Hamlet* settled by his being classed as a "mad criminal," while *Macbeth* is put down as "the instinctive, or born, criminal." His wife did not think so.

—*Harper's* for August has a curious illustrated article by Fletcher Osgood called "A State in Arms against a Caterpillar," describing the operations of the Massachusetts Board of Agriculture in its war of extermination against the gypsy-moth. This creature was brought over here twenty-six years ago by a French *savant,* and, escaping by accident, has since infested Medford and a large adjoining district. So frightful have been the ravages of the insect in Russia that it is supposed that it may, if unchecked, ravage the whole Atlantic Coast, and hence the State of Massachusetts has resolved to exterminate it. Not with a sword, but with petroleum fire and burlap bands and a Board of Agriculture of fifty members, with the Governor at its head, and under them specialists and a uniformed service and a plant, does she seek placid quiet in freedom from this detestable bug, whether in the shape of caterpillar, pupa, moth, or egg. The board seems to have absolute war powers, for not only have 42,000,000 trees, but more than 400,000 buildings, walls, and fences been inspected. The results, according to the writer, justify the expenditure of time and money, some 4,000,000,000 of the enemy having been destroyed, and the pest having been prevented from spreading or from seriously injuring the district in which it first made its appearance. With sufficient appropriations, Massachusetts promises to extirpate him from the New World to the last egg. The writer somewhat impairs the force of what would otherwise be a very striking article by suggesting that, in his opinion, Congress should help the State. He mentions absolutely no reason for thinking that the State needs any help. The chief illustrated subjects, not running on serially, are "The Inauguration," by Richard Harding Davis, with drawings by C. D. Gibson and T. de Thulstrup, and the "Hungarian Millennium," written and illustrated by F. Hopkinson Smith. Owen Wister has one of his short Western stories, in which, to our mind, he employs his undeniable cleverness and gift for story-telling unprofitably. We cannot help suspecting that he is a victim of the pseudo-patriotic virus which is doing so much to poison letters.

—Five new volumes in the series of 'Fa-

mous Scots' (Charles Scribner's Sons) show that Scotland and her sons stand ready, as of old, to maintain the undying glory of her elder offspring, even though in some cases the footprints are but thin and few. 'Tobias Smollett,' by Oliphant Smeaton, is valuable enough as setting forth the facts of the novelist's career; but it is disfigured by a rampant style, the flowers of the most irritating journalism strewing the pages, to use the author's own accurate and novel illustration, "as thick as leaves in Vallombrosa." 'James Boswell,' by Keith Lease, is less offensive, but is written throughout in a semi-jocose tone, exactly what the author complains of in Boswell's contemporaries—that no one could take him seriously. There is the usual attack on Macaulay, yet his demonstration of Boswell's fatuity is confirmed on every page, and Mr. Lease remarks, with great naïveté, that it is lucky the Temple correspondence was unknown to Macaulay, as it would have made his description more brilliant. Every anecdote accumulated to prove Boswell's constructive skill seems only to set in a clear light his congenital mental weakness, for which his biographer is forced to find an explanation in heredity. The life of 'Thomas Chalmers,' by the Rev. W. Garden Blaikie, is lively and sympathetic, while dignified in tone. If in places the evangelical temper seems too prominent, it must be remembered that only under the influence of such feelings could a biographer really enter into Dr. Chalmers's motive and methods. 'Fletcher of Saltoun' receives from G. W. T. Omond all justice; but after our very scanty materials have been drained dry, little is left beyond a tradition of eloquence, honesty, and patriotism, rendered ineffective by a bitter and impracticable temper. The Blackwood group of writers—Wilson, Galt, Moir, etc.—is fairly well handled by Sir George Douglas, but one doubts if his most earnest efforts will do much to revive what seems at this day their strangely exaggerated popularity and influence.

CROMWELL'S PLACE IN HISTORY.

Cromwell's Place in History. Founded on Six Lectures delivered in the University of Oxford. By Samuel Rawson Gardiner, D.C.L. Longmans, Green & Co. 1897.

"With Cromwell's memory it has fared as with ourselves. Royalists painted him as a devil; Carlyle painted him as the masterful saint who suited his peculiar Valhalla. It is time for us to regard him as he really was, with all his physical and moral audacity, with all his tenderness and spiritual yearnings, in the world of action what Shakspere was in the world of thought—the greatest because the most typical Englishman of all time. This, in the most enduring sense, is Cromwell's place in history. He stands there, not to be implicitly followed as a model, but to hold up a mirror to ourselves wherein we may see alike our weakness and our strength."

These are the words which conclude Mr. Gardiner's admirable and instructive essay on 'Cromwell's Place in History.' They bring into view a side of the Protector's character which has been too much overlooked. He was an Englishman of Englishmen, he was a typical representative of the nation which, under his guidance, became the leading Power in Europe. Every feature in Cromwell recalls some specially English characteristic. His sagacity in discerning what was immediately practicable is what we mean by English common sense. This quality has been possessed by every man who has permanently influenced England; it was the property of all the Tudors; it is to be found in men as different from one another as Walpole, William the Third, Pitt, Peel, and Palmerston. The want of it was the ruin of the Stuarts. They some of them had a touch of genius; they most of them possessed more than average capacity; they none of them, not even Charles the Second, were persons of sound sense. Cromwell's decisive energy at every crisis is the quality which lies at the basis of half England's greatness. The men who snatched the dominion both of America and of India from France had many defects and many weaknesses, but they had each and all of them this in common: they knew, when the supreme moment came, how to act with decision. The qualities which gave victory to Wolfe at Quebec were the qualities which made Inglis defend Lucknow against fearful odds, and which replanted the standard of England in Delhi. The religion, again, of Cromwell is exactly the form of religion which has influenced every Englishman who has been both a man of piety and a man of action. No mistake of Carlyle's was greater than the idea which he certainly impresses on his readers, that the religious convictions of Cromwell differed in their nature and in their sincerity from the convictions which have governed and do govern the lives of hundreds of Englishmen. Cromwell would have felt himself quite at home with Havelock when marching to Lucknow, or with Gordon when defending Khartum.

Nothing assuredly truer has been said about the Protector than that he was a typical Englishman, and if Mr. Gardiner's delightful little work did no more than impress this fact upon the world, it would have attained its object and rendered a lasting service to the students of history. But though Mr. Gardiner's estimate of Cromwell is, we doubt not, true, we may hesitate to believe that it contains the whole truth, or represents the complete and final judgment which the world will pronounce on the Protector. A man may be the most typical Englishman of all time, and yet not exactly the greatest of Englishmen, and Mr. Gardiner's description of his hero—for Cromwell has become almost as much Mr. Gardiner's hero as he is Carlyle's—hardly answers at least two questions which inevitably suggest themselves to any one who studies Mr. Gardiner's estimate of the Puritan leader.

Why did Cromwell's career constitute the most extraordinary combination of apparent success ending in undoubted failure?

The higher our estimate of Cromwell's genius, the greater is our difficulty in answering this inquiry. If any one asks how Napoleon fell from being the despot of Europe to the position of a helpless prisoner, the answer lies ready at hand. No man of transcendent powers ever made a greater number of moral and intellectual blunders; his triumphs are balanced and even enhanced by his failures. The expedition to Egypt, and still more the return from Egypt, prepare us for the invasion of Russia and for the dastardly flight back to France. The Emperor was one of those men in whom there really seems to have existed something like the alliance between genius and madness. Napoleon, moreover, did not fail in the sense in which Cromwell failed. To have achieved great feats, to have exhibited to all the world his unrivalled powers, both as a soldier and as a statesman, to have created a Napoleonic legend, to have made himself a name which can never be forgotten as long as men remember the history of France, to have placed himself among the rulers of men side by side with Alexander, with Cæsar, and with Charlemagne, are achievements which must have gratified the most ambitious dreams of Bonaparte. A few years' imprisonment must have been to him but a small price to pay for the gratification of his love of fame.

If we are asked why Cromwell's work fell to pieces with the end of his life, and why it is that not a single institution can be traced to Cromwell as its author, it is a far harder matter to find a reply. During his lifetime Cromwell never met with a reverse; in everything which he undertook he succeeded. If we look at the immediate results of his actions, we might say that he never made a blunder. Is not the true answer one which Cromwell's admirers and even his assailants are not willing to give? Is it not that, in spite of all his great qualities, Cromwell does not rank high among statesmen? No fair judge can place him side by side with men of great creative genius. Alexander, Cæsar, Constantine, Frederick the Great, stand apart and form a class of their own in virtue of having each achieved permanent results. They each knew how to build up, they each became the representative of great movements, they each looked to the future. The peculiarity of Cromwell is that he fixed his eyes exclusively upon the requirements of the moment. Never did man seize with more unerring sagacity upon the measures which best met the immediate wants of the time. In this quality, as in others, he was emphatically English, and, in virtue of this keen insight into the needs of the day, he avoided errors and achieved immediate success. But of him it might be said, as it has been said of Peel, that his insight far exceeded his foresight, that he was much more clearsighted than longsighted. There seems to have been something in his very belief in Providence which prevented him from taking thought for anything like the distant future.

We may trace this characteristic in all his actions and even more in his omissions. It explains how it happened that he never, in all probability, definitely determined who should succeed to the Protectorate. It is incredible that he entertained any fixed design of making Richard his successor. He was assuredly not deficient in knowledge of character. He was not blind to his son's defects, and it needed but slight knowledge of Richard to perceive that he had none of the qualities required in a man called upon to fill a position which at the very lowest demanded both experience in affairs and indomitable resolution. Cromwell undoubtedly wished to maintain a system of parliamentary government, yet he never understood that parliamentary government of any kind would be impossible if he dissolved his own Parliament the moment he found himself in disagreement with it. It is not certain that as regards Ireland Mr. Gardiner does full justice either to the Puritans or to their leader. The exaggerated admiration of Carlyle and Froude ought not to conceal from us the fact that the policy of Cromwell, if it had been fairly and per-

manently carried out, would have made every Irish Protestant loyal to the English connection, and that this is a good deal more than the rulers who succeeded Cromwell achieved. But it is certainly characteristic of the Protector not to have taken into account many of the results which would inevitably flow from his Irish policy. He can hardly have hoped to extirpate Roman Catholicism, but nothing short of extirpation would have made his action towards the Irish Papists a political success. You cannot by persecution transform rebels into loyal citizens.

The case of Ireland, however, is peculiar, and, as we have said, the policy of Cromwell might have achieved at any rate more success than the efforts of succeeding statesmen. The blunder of blunders was the execution of Charles. To urge that Cromwell strove hard to avoid this catastrophe and wished till the very end of 1648 for a conference with the King, and that, to use Mr. Gardiner's words, "he could but know that the pleadings of his own heart were reinforced by every motive of policy," * is to damn Cromwell's statesmanship. What Mr. Gardiner's words mean is that, to meet the immediate difficulties of a tremendous crisis, Cromwell overlooked every motive of policy, and purchased temporary success at the sacrifice of the future of Puritanism. The dangers of sparing the King's life were great. All that one need contend is that they were not nearly as great as the dangers involved in his death. The execution of Charles I. insured the restoration of Charles II. The Whig statesmen of 1689 read aright the lesson of 1649. It is not the death of a King, but his banishment, which involves the ruin of a dynasty. It may of course be said, and with truth, that Cromwell expected a longer life than he was granted by Providence; that if he had remained at the head of affairs, say till 1670, he would probably have died acknowledged King of England, and have become the founder of a new race of kings. This is true, but the very fact that Cromwell suffered so much to depend upon the continuance of his own life betrays exactly the weakness which marks all his policy—the habit, that is to say, of looking to the present and averting his glance from the contemplation of the future.

But Cromwell, we shall be told, had at any rate wide schemes for the formation of a great Protestant alliance, of which England was to be the head. This Cromwell's admirers are accustomed to represent as the heroic and the romantic side of his statesmanship. Mr. Gardiner's little book, however, does much to dispel our belief in the Protestant hero. Cromwell did, it is true, dream of a grand alliance for the protection of Protestantism, but he soon found, with his usual clear-sightedness, that his visions or schemes were out of date. The Peace of Westphalia had in effect closed the era of religious wars. The idea of a Protestant alliance was practically exchanged for the commonplace effort to extend the colonial dominion of England. Nor, if Mr. Gardiner is to be trusted, was this effort crowned with any very splendid success. Whether the historian is in this matter just to the Protector is open to question; but it would be the height of presumption for any critic to treat lightly the conclusions of the best-informed and the most impartial of inquirers, and Mr. Gardiner arrives at the result that in his foreign policy Oliver made a definite mistake. He attempted to render England great by land as well as by sea, but to attempt this was to overstrain the resources of the country. "With her small population and her still restricted commerce, could England bear the double strain to which France proved unequal and be great on land as well as great at sea?" If, with Mr. Gardiner, we answer this inquiry in the negative, we are forced to the conclusion that in his foreign policy Oliver, from want probably of sufficient training, failed to show his usual insight; but if his foreign policy was miscalculated there is really no part of his statesmanship which, if it be judged by a high standard, can be called successful. Energy, resolution, and knowledge of men, may make a man a powerful ruler, but for high statesmanship something further is required. The founder of new institutions must look to the future, and Oliver, with all his greatness, lacked foresight. If we are to adopt Mr. Gardiner's formula, and say that the greatness of the Protector lay in his being the most typical Englishman of all time, we must add that he shared one of the most marked of English defects—the incapacity for regarding anything but the requirements of the day.

Why has popular tradition painted Cromwell as a hypocrite?

Much may be due to the slanders of the Restoration—libertines will always deem piety to be hypocrisy; but it is folly to attribute lasting effects to malignity and calumny. It is the gravest of errors to imagine that the view taken of a man by his contemporaries can be wholly without foundation. If men of all classes and all parties came to distrust the Protector, we may be certain, not that he was a knave or a hypocrite, but that there was something in his character and career which naturally excited distrust. Nor if any one looks at Oliver's conduct dispassionately is it hard to see what this "something" was. He was a man who, beginning his life as a genuine religious enthusiast, became a successful and, we may fairly add, a not over-scrupulous statesman. To suppose that he was a hypocrite, or that his religious convictions were not genuine, is to misread human nature. It is absurd to fancy that the religious language to be found in his speeches did not express real feeling. Nothing is more unlikely than that the feelings of Cromwell's heart belied his religious profession. What, however, is pretty certain is not only that he became more and more interested in matters of state which led to the use of statecraft, but that he made his religious expressions part of his statesmanship. Policy and piety do not easily go hand in hand, and there is one danger to which a religious statesman is constantly exposed. He may act on higher principles than his opponents, but he is almost driven to the pretence of acting on principles of a more exalted character than those which he really follows. He deceives himself, but he deceives others also. No one can have a moment's doubt that Walpole's morality was of a far lower type than the morality of Cromwell. The Whig Minister was in the strictest sense incapable of understanding the religious yearnings of the Protector, but, just because of this difference, Walpole was the more honest man of the two. The Minister was a cynic; he took a low view of human nature, and made not the remotest effort to raise the tone of his generation. He acted more or less on the principle that every man had his price, and that the price could usually be expressed in pounds, shillings, and pence; but there was about him no touch of humbug; no one felt that he pretended to a conscientiousness which he did not possess. In dealing with Cromwell, on the other hand, no one ever felt sure, and to this day no one can feel sure, how far his action was guided by policy and how far by principle. We know, for example, that he wished to save Charles. We also know that he at last and suddenly adopted the views of enthusiasts who were convinced that justice demanded the death of Charles Stuart. Who shall say whether Cromwell was swayed by the dictates of immediate expediency, or whether he was carried off his feet by the contagious influence of a religious fanaticism with which in his heart he felt strong sympathy? This is an inquiry which no man can answer, and for the best of all reasons: it is an inquiry to which Oliver himself might well have hesitated to reply. A keen perception of the demands of the moment, righteous indignation at Charles's duplicity, the moral satisfaction of finding himself once more in harmony with the sentiment of the saints, may each and all have contributed to Cromwell's decision; and it was characteristic of the man to carry out at once with the utmost vigor the course of action which he had finally decided to adopt.

But though the mixture of politic calculation with religious fervor or fanaticism is not hypocrisy, it assuredly excited and ought to excite the suspicion of critics and associates. When we add to this that Cromwell, like every other revolutionary leader, suffered morally from the corrupting atmosphere of revolution, and that the religious fervor of his early life was clearly a good deal cooled by the varied experiences of his later career, we cease entirely to wonder that former friends, no less than ancient foes, failed to see how strong were to the last the Protector's religious convictions, and believed that astounding triumphs had been the reward of profound dissimulation. But here again it is fair to note that Mr. Gardiner's formula has an application which he does not himself give to it. Cromwell in his faults is the representative of his country. When foreign critics speak out freely the accusations which they bring against England, they charge the country with humbug or hypocrisy. Every Englishman, and perhaps most fair-minded Americans, will assert that the charge is unjust. What, however, are the circumstances which give it currency and plausibility? They are in substance that England in her foreign policy constantly professes to act on higher principles than those which govern the policy of other nations. This profession is by no means without solid foundation. No one, for example, who studies the history of the abolition of slavery can doubt that the abolitionists of England, as also the abolitionists of America, were really governed by hatred of iniquity. No one, again, can doubt that the belief in the benefits conferred by English administration upon Egypt tells for a good deal in the resolution of Englishmen, which is growing firmer and firmer every day, to keep a tight grip on the land they have occupied. But

* 'History of the Great Civil War,' vol. III., p. 557.

while this is true, it is also true that English philanthropy or benevolence is apt to coincide with the real or supposed interest of England, and that England does not always act up to her avowed principles. The cynicism of a statesman like Bismarck excites less distrust and condemnation than does the English avowal, though often perfectly sincere, of high-principled disinterestedness. Cromwell remains in his failings the type of English statesmanship.

BUCKLEY'S METHODISM IN THE UNITED STATES.

A History of Methodism in the United States. By James M. Buckley. In two volumes. Illustrated. New York: The Christian Literature Society, 1897.

The literary matter in these volumes is also published in one volume of 714 pages in a binding uniform with the other volumes of the "American Church History Series." The excess of 237 pages in these volumes over the one-volume edition is occasioned by the introduction of some 235 portraits and a few other illustrations. The portraits are very interesting, especially the "last-century faces," not all of them "fine"—some of them very homely and rugged—but much more indicative of force and character than those of the nineteenth-century bishops. Some of these, however, are delightful as examples of the typical ecclesiastical countenance, their smile as serenely self-sufficient as that of the Assyrian and Egyptian sculptures of great kings and conquerors.

It commonly happens with church histories that the initial are more interesting than the later stages. So far is Methodism from being an exception that it furnishes the rule with one of its most obvious examples. But, although Dr. Buckley devotes more than 100 pages to early English Methodism, they furnish but a brief and dry compendium of such elaborate histories as those of Stevens and Tyerman. Indeed, his entire work has too much of this character. Facts are set down "in disconnection dull and spiritless." There is a lack of grouping, and we pass from one thing to another with a suddenness that is often startling. There is, moreover, an absence of dramatic sympathy which is very curious. Here is a Methodist of the Methodists, and there is ten times more of the spirit of early Methodism in the pages of 'Adam Bede,' though George Eliot was an agnostic, than in Dr. Buckley's history. He should have been a good portrait-painter for a work so rich in personal interest. But Whitefield and the Wesleys, Coke and Asbury, and the other giants of those days, are bowed off the stage with the least possible characterization. Nor have we any clearer presentation of the doctrinal contents of Methodism, or of the differences between Wesley and Whitefield which were so threatening to the success of the whole business. Properly enough, the emphasis is placed upon the moral reformation involved in the development of Methodism. Wesley's celebrated "Minutes" are here very much in evidence. Another thing that is brought out very clearly is the primacy of Wesley. Louis XIV. was not more the State than Wesley was the Church. The sway of Hildebrand was not more absolute than his. Immensely suggestive, too, is the businesslike fashion in which a great emotional movement was made practical and efficient. It is astonishing how the fashion went everywhere with Methodism, and how quickly the American Methodists adopted it. It is less astonishing, however, because Asbury, as a man of business, was hardly inferior to Wesley.

If Dr. Buckley felt any temptation to be boastful in writing of the rise and growth of Methodism, he withstood it perfectly. An ecclesiastical history was never written more modestly or more truthfully. Where others have endeavored to disguise certain disagreeable facts, he has stripped off the disguise. A notable instance is furnished by Wesley's attitude towards the American Revolution. That attitude, as expressed in 'A Calm Address to Our American Colonies,' was the same as Dr. Johnson's in his famous 'Taxation No Tyranny.' The address was not inaptly described as "a bundle of Lilliputian shafts picked and stolen out of Dr. Johnson's pin-cushion." But Stevens, in his history of Methodism, wrote of Wesley's "frankly correcting himself and acknowledging the right of the colonies in their stern quarrel," and he convinced Bancroft of the truth of this statement and induced him to change what he had written. Yet Bancroft had written nothing but the truth, and it was Stevens who was in the wrong, as Dr. Buckley plainly shows. The letter on which Stevens relied was written before the 'Calm Address.' The wonder is that that address, together with the connection of the Methodists with the Church of England in America, was not fatal to the prospects of Methodism in this country. Asbury was driven into retirement, and the progress of the movement during the war and for some years after was very slow, especially as the Methodists, almost equally with the Quakers, were opposed to war, and so brought upon themselves some disrepute.

If Wesley's attitude towards American independence was unsound, he made great amends by his attitude towards slavery, in splendid contrast with Whitefield's base subserviency and complicity. (Whitefield's missionary labors in America are only briefly mentioned by Dr. Buckley, and their relation to incipient Methodism and to the other sects is not explained.) In their early dealings with slavery, the Methodists followed bravely Wesley's lead. The conference of 1780 required preachers holding slaves to set them free. In 1784 this action was followed up by a demand for the dismissal of preachers refusing to comply. The spirit of Coke, one of the superintendents sent over by Wesley, was precisely that of his chief. Asbury was more compliant. On his motion the conference of 1808 voted that "the section and rule on slavery be left out" of the Forms of Discipline provided for the South Carolina conference. The fact was that Methodism developed in the South much more rapidly than at the North. It was very slow to enter New England, where the reaction from the excesses of Whitefield and Edwards's "Great Awakening" was of long continuance.

Dr. Buckley's treatment of the relations of Methodism and slavery is throughout perfectly simple and straightforward. In his second volume he has three chapters which are wholly concerned with these matters. In the first of these we have an account of the abolitionist secession of the Wesleyan Connection under the lead of Orange Scott and La Roy Sunderland in 1842. This was a return to first principles which had been outraged in 1808 by the withdrawal of the prohibition of slaveholding by lay Methodists. The temper of those anti-slavery Methodists who were not ready to secede was much stiffened by the abolitionist secession. There was an inundation of anti-slavery petitions to the General Conference. But the Sumter gun of this disunion was the anti-slavery demand for the retirement of Bishop Andrews, who had married a slaveholding wife. There was a great debate which ended in the secession of the Southern Methodists, numbering 459,569 members and 1,519 travelling preachers. Henry Clay saw in this secession a menace to the dissolution of the Union, which his Compromise of 1850 did something to delay. The timidity of organized religion was manifested in the entire course of this controversy in the Methodist Church. The issue was forced upon the bishops by the people, in whom the anti-slavery spirit of Wesley still survived.

Dr. Buckley, before entering upon this task, had qualified himself for a courageous treatment of the emotional excesses of Methodism by the study of other similar phenomena in our own time. It is an interesting fact that these excesses, hysterical, cataleptic, and so on, attended the logical and argumentative preaching of Wesley much more than Whitefield's impassioned eloquence. There must still be many Methodists who will resent as wholly inadequate Dr. Buckley's account of these things as the result of "concentrated attention," and his depreciation of them as having no necessary or invariable connection with any moral change. But whatever of sympathy is lacking in his treatment of this matter, there is enough, yet not too much, when he comes to speak of "the typical itinerant." When we consider what the typical itinerant was, his meagre pay, at first about $60 a year, his constant journeyings, the hardships he endured, and the rebuffs which he encountered, his passionate enthusiasm and sincerity, we cease to wonder at the success that waited on his ministry, especially when we consider how often he was selected by Asbury for his work and energized and directed by Asbury's tireless will. After coming to America, Asbury "preached 16,500 sermons, ordained more than 4,000 preachers, travelled on horseback or in carriages more than 270,000 miles." Dr. Buckley asks, "Can his career be paralleled?" Wesley beat Asbury a good deal in the number of sermons, preaching 40,000 after he was thirty-six years old; "generally preaching at five in the morning; one of the most healthy exercises in the world," and travelling 225,000 miles.

Coke, Asbury's co-superintendent of the American Methodists, was a less simple character, suggesting some interesting psychological problems. One of his biographers writes that "he would have been a greater statesman if he had had fewer devices." One of his devices was to get himself made an Anglican missionary bishop of India, the English Wesleyans being slack in missionary enterprise, with the understanding that he would "return most fully into the bosom of the Established Church." Another of his devices (1799) was an elaborate scheme for the adoption of the English Methodists by the Established Church, and still another (1791), behind Asbury's back, had for its object the absorption of the American Methodists in the American Episcopal Church,

The overtures were made to Bishop White. Dr. Buckley probably expected some "dissidence of [Methodist] dissent" when he wrote: "Had such a union been formed, it is certain that neither the Protestant Episcopal Church nor American Methodism would have been what it now is, and it is possible that something better than either might exist."

Only those who are entirely unacquainted with the relations of Methodism in its formative stage to the Church of England will find anything strange in Coke's various coquetries with her. Wesley prized a valid ordination so much that he availed himself of "a rather shadowy Greek prelate" to ordain some of his preachers. When, with Dr. Coke and Mr. Creighton, he ordained two elders for America, and made Coke and Asbury superintendents, he shuffled a good deal to save the appearance of consistency, while in fact he was acting upon a view of primitive episcopacy now generally accepted by the most eminent scholars. In America, Asbury's face was set as a flint against the administration of the ordinances by preachers who were not clergymen of the English Church. But for the Revolutionary War the English Church in America might have absorbed Wesley's Methodists, as the Presbyterians and Congregationalists did Whitefield's. But that war was not only a war of independence for the colonies, it was also a war of independence for the American Episcopal Church and for the American Methodists, separating the former from the Church of England and the latter from its English branch. But long after the power of George III. was broken in America, the hand of Wesley was heavy on his subjects on this side of the Alantic. Their moral laxity, at the present time, as compared with his ideals of temperance and amusement, "softness and needless self-indulgence," would have broken his great heart if he could have foreseen it from the summit of his years.

It is a mistaken idea that the growth of Methodism in America was steady and unimpeded once it got fairly under way. In 1796 there was a loss of nearly 3,000 members; a loss of 11,000 in this and the two preceding years. These losses were mainly owing to the secession of the Republican Methodists under the lead of a certain O'Kelly, to whom the new bishops seemed too much like the old king. His following soon broke up.

In Dr. Buckley's second volume, after the chapters on slavery, to which we have already referred, there are others in which the famous scandals of the Book Concern are overhauled, and various aspects of growth and change are briefly indicated and discussed. There are also chapters on the other "Branches of the Common Root," the African Methodist Episcopal Church, the Wesleyan Connection, and the Methodist Episcopal Church South. The Book Concern is an institution which sends its roots far down into the soil of primitive Methodism, so prominent a feature was Wesley's sale of his writings in the propagation of his religious opinions. Its sales, East and West, are now $2,000,000 yearly, and it distributes $125,000 yearly "to the necessity of saints." Several pages dealing with the educational development are purely external —giving a list of endowments and bequests and little more. Of these one of the most remarkable was that of Dr. Daniel Ayres, a heretic of the heretics, to the department of biology in Wesleyan University—"the best way," he said, "to kill off the old theology." One would gladly know how the old theology is faring among the Methodists of these last days; what changes, if any, it has undergone to meet the requirements of modern thought and science. But of these things we have no mention whatsoever.

Eye Spy: Afield with Nature among Flowers and Animate Things. By William Hamilton Gibson. Illustrated by the Author. Harper & Bros. 1897.

Familiar Features of the Roadside: The Flowers, Shrubs, Birds, and Insects. By F. Schuyler Mathews. D. Appleton & Co. 1897.

Memories of the Months: Being Pages from the Notebook of a Field-Naturalist and Antiquary, to wit, Sir Herbert Maxwell, Bart., M. P. Edward Arnold. 1897.

Vivacious and even quiet popular records of natural-history observations possess a great fascination for the Teutonic race. Other races take pleasure in such records, but they do not seem to find in them the deep satisfaction which Germans, Scandinavians, and English-speaking peoples obtain therefrom. It may be that these latter have lived somewhat nearer to nature, and like to hear the story which charmed their ancestors well and often told. They seem never to tire of accounts of elves and fairies and giants, or, failing these, of the forests and meadows where the fairies might well be at home. The names of our common plants show how much of this fairy and folk-lore is still held in fond remembrance. When, therefore, one with sharp eyes, and keen ear, and a facile pen, and possibly a skilful brush, tells the story of any part of out-of-doors, he is sure of attentive listeners.

It may, perhaps, be true that a part of the charm comes from the humiliating fact that we all like to have our work done for us, and that it is pleasanter to read about the story of nature than to take the trouble to tell it to ourselves. One swinging in his shady hammock, under whispering trees, extracts deep pleasure from the perusal of the records of those who are keeping eyes and ears open in the discomfort of a tropical sun. We are spared the fatigue of actual travel and exposure; another is deftly taking the chestnuts out of the fire for us. And the pleasure is almost as great when one reads about the swamps and thickets and sandhills near home; the accounts are as fascinating as the stories of tropical adventure, provided, always, the account is not *too* instructive. There is one class of readers who get a still greater enjoyment out of such books, namely, those who know the woods and meadows, but who cannot, from lack of time or training, tell the story of the birds and flowers to suit themselves. They delight in the descriptions which others prepare; they appropriate the well-arranged material brought by others. There is, besides, a very large class, happily increasing, to whom such records of nature are guide-books to be tested on the spot. These latter take the score into the forest at daybreak and watch for a false note in the melodies and harmonies. The three latest guide-books are now in our hands. In some respects they are like their predecessors, but each has its own characteristics.

In Mr. Hamilton Gibson's early death, out-of-doors study in this country has sustained a serious loss. His eye, and ear, and hand were always truthful, and this gave him confidence to make wide excursions even into the fields which might be claimed by specialists. But there was, with this confidence, a modesty which led every specialist to welcome him as a friend, and not as a rash intruder. The present book, 'Eye Spy,' is somewhat like the earlier and larger one, which has delighted innumerable readers, 'Bright Eyes.' First of all, it is a sympathetic book; the author, who was at once the writer and draughtsman, always alert, cannot let a single thing worth mentioning escape the telling, and the telling is like a confidential talk among intimate friends about what certain other intimate friends have been doing. A charitable construction is put upon everything, and so the story runs along without a hint of anything unpleasant. Like many posthumous books, the pages contain a few errors which the author, if here, would have corrected. For instance, on page 139 we have Polygaric, where Mr. Gibson would have said Agaric. He would not have placed Sprengel's discovery as far back as 1735 (p. 166), and said on page 167, "It remained for Darwin, seventy years later, to interpret the problem," for at that time Darwin was minus four years old. But it is ungracious to point out errors in proof-reading or editing. Such errors as exist will not prove very misleading to those who delight in the beautifully printed pages, the exquisite delineations, and the story of nature told with an irresistible charm. Mr. Gibson was not spoiled by the schools; he was his own teacher in what was best, and those who have the task of training amateur naturalists should see well to it that they catch if they can the secret of his success in teaching himself. His enthusiasm was never chilled, nor, on the other hand, did it carry him to mawkish sentimentalism. Those of us who had the pleasure of knowing him remember the attractiveness of his enthusiasm —he carried us duller ones along with him whether we would or not; and in his books he does this with all his readers. Countless readers will, with those who knew him personally, treasure these last leaves taken from his portfolio, and express the hope that all of his careful sketches may be given to the public in some permanent form.

Mr. Mathews, whose work hitherto is more or less known to our readers, has given us a faithful guidebook for our roadsides. He does not confine himself strictly to the space between the fences, but he assumes that in most cases the fences are constructively down; and so he takes us on short and very attractive walks by most devious paths, and his book is all the better for it. Birds, flowers, and insects are faithfully considered and described in untechnical language, the whole brought into proper relations with their surroundings. His account can be unhesitatingly commended for summer strolls.

Maxwell's book is rather less limited in its scope than either of the two American works just noticed. More or less antiquarian lore, and here and there a bit of rural economy, a hint of fishing, and so on, carry us a little further afield than when we are guided by Gibson or Mathews. The author says in the preface that his notebooks were slipshod, and this may well be; but, so far as a careful reading has shown, they are slip-

shod for ease of progression, and this in the country is not a fault. Sir Herbert has made his notes on the spot, and hence, though with an appearance of carelessness, they are accurate. And, finally, we may say that the three books taken as the heading for this notice are all laid down on out-of-door lines, and were not first drawn up in a windowless library. We congratulate our readers on the gratification they will have as they add these books to the scores of excellent ones which have preceded them from Walton's time, or even long before, down. The list is a long one, and none of the works can be spared.

A Manual of Aesopic Fable Literature: A First Book of Reference for the Period ending A. D. 1500. [Romance and Other Studies, by G. C. Keidel, Ph.D., Assistant in Romance Languages in the Johns Hopkins University. Number Two. First Fascicule.] Baltimore.

Dr. Keidel's introduction gives a brief statement of the scope of his study and a description of three facsimiles of works whose appearance here is entirely irrelevant. There is no systematic account of the Aesopic Fable, and the fascicule consists of lists of titles relating to the following topics: "History of Aesopic Fable Literature," "History of Related Subjects," "History of Special Fields of Fable Literature," "Definition of Fable," "History of Single Fables," "Tables of Fable Literature," and "Incunabula." The author states that the Aesopic Fable is "in the domain of his habitual studies," but to judge by his present performance he is astonishingly ignorant of the field. A glance at the section "Volkskunde" in the Bibliography of the *Germania*, or at the *Jahresbericht über die Erscheinungen auf dem Gebiete der Germanischen Philologie*, or at the indexes of the great folk-lore journals, will show how lamentably incomplete are the lists mentioned above. For example, Dr. Keidel mentions but six histories of single fables: one by himself in the *Zeitschrift für Vergleichende Litteraturgeschichte*, an anonymous one in *Harper's Magazine*, and one in Bédier's *Fabliaux*, leaving but three independent works. Surely, Dr. Keidel does not suppose that these are all, and yet he says, p. xiii: "With the complete list of books on Fable Literature here cited before him, any student may approach the subject for serious study without great misgivings as to a lack of the necessary material for general investigations, etc." In the list of definitions of Fable the height of absurdity is reached by the citation of "Webster, *International Dictionary*, *s. v.* fable and apologue."

The author has bestowed great pains on the bibliographical details of his work, with some curious results. In citing the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, he gives not only the size, "8vo, 1,272 pp.," but the wholly useless: "Bureau de la Revue des Deux Mondes, 20 Rue Saint-Benoît." In citing Hervieux, 'Les Fabulistes Latins,' he gives five separate entries for the five volumes, and under every one we have: "Librairie de Firmin-Didot et Cie., 56 Rue Jacob." The author says he has made generous use of bold-faced type, and "hopes it will, with the numerous Reference Lists appended, make the present Manual one of easy and rapid reference—an essential characteristic of such a work only too often overlooked by compilers." How generous the author has been is shown on pp. 58-60, where may be found 84 successive lines of bold-faced type conveying—the *number of leaves* in the various editions of the incunabula cited in an earlier part of the work! It is, however, upon the list of incunabula that Dr. Keidel has expended most of his labor. It might be criticised for its contents, *e. g.*, if Vincent of Beauvais is included, so should other mediæval works containing fables be. But there are more serious faults. First, as to arrangement: the works are given in the supposed order of printing, but about a third are merely approximate dates, and why make such an uncertain matter the basis of tabulation? In consequence of this the same work is entered several times because different dates are assigned by different authorities. The only authorities cited in the list of 178 incunabula are: Hervieux, 'Les Fabulistes Latins,' Brunet's 'Manuel,' and the British Museum Catalogue, *s. v. Aesop*. The list of incunabula is followed by several reference lists, most of which are entirely out of place. It is impossible to see why the number of leaves of the folio and quarto editions should be given in a separate list, and that, too, as has been said, in the most prominent type. The list of "Cities Where Preserved" duplicates the list of "Extant Copies," and the "Alphabetical List of Sales and Catalogues" and the separate list of "Prices Brought" are of no practical use to the student of Aesopic literature.

It is to be regretted that Dr. Keidel has lavished so much labor to so little purpose. He seems to have printed the contents of his notebooks, and has produced a work of small value to students, and which, it is no exaggeration to say, might have been condensed into a dozen pages.

Sketches of Travel in Normandy and Maine. By Edward A. Freeman. With illustrations from drawings by the Author, and a preface by W. H. Hutton, B.D., Fellow and Tutor of St. John's College, Oxford. Macmillan. 1897. $2.50.

The historian Freeman was always greatly interested in geography, in topography, and in buildings, as, indeed, an historian ought to be. His possession of considerable means enabled him to travel much, and he used his journeys to excellent advantage by constant and close study of the localities in which his historical interest was centred. His many volumes of historical essays show this strong interest in ancient cities and in ancient structures, and, besides those, there are detached essays on purely architectural subjects, and several volumes devoted almost exclusively to towns and the buildings which compose them. 'Historical and Architectural Sketches, Chiefly Italian,' appeared in 1876, and 'Sketches from the Subject and the Neighbor-Lands of Venice' appeared in 1881, and now a third volume appears, uniform in size with the others, and worthy to be their companion. Each of the three volumes is illustrated by very singular drawings, unskilful quite beyond the power of words to express their unskilfulness; but also, we think, erroneous—exactly as a bad drawing of a flower or bush is erroneous—erroneous in the sense of giving a false idea of the object represented. Mr. Freeman always had the notion that a simple, straightforward, well-meant drawing of a piece of architecture ought to carry it with the student. That he had seen the building with his own eyes and had set down on paper just what he saw, was enough, he seems to have thought, to show to the reader also what he, the writer, had seen. How completely a bad drawing of a good building can misrepresent that building was unsuspected by him.

The same oversight, or error, marks the literary treatment of architecture in the books under consideration. Mr. Freeman is often mentioned as a writer on architecture whose words are of weight, but it must be stated plainly that these words are of weight only as suggestions as to date and origin, and that to the better informed student. Nowhere in Mr. Freeman's work is there any indication that he was interested in construction, or that he knew what construction was, or that architectural styles depend upon it; nor is architectural sculpture of interest to him except as he thinks, or fancies, that such and such a piece of carving must have been done at the order of some historical personage in whom, for the moment, he is interested. This architectural criticism is inconceivably insular, and he compares Continental work with English to the disadvantage of the former in a most amusing way. More than almost any other writer that we can name he misunderstands the artistic purpose in fine ancient buildings, and ignores the important to insist upon the trivial.

It is because long essays by Mr. Freeman are printed as prefatory or explanatory notices to plates from drawings by others, and because he is ranked seriously among writers on architecture, that it has seemed necessary to make these remarks. The book before us cannot be praised as a treatise on architecture. As an assistant to the guide-books, as an additional and fuller guide-book for the region which it covers, it must be praised and should be freely used, in spite of the extraordinary blunder on p. 204, where we are told that the great south spire of Chartres is modern and of iron, although "it very well reproduces the outline of the elder one of wood."

Papers and Notes on the Genesis of the Diamond. By the late Henry Carvill Lewis. Edited by Prof. T. G. Bonney. Longmans, Green & Co. 1897.

Abstracts of these interesting papers appeared about ten years ago, but a singularly unhappy fate has attended the production of the complete texts. The talented young geologist who wrote them, and whose work on the 'Glacial Geology of Great Britain' was reviewed in these columns in 1895, died in 1888, committing his manuscript to George H. Williams, whom also his colleagues have to lament. The manuscripts were then committed to Prof. Bonney.

In his preface the editor announces as Mr. Lewis's view of the genesis of the diamond that it is due to "the action of an extremely basic rock upon carbonaceous material." As the editor must have read the papers, and these are clear in their statements, one can only say that Mr. Bonney's representation is singularly misleading. Lewis never saw the Kimberley mines, but examined suites of specimens with most painstaking care, and his conclusions are in the main geologically correct. The mines are volcanic "necks," or the conduits of ancient volcanoes, filled for the most part with an igneous

breccia which arose from the breaking up of solid lava crusts in liquid lava. With the breccia are mingled fragments of wall rock. Much of the wall rock is a bituminous shale, and some geologists have ascribed the formation of the diamonds to the action of the igneous rock on this material. Not so Lewis, who wrote: "The diamonds are as much a part of the Kimberley rock as biotite, garnet, titanic and chromic iron, and perovskite, and, like these minerals, may be considered a rock ingredient." He also points to the abundance of minute, almost microscopic, crystals of black diamond as evidence that these were not enclosures brought up from some other matrix, such as gneiss or itacolumite. The shale, he truly says, is most plentiful near the top of the Kimberley mine, and less frequent in the deeper portions; while the diamonds "continue just as abundant, if not more so, the deeper the mines are explored." They are, according to Lewis, never found in, or especially associated with, the foreign inclusions; and this is correct. As to the origin of the carbon, Lewis does not commit himself.

Lewis went astray in his interpretation of the fractured diamonds of these deposits. Some of the gems go to pieces spontaneously after they have been extracted; these specimens have, as a rule, a peculiar brownish color, and are readily distinguished by experts. The cause of the disintegration is very probably included gas. The fragments of diamonds found in the rock itself are rarely if ever of this character, nor do they present any other peculiarity. They are in all respects comparable with the broken porphyritic crystals of other minerals which Lewis observed in the rock, and all these fractures are referable to the moment of explosive expulsion of the lava from its deep-seated source. Such fracturing is common in igneous rocks.

These papers give full attention to the mineralogical composition of the rock which Lewis named Kimberlite. It is chiefly composed of olivine and contains no feldspar. It closely resembles some stony meteorites. Similar rocks are found in the United States, but the diamond has been detected in its original matrix only in the South African deposits.

Year-Books of the Reign of King Edward the Third. Year XVI. (First Part). Edited and translated by Luke Owen Pike. London: Eyre & Spottiswoode. Pp. c, 338.

An interval of some five years and a half separates the publication of this volume and that of the Year-Books of 15 Edward III. The delay has not been the editor's fault, and we are now assured that the publication of these excellent volumes will proceed "not less rapidly, at any rate, than in earlier years." Not only is the thorough and scholarly method of editing, which Mr. Pike introduced, to be continued, but a Calendar of the Plea Rolls of the Common Bench is to be published, "including all the cases which reached final judgment or issue." This will be of great service to legal scholars.

Much the greater part of Mr. Pike's learned "Introduction" is devoted to the consideration of a case relating to a charter of Edward III. to the burgesses of Wells, and to the history of that borough. This has less interest for us than for English scholars; but still the students of the subject of corporations will find it valuable. "It was really about the reign of Edward III. . . . that the idea of the lay corporation, the lay *persona ficta* (as now understood), was painfully elaborated." Those who have visited the beautiful city of Wells will be interested in this passage: "They [the burgesses of Wells] had wished to have their town walled, embattled, and moated. A little before this time [1342] the Bishop of Bath and Wells (Ralph of Shrewsbury) had applied for a license to fortify his own palace with wall and battlements and turrets; and he succeeded where they failed. His battlements still remain, with a moat around them, as a monument of this memorable struggle of the fourteenth century."

At p. xxii Mr. Pike has an interesting passage on *peasants*, "a word which does not often occur in the Year-Books." A peasant, he says, is etymologically an inhabitant of the country (*pays* or *pais*). But a freeholder could not be a peasant; and so when an issue was to be tried by the country (*patria*, *pais*), the word *pais* did duty for a word (*patria*) with which it had no etymological connection; being itself derived from *pagus* or *pagensis*. And so an issue to be tried by the *pais* could not be tried by the *paisans*, because they were not free and lawful men.

At p. 290, the Latin record is preserved of a case involving the trial of a jury by an attaint jury of twenty-four. Three of the original jury were dead.

It is interesting to see the appearance in 1342 of names with which we are now familiar. The manors of Wassyntone and of Seggewyke, in Sussex, and the names of Henry de Walcote, Thomas de Musegrove, Thoms Doraunt, John Del Feld, Ranf de Bethum, or, as it is variously spelled, Bethun and Bethon (meaning Beetham in Westmorland), and Hugh de Chew, are among those which should interest many of our readers.

In a strictly legal point of view, this volume has less interest than most of its predecessors.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anderson, Jessie M. A Study of English Words. American Book Co. 40c.
Bisland, Elizabeth. Old Greenwich. [Papers on Historic New York.] Putnams. 10c.
Boswell, James. The Life of Samuel Johnson. [Temple Classics.] Vol. I. London: Dent; New York. Macmillan. 50c.
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Hempl, Prof. George. German Orthography and Phonology. A Treatise with a Word-List. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2.10.
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Lewis, A. H. Wolfville. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Noble, Harriet. Literary Art: A Handbook for its Study. Terre Haute: Inland Publishing Co. $1.
Ripley, F. H., and Tappen, Thomas. The Advanced Music Reader. American Book Co. $1.
Sheridan, R. B. The School for Scandal. [Temple Dramatists.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. 45c.
Swan, C. H., jr. Monetary Problems and Reforms. Putnams. 75c.
Waliszewski, K. Peter the Great. Appletons. $2.
Whitman, Sidney. Imperial Germany. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent.
Wilkins, Mary E. Jerome, a Poor Man. Harpers. $1.50.
Wright, G. E. On the Outer Rim: Studies in Wider Evolution. Chicago: A. C. Clark. 50c.
Yeats, S. L. The Chevalier d'Auriac. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Zehender, Prof. W. von. Die Welt-Religionen auf dem Columbia-Congress von Chicago. Munich: The Author.

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ADDRESS

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 19, 1897.

The Week.

The action of the Ohio Silver Republicans in endorsing the Democratic State ticket has again set the Republicans appealing for the support of the Gold Democrats. Senator Hanna and Gov. Bushnell realize that it would be an uncommonly handy thing to have the Gold Democratic vote this November, as they had it last. But are they not a trifle late about making this discovery? Are they not, in fact, guilty of something very like impudence and indecency in now asking the aid of men whom they have improved their months of power to insult in speech and offend in legislation? It has been great fun for Hanna's man Grosvenor to sneer at Mugwumps and gird at civil-service reform; the party has had a fine time paying off its debts with the tariff and dodging currency reform; but it is sacred simplicity to turn around now and ask for the continued support of the very men who feel themselves flouted and betrayed. At the precise instant that Platt's newspaper is calling upon the Gold Democrats of New York to support Platt against Bryanism, Platt's Collector of the Port peremptorily dismisses from office the Gold Democrat who has been serving as cashier of the custom-house. This is neither magnificent nor is it war. The fact is that the course of the Republicans on the currency has been marked, since the election, by such vacillation and insincerity that they have lost all title to the support of Democrats devoted to the gold standard. Why should a new set of promises be trusted when the old was so shamelessly violated? No; the Gold Democrats in Ohio and all other States must run a ticket of their own, and avoid fresh betrayals. The question of what candidates for the Legislature should be supported will have to be settled in each district on its own merits.

One of the difficulties encountered by a "progressive" party is that of progressing in a uniform way. Some members of the party want to advance faster than others, and it is hard work to keep them together. The Ohio Populists seem to have been embarrassed by this difficulty in their recent convention. Some of them wanted to be conservative and consult expediency by combining with the Democrats. Others preferred devotion to principle above the allurements of success, and as they were in the majority they insisted that their comrades should fall into line. The controversy that followed was marked by fraternal freedom of speech. The hypocrisies of parliamentary procedure were discarded, and the opinions which politicians frequently hold of one another, but do not publicly proclaim, were on this occasion frankly expressed. The "Middle-of-the-Road" element accused their temporizing brethren of being paid by John R. McLean to favor fusion with the Democrats. The fusionists retorted that the advanced element was paid by Senator Hanna to nominate a straight Populist ticket, and they followed up the charge by producing a check for $25 signed by Major Dick, who is in charge of Senator Hanna's canvass. The holder of this check said it was given him for services to be rendered in defeating fusion, but he had abstained from cashing it because he wanted to use it as evidence that Major Dick was debauching Populists. The Rev. J. A. Taylor testified that Major Dick had given him a check for $25 for the same purpose, but that he had cashed it and spent the money. The discussion became so animated, and the charges of falsehood and corruption so plainly sincere and truthful, as to lead to personal assaults, and the police had to be called in to enable the delegates to make their imputations against one another audible. Finally the orthodox element prevailed, adopted a platform which is a logical development of that adopted by the Democrats at Chicago, and nominated "General" Coxey for Governor. The nominee for Judge of the Supreme Court very properly assured the convention that if he was elected, no injunction against anarchy or anything else should be issued. This is the class of people to which the Democratic party last year surrendered its organization.

A belated *Congressional Record* prints a belated speech of Congressman Grosvenor's on "Civil Service Run Mad." Some of the virus must have got into Grosvenor himself, for he has clear symptoms of rabies. He pictures civil-service reformers "fawning at the feet of power," and demanding that the President shall not appoint so much as a "messenger to guard the archives of his own executive office" without the consent of his "malignant enemies" of the Civil-Service Commission. This is running mad indeed, and no wonder that Grosvenor's fury rises as he contemplates the President, by his recent order extending the merit system, actually giving his malignant enemies still more power over appointments. Grosvenor forgives McKinley for this, but serves notice that at the coming session of Congress the whole nefarious law shall be cut up by the roots. His idea is one of masterly simplicity. Let Congressmen certify the fitness of candidates for office, and so do away with these cumbrous examinations which "smother the voice of the people." At the close of his speech, Grosvenor worked around slyly to his own district. He nobly avowed that it did not "lower his sense of personal dignity" to rally old and young and promise each an office; whatever may be the case with other Congressmen, he has not yet reached the point of "contempt for his constituents," but is, on the contrary, "always willing and anxious to aid them to secure the blessings and emoluments of the administration of the government." It is declared that this speech will make Grosvenor the "chief idol" of his Ohio partisans. It ought to. That was the object of its alleged delivery in Congress. Still, one would like to put a question to Grosvenor's constituents. He has no contempt for them; can they say as much for him?

The Kentucky Republicans in their State convention last week "reaffirmed" the national platform of last year, and endorsed the new tariff, which, with a cheerful confidence based on no known facts, they declare "will raise revenue sufficient to support the government and prevent the issue of interest-bearing bonds," as well as protect American labor. Nothing whatever was said in the resolutions about the currency question, although Senator Deboe, in his speech as temporary chairman, was not afraid to use the word gold, remarking that "the Republican party is in favor of a sound and safe financial system, and believes that this is best maintained by having gold as the standard of value." Among the principles set forth in last year's national platform which were reaffirmed was the statement that "we renew our repeated declarations that the civil-service law shall be thoroughly and honestly enforced and extended wherever practicable," but this did not prevent the adoption of the following protest against the whole system based on that law:

> "We are opposed to a system of civil service that builds up an official class of practically life tenure in almost all branches of the public service, and we demand that the civil service be so modified as to limit the terms of service to four years, with the privilege of reappointment or promotion, subject to such restrictions as will secure competent officials and to every section of the country its proper proportion of them."

In view of the fact that a Republican President has just extended the scope of the merit system by a new rule designed to insure greater permanence of tenure. this is a most extraordinary deliverance. It is practically a rebuke of Mr. McKinley for his recent order, and a proposal to undo his work.

The Dingley tariff bill went from the Senate to the conference committee on July 7. Although it was not finally reported and passed until July 24, importers reckoned on immediate enactment, and as a consequence the enormous rush of anticipative imports, which had continued since the opening of March, was practically ended by July. The foreign trade statement for that month, issued on Monday by the Bureau of Statistics, shows how sudden has been the resultant shrinkage in the country's merchandise importations. Last February, the total of these imports was $59,193,868, or less than those of February, 1896. In March the total rose to $76,372,831, in April to $101,305,131. Even in June it had fallen only to $84,826,110. In July, however, the record of the country's imports fell off $31,137,621 from the month preceding, and amounted to only $53,688,489, the smallest total since last January, and only a trifle over that of July, 1896, when import trade was almost at low ebb. For August the import movement has undoubtedly been smaller still; the average of foreign imports at New York, for instance, since the month began, has been fully $4,000,000 weekly under that of the month of July. If the same percentage of decrease has been maintained this month at other ports—and New York's trade is usually typical—the total August importations will be by far the smallest of any month in many years. Thus far in August, by the Treasury's official statements, customs receipts foot up $3,236,513, against $5,707,885 for the corresponding period of 1896. In other words, they are, under the Dingley tariff, less by 40 per cent. than they were under the Wilson tariff in one of the worst months of its history.

Since February, imported merchandise has exceeded exports by an average of $10,000,000 monthly; during April, the import excess rose to $23,579,431. It was largely settlement for these trade obligations which kept the New York sterling market high, and forced, even last month, the shipment of $5,460,000 gold in the face of the heavy European demand for grain. But the decreased importations in July have resulted in a merchandise export balance of $17,723,966. In August this excess of exports will increase enormously. Imports, as we have seen, have decreased rapidly, even from July; meantime, our shipments, of cereals especially, have risen to enormous figures. Last week this country sent out 4,460,519 bushels of wheat, against a weekly average, in July, of barely 2,200,000. Export of other farm products shows similar remarkable increase, and the gain over 1896 and 1895 is as heavy as the gain over preceding months this year. It is hardly a matter for surprise that this month's sterling exchange market, under such conditions, should have broken violently, and that imports of gold from Europe are already a topic of discussion.

One piece of knavery has been found in the Dingley tariff—that is, an unexpected piece. Opinions may differ as to the schedules which were discussed and understood, giving increased advantages and bounties to the rich, but in all such cases the action taken was known or might have been known by the Congressmen who voted for them. The extra 10 per cent. tax put upon goods passing through Canada was a downright swindle, because it was introduced by stealth. If its existence had been known or suspected it would have been strongly resisted by New England and by parts of the West which now enjoy the competition in freights which the Canadian Pacific and Grand Trunk railways give. It would have been defeated, as it had been defeated before when presented on its own merits. For this reason we call it downright knavery. And now the question has arisen whether another similar trick was not played with the bill by introducing the Sewall-Elkins provision for discriminating duties in favor of American ships—that is, imposing 10 per cent. extra duties on goods imported in foreign bottoms. This measure was identified with the name of Mr. Bryan's running mate, Sewall, who was nominated because he represented that scheme. The measure was introduced by Senator Elkins, but fell dead. It did not find any support in either branch of Congress, and it was opposed by the leading protectionist newspapers. That there was a design to work it into the Dingley bill by stealth is very evident. Whether it was successful or not is uncertain. The Treasury officials are inclined to think that the change introduced into the phraseology of the law was not sufficient to accomplish the end which was evidently aimed at, but Mr. A. R. Smith, who carried on Sewall's literary bureau during the last campaign, insists that the discriminating duty has been enacted. What a queer thought!

The Attorney-General is said to be giving much thought, before making his decision on the 10 per cent. discriminating duty on goods in bond coming through Canada, to the question what was "the intention of Congress." This is doubtless a consideration to be taken into account in interpreting an ordinary statute, but it is farcically beside the mark in construing any tariff law, especially such a swindling clause as the one in controversy, smuggled in as it was in conference and voted by both houses in the dark. Senator Hoar has declared that the Dingley bill as a whole was passed blindfold, the House not being trusted to so much as read it. This was certainly the case with the discriminating duty, which not one Congressman in ten knew anything about till it was sprung on the surprised public. For the Attorney-General now to reason gravely on what was "the apparent purpose of Congress" is a little too absurd. The men for him to apply to are the ones who had the clause inserted in the way that "Zekle crep' up, quite unbeknown." If these interested parties have got the Canadian Pacific down; if they have succeeded in secretly manipulating a federal statute so as to put money in their own pockets, let the Attorney-General say so and declare the law. It will be only one swindle more to charge up against the Dingley bill. But let us at least avoid the solemn nonsense of arguing what Congress intended by a law which it did not know it was passing.

Is Stewart among the prophets? And Jones? These eminent silverites are at least among the profits in Wall Street, and are talking in a way to make their constituents think they have been imbibing a great deal of prosperity, or something equally exhilarating. Such a fear will be particularly aroused by Senator Jones's remarks about Trusts. One result of the prosperity which he foresees, will be an "abeyance of this hatred of Trusts." Jones, for his part, proclaims that he never cherished "enmity towards combinations of capital." This has been suspected. It could be believed even of other Senators. But what Jones wants is that all the people should have the same kindly feelings towards Trusts which warm his bosom. They doubtless would if they had the same facilities as he and Stewart have for visiting Wall Street and, as the latter expresses it, just "going to sleep and getting rich." No wonder that Stewart says this is no time for pessimism. If the prince of pessimists gives it up, and admits that "there is nothing in talking silver at the present time," it is time for the little fellows to see that it is all up with the silver issue. Stewart contemplating with entire serenity the fall of silver to 25 cents an ounce and drawing the interest on his mortgages in gold; Jones solemnly announcing that he is not "opposed" to prosperity through good crops and an increase of gold—these are marvels to make one doubt if the age of miracles is really gone. The real significance of their conversion is, of course, their confession that the silver craze is nothing but a product of hard times. Crimes of '73 and conspiracies of the money-power and wrongs to silver and robberies of the people—all disappear like exhalations the moment good times return.

The renewed decline in the price of

silver is said to be causing much inconvenience in Mexico. The foreign exchanges are quite demoralized, and merchants hardly know how much to ask for the goods they sell or how much to pay for what they buy. The Government suffers, just as that of India formerly did. The amount of the public debt on which interest is payable in gold at London is about $110,000,000, but with silver at its present price this interest charge costs the Mexican Government probably over $13,000,000 a year in silver money. On the other hand, it costs only about $3,000,000 for interest on the internal debt, the principal of which is about $80,000,000. Still, the population of Mexico is not far from 13,000,000, and the revenue of the Government is some $47,000,000, so that no serious embarrassment is to be apprehended. The Mexican Government is not in the banking business, and has no promissory notes outstanding. The limited paper currency of the country is furnished by the banks, which appear from their reports to be substantial enough institutions. So far as the Government is concerned, it may have to apply a larger portion of its revenues to the purchase of exchange on London, but its revenues will probably be sufficiently elastic to meet the additional charge.

The fall in the price of silver affects the country as a whole more than it does the Government. Silver is by far the most important of Mexican exports. In the year 1895-'96, the value of the silver, silver ore, and silver coin exported was returned at over $56,000,000, which was considerably greater than the value of all other exports put together, including gold. The quantity of silver produced increases steadily and quite largely, but its purchasing power in the markets of the world is constantly diminishing. The fall in its price is no greater than other nations have witnessed in the case of some of their important products. Iron and copper are a great deal cheaper than they used to be, and so are many other things. But the present decline in silver comes at a time when general prices show a tendency to rise, and it is therefore a serious matter for the foreign trade of the Mexicans.

Consul-General Lee has made a report on the relief of distressed Americans in Cuba. It will be remembered that the President appealed to Congress on May 17 to pass an "immediate" appropriation of $50,000 for the purpose. There was great urgency, and the general impression was that much more money would be needed. But $50,000 would do to begin with, and Congress voted it in hot haste. Now, three months later, Gen. Lee reports that his first credit of $10,000 is "nearly exhausted." He has fed every distressed American he could find, and has furnished transportation to those wishing it. Of the whole number, 95 per cent. are naturalized Americans; most of them do not speak English and have never lived in the United States; many of them have never even been in the United States, being the wives and children of men who came to this country just long enough to be naturalized. Gen. Lee's report is thus an official exposure of the bunco game played on the President and Congress last May. By working hard for three months, the relievers have spent less than one-fifth of the sum which was "immediately" needed.

Kansas takes the equivalent of a State census every year, through the returns sent to the capital by the township assessors every summer. The showing just made is the most satisfactory for ten years. During nearly all of that period the State has been either losing population or barely holding its own. In 1888 there were 1,518,552 inhabitants, while in 1891 the number had sunk to 1,338,811. Slight gains in 1892 and 1893 were followed by losses in 1894 and 1895, the census in the latter year showing only 1,334,734. This was low-water mark, and last year the tide began to set the other way, the figures for 1896 being 1,336,659. This summer the current is seen to be running more swiftly, the population being now reported as 1,366,789. This is still far short of the figures eight or ten years ago, but it seems reasonable to expect that the gain will continue. The only serious obstacle in the way is the fact that Populism is in power, and cannot be ousted for some time.

The announcement that Mr. Low has become satisfied that he is the man who to the most people represents the idea of honest municipal government will not surprise the public, but it is none the less gratifying, because it assures the presentation of his name as that of the candidate who is to stand for the principle of good government in the approaching struggle for the mayoralty of Greater New York. Pending his nomination, it is amusing to observe the helpless air which characterizes the professional politicians of both parties as they see the people thrusting the "workers" aside and taking charge of the election. They have never known anything like this Low movement before, and they find it harder to understand, the further it is carried. At first they were going to laugh it down, but ridicule has failed, and they do not know what to try next. The shrewder men on the Republican side already see that there is no way of stemming the tide, and that the only thing for the "organization" to do is to accept the inevitable as gracefully as possible.

The assessors of Westchester County, N. Y.. appear to have adopted a rule of their own for arriving at the value of real estate. They say that they ascertained, as well as they could, the price paid for each piece of property, and then added thereto whatever had been expended for improvements. They claim to have increased assessments from a desire to comply with the law; but the law contains nothing to warrant assessments made on any such principle as they have adopted. It requires them to assess property at its fair value, and the amount that has been expended upon real estate has very little relation to its fair value. That value is indicated by the market price. Land that is productive of revenue sells at a figure proportioned to the revenue. Land that is unproductive sells according to its attractiveness for purposes of residence. When such land is sold, the purchaser seldom pays much attention to the amount of money that previous occupants have expended. He generally thinks that in many ways they spent their money foolishly, and proceeds to spend his money in undoing their work. The value of the property may thus be correspondingly increased to him, but it is seldom correspondingly increased to any one else. The fair value of land for purposes of taxation is not what it has cost, or what the owner would take for it, but what in the ordinary course of business men would be found willing to give. To assess property at a higher rate than this deserves indictment at least as much as to assess it for less.

It is a great thing to have the honor of the Italian troops in Abyssinia so clearly vindicated. Yet it hung on how small a thread! If the Count of Turin's foot had slipped, or if his sword-hand had been disabled instead of merely scratched, the world would have had to believe that the Italian soldiers are thieves and cowards. But now, that wound in the subcutaneous tissue of Prince Henry's abdomen proves conclusively that they are not. No wonder there was great rejoicing in Rome. The national reputation has been cleared by one thrust in a foreign abdomen. This answers all questions as to what the facts are. Facts, just look at that wound! Schopenhauer lavished his mordant sarcasm on the duel as a means of moral and legal proof of innocence or guilt, but even Schopenhauer would find it hard to do justice to the extravagant features—the absurdity, the *réclame*, the immense journalistic exaggeration—of the Sunday's duel in France between two royal self-advertisers. But, seriously, the incident is a deplorable aggravation of the international ill-feeling which has been deepening for twenty years, fostered by the press of both countries, and finding expression in tariff hostilities and in brutal mobbings.

BANKING REFORM.

In the latest publication of the Gold Standard Defence Association of Great Britain, Mr. B. E. Walker of Toronto discusses the banking system of Canada and incidentally that of the United States. The paper is only an eight-page leaflet, yet it embodies all that is needful to Mr. Walker's purpose, which is to explain why there is no silver party in Canada, and no agitation for free coinage and "cheap money." The reason is a very simple one. Canada has a good banking system. The loanable capital of the country, and its loanable credit, be the same more or less, are equally available in all parts of the Dominion at all times. There is no surfeit at the commercial centres and simultaneous scarcity at the small towns. That phenomenon is avoided by the system of branch banking which prevails in Canada, whereby the reserves of the banks are made available at all points where branches exist, just as the water in a reservoir finds its way to all the pipes and small tanks connected with it. "The agitation in the United States in favor of the unlimited coinage of silver," says Mr. Walker, "is simply the form in which the discontent with existing conditions is expressed by those who do not understand currency and banking problems."

Mr. Walker has here told a truth, but there is something more to be said about the agitation. It is largely based on the collapse of speculation which took place in the years immediately following the Baring panic in London. This occurred in 1890. It disturbed the whole financial world. It shook the fabric of inflated values in South America, Australia, and the United States. It brought on liquidations in all those countries as well as in England. It happened to coincide with a fatal step in the United States—the Sherman act of 1890. That ill-starred measure was passed, not to make money plenty—there was no scarcity of money then—but to insure the passage of the McKinley tariff. It was one of the "political dodges" of which our financial legislation during the past twenty years presents many instances. It was perhaps the worst of all of them. It came at a time of all others when careful, conservative action was needed. It created distrust among capitalists at home and abroad, and it played into the hands of the speculators, enabling them to float more securities and sell more town lots on the prairies, on which the purchasers made only the first payment, about enough to defray the cost of surveying and "staking out" the phantom cities. It promised more money, but it really made less, since it sent gold out of the country and filled the circulation with a new kind of moonshine currency that all men of sense distrusted.

The collapse of 1893 was the consequence. When it came, the speculators of all degrees said that there was not money enough, and the demagogues took their cue from that text. There was not enough money for them, and there never could be enough, because their schemes required more and more in ever-increasing volume. The only safety was in stopping the source of inflation. The country recognized that fact and applied the only possible remedy—the unconditional repeal of the Sherman act. The card-house of speculation was bound to fall. It had really fallen before the act was repealed, but, as in all such cases, the speculators deluded themselves with the belief that the trouble was a lack of money. So they took up the free-coinage issue. The demagogue politicians "caught on" and the campaign of 1896 followed.

While it is true, therefore, as Mr. Walker says, that the demand for free silver was an expression of discontent with existing conditions, that is not the whole truth. On the other hand, it is undoubtedly true that the lack of facilities such as exist in Canada, in Scotland, and in most countries of Europe for the prompt distribution of banking capital and banking credit has been, and still is, an aggravating circumstance. It is true also, we think, that if our banking system were assimilated to those of Canada and Scotland the free-coinage men would not have much ground to stand on. They are losing ground pretty fast now; they would collapse completely if the mobility of capital and credit were as well provided for among us as it is among our neighbors on the north. This mobility is secured in two ways; first, by the branch banks, and second, by the issue of notes against the bank's general assets instead of special security deposited with the Government. Both these reforms will come in time, but perhaps not until the end of some new financial convulsion. The temper of Congress at present is against banks without regard to circumstances. This is shown by the fact that so simple and unobjectionable a measure as allowing the national banks to issue notes up to the par value of their security bonds cannot be passed. It is a paradox, but it is true, that in bad times when we need banking reform we cannot get it, because the banks are held responsible for the bad times. Let us hope that when good times come, when the pressure is removed, there may be a relaxation of the unfounded prejudice against banks, which blocks all movements to make them better. When that time comes it is most probable that reform will follow the lines indicated by Mr. Walker, *i. e.*, branch banks and note issues against general assets, coupled with such security as experience has shown to be needful to protect the noteholder against loss.

OUR MACHIAVELLIANISM.

Mr. Frederick Greenwood, in a striking article in the August *Cosmopolis*, characterizes John Morley's recent Romanes lecture on Machiavelli as "the most stirring political pamphlet that has dropped from the English press for many a year." The reason why this academic lecture really turns out to be a tract for the times is that Machiavelli and Machiavellianism are just now enjoying a sustained reaction in their favor. Party politics, as Sir Henry Maine pointed out, always embodies some of the worst political faults attributed to Machiavelli; but it is now "in the rising conflict of nations for commerce and for empire" that "the returning influence of Machiavellian precept is to be dreaded." Of course Machiavelli remains, as Macaulay said he was, in the popular conception, the discoverer of ambition and revenge and the original inventor of perjury; but for his fatal 'Prince,' we should never have heard of a hypocrite, a traitor, or a tyrant in public life. But if we damn his person only to follow his doctrine, we but emphasize his triumph; our very hypocrisy proves him right.

If Machiavellianism may be conveniently summarized as the justification of deceit and fraud in statesmanship, the assertion of "reasons of state" over morality, of brute force over humanity, it is not difficult, as Mr. Greenwood truly says, to show that the nineteenth century in England is in no position to hold up its hands in horror at the sixteenth century in Italy.

> "The coarser corruptions in old countries have been nearly extinguished, leaving only the finer; and there are no coarse crimes in high places. Yet, if Machiavelli could review with that illuminating eye of his our treatment of the bad black man Lobengula, and the Rhodesian plot, and those other more delicate matters which Mr. Morley's warning against hypocrisy started me upon, he might say: 'I see that I spoke truly. Men may change their garb, their aspect, their language, the scene and scope of their activities, but human nature remains the same.'"

It would be pleasant to dwell upon Mr. Greenwood's account of Machiavelli in modern English politics; the vices as well as the misfortunes of our friends it is always edifying to contemplate. But it may be more profitable, if also more ungracious, to ask at what points the political maxims of the great Italian are establishing their hold on our own political life. In domestic affairs, the danger might appear to be reduced to a minimum. The sixteenth-century Prince had his own subjects to conspire against as well as foreign enemies to plot to ruin; citizens of the state were to be tricked and cheated and lied to and despoiled for "reasons of state." All that, in its crude form, has passed away. Government is no longer a separate power intriguing against its own people—though it is still common enough to see one set of people taking possession of it

and using it to intrigue against another set. But we have only to read party for Prince to see that the rules of conduct which Machiavelli laid down for the Prince are threatening to become practically the working principles of party.

The Prince was under no obligation to tell the truth; neither is the party leader. To make matters easy for himself, to secure ample revenues, to maintain his army, to appease discontent and quell insurrection, the Prince was justified in resorting to any kind of deceit or treachery or force. Who will say that the same thing is not now substantially true of party politics in an emergency? What else is involved, in the last analysis, in the favorite excuse, which is also the condemnation, of public men, that they "must support their party"? It simply means that considerations of morals must give way to considerations of party. That is Machiavellianism. The last tariff bill is the last instance of its working. A bill of false pretences and of jobs and swindles innumerable, it owed its enactment to the votes of men who bitterly denounced many of its features, and who were thoroughly convinced of its impolicy and injustice, yet who sacrificed their convictions and their constituents to the demands of party. Machiavelli would have approved this.

But it is true of us, as it is, according to Mr. Greenwood, of England, that the greatest temptation to adopt the methods of the Prince is in foreign policy. There we instinctively feel ourselves freed from some of the restraints which we recognize in domestic policy. The real reason is that we practically identify the conduct of foreign relations with the conduct of a foreign war. In war everything is fair. But in the fierce struggle for trade and territory, preliminary negotiations are practically the beginning of war; therefore, everything in them, too, is fair. If it is right to trick an avowed enemy in every way; to mislead him as to your intentions; to show false lights; to give him lying information; to plot and plan in every way to trap and defeat him; why, so it is to do the same things to one who may become your enemy. It is only adopting the methods of war before the declaration of war. On no other ground can we account for some of the extraordinary positions taken by our Government in recent years. The easy disregard of treaties; the rash charges of oppression and bad faith flung about at other countries; the blind reaching out for territory without regard to the rights or fate of those who live on it—all these are Machiavellian characteristics and policies.

And they are defended by Machiavellian arguments. The Prince was to hesitate at no means necessary to his own self-defence or the growth of his power along with that of his rivals; instead of Prince, we say "state" or "nation," and allege the same justification. Things that are "necessary" for us we must do, whether right or wrong, just or unjust, merciful or inhuman. We do not know exactly how the Japanese and Chinese and Portuguese in the Hawaiian Islands will fare after annexation—it looks as if they would have a bad time of it; we are sorry for that, but of course we must have the islands. They are necessary to self-preservation. The "state" demands it, and the individual must not complain. But what really is this "state" of the Jingoes? Charles Buller said, when the Canadians in their troubles of 1837 were exhorted to trust "the mother country," that the mother country was really an old gentleman with a white cotton umbrella getting off an omnibus every morning in Downing Street. In like manner we should find, we fear, if we closely scrutinized the "state" which the Jingoes propose to make responsible, in some transcendental way, for all their cruel tender mercies to Japanese and Hawaiian, Cuban and Samoan, that it resolves itself into a group of scheming politicians, planters and traders not too scrupulous, eager and ambitious naval officers and naval contractors. They are our modern Machiavellis, and it is their growing control of our foreign policy which threatens to undo all that has been done to civilize it, to make it rational, moral, and humane.

STATE INSURANCE.

The proposed federal Australian state is to be, like ours, a government of enumerated powers; and in the draft now under discussion among the colonies, "State Insurance" is one of the proposed powers. This is, we believe, the first proposal of the kind ever made by the drafters of a written constitution, and is, therefore, of considerable importance. It is significant of the vague ideas which prevail on this subject that there is in the instrument no definition of what state insurance is, to what subjects it is to be applied, nor under what conditions. Yet this question lies at the very threshold of the matter. The grant of power might mean that the state was empowered to take over all the business now done by insurance companies, collect the premiums, and pay the losses; there is nothing absolutely revolutionary in such a scheme, yet we doubt if it is contemplated. On the other hand, one of the English colonies now carries on a business in land-titles which is almost identical in its effects with the business of the title-insurance companies as carried on in this country. Practically it guarantees every landholder against flaws in his title, receiving in return small fees from all landholders, which form a fund to indemnify adverse claimants. This system, which is very likely destined to spread over the world, is a very good illustration of a proper Government insurance business, all titles to property being a Government output, just as much as cutlery or matches are the product of private enterprise.

When it comes to the insurance of lives, or houses, or goods, however, the case is very different, and though it is perfectly conceivable that the State of New York, for instance, should expropriate and carry on the Equitable Company, nobody has, we believe, as yet seriously entertained the idea as a practical one. It is not quite like the idea of taking over the railroads, because in many states railroads are actually state property, and railroads are unquestionably public highways. It is a long way from state railways to general state insurance.

State insurance must, on the other hand, be distinguished from such schemes as the English compensation bill, designed to afford employees or servants pecuniary redress against accidents. This bill saddles the charge upon the employer, and not upon the state, and on this ground was very ingeniously defended by Lord Salisbury in the House of Lords the other day. What, he said, socialistic? Not a bit of it. This is a good, conservative measure, for it saddles the responsibility for the accidents in a mine or a factory upon the capitalist who gets the profit. It is in reality, he added, the present system which is socialistic. If a coal mine now explodes, and a number of miners are crippled and in consequence become destitute, they have to be supported by the parish—that is, the community at large—who have nothing to do with the matter, while under this good old-fashioned Tory measure the loss falls on the shoulders of the very man who set the miners at work, and but for whom, consequently, the accident would never have happened. Who can "ask fairer" than that?

This argument, of course, ignores the fact that the mine-owner may reply: "I did not cause the accident any more than you did. The cause of the accident was some carelessness, against which I took every imaginable precaution, and which, very likely, if the truth were known, was simply the recklessness of these very miners. If the courts say that I have been negligent, I am perfectly willing to pay; but to make me pay for accidents which I did my utmost to prevent, violates the first principles of justice." Into the merits of this argument it is not necessary to enter here; what we desire to point out is that Lord Salisbury is perfectly right in insisting that all poor-laws and taxes raised for the purpose of providing for the destitute and helpless may by Socialists be treated as a species of state or commu-

nity insurance, which has come down to us from the most remote times—though based originally on principles very different from those of modern socialism.

The question which is agitating the brains of Radicals and Utopians in Australia and elsewhere is, Why should not this system, under which the poor, halt, lame, and blind are supported at the public expense, be extended to cover a multitude of other cases? But they are generally careful to avoid saying how many cases they would have it cover. One pleasant sort of insurance they recommend is "old-age pensions," and to our mind the argument for some such system is, if we admit the premises, most powerful. Old age is not merely a risk, but a certainty of life. It comes to all alike, and it puts a stop at a certain period to self-support. It is nobody's fault, and responsibility cannot be fastened upon the parents who, through having brought us into the world, are really the cause of the whole trouble, for they have already escaped liability by dying themselves. Why should not the state insure us against it, and pay us all a reasonable weekly allowance when we reach the age of, say, sixty-five? It may be said that most people do not need it, but this is a total mistake. Outside the very rich, the number of people in the world who in their declining years can have all the comforts they need is very small. Then there is death. This is a certain evil, too, the effects of which fall in most cases upon the most innocent and deserving class in the community, children left without parents' support. In ninety-nine cases out of a hundred such children are brought up by their aunts, uncles, and grandmothers. Should not the state insure aunts, uncles, and grandmothers in some way against this burden? In Germany there is a system of insurance under which house servants are guaranteed against losses through illness, but in this case, as in the English compensation bill, the tax falls on the employer, and it is said that he deducts it from their wages—a result that could never have been intended.

These are merely specimens of the questions which must suggest themselves to any one who carefully considers the question of state insurance. The one thing clear about it is that, unless defined and limited, it must prove a socialistic wedge. When you have once adopted the principle that the community at large should be taxed to guarantee all the members of the community against losses, why should not all risks be covered, and the state guarantee every man a living, insuring not merely against old age and death, and fire and accidents, but against drought and flood, and disease, and crime, and vice, and idleness, and those inherent defects of character—dulness, want of "push" and energy—which so sadly handicap many of us? The scheme is more practical than that introduced by Bellamy in "The Republic of the Golden Rule."

FREDERIC DE FOREST ALLEN.

Hardly has the news of Prof. Lane's death become known to scholars when they are again shocked and grieved by the sudden demise of his friend and colleague Allen, professor of classical philology in Harvard University. He started from Cambridge on Wednesday morning, August 4, to join his family. He was in the best of health and intending to make the journey upon the wheel. From whatever cause, possibly from unconscious over-exertion in the heat, a blood-vessel was ruptured and death ensued in the evening. Prof. Allen's life-work did not bring him much before the public eye—indeed, he was not widely known even to the undergraduate community at Harvard; yet his loss is a great one, not only to the University, but also to the cause of classical scholarship in America.

Mr. Allen was born at Oberlin, O., May 25, 1844, when the college had just completed the first decade of its existence; and he came of the frugal and sturdy New England stock that early peopled the lands of the "Western Reserve." His father, George Nelson Allen, from Mansfield, Mass., was a pioneer at Oberlin, both as student and as preceptor; for he was a member of the second class (of 1838) to be graduated at the new college, and was professor of natural history there from 1847 to 1871. Maintaining an exchange of specimens with Agassiz and others, he made the beginning of a museum which is now an important and creditable one. The mother, Mary Rudd, was from eastern Connecticut, and a graduate (in 1841), with two other women, of the first college class in the United States in which women took a full classical course. Her interest in the language of the ancients she kept to the end, and read the Greek papers which her son sent her during his year of service in Athens.

Allen graduated in 1863 at Oberlin, and, after a course of study at Leipzig and some years of service as professor in the University of Tennessee, as tutor at Harvard, and as professor in the University of Cincinnati, was called in 1879 to the chair of Greek at Yale, to be the successor of those eminent scholars, Woolsey and Hadley. Here, however, he remained only a single year; for in 1880 the Harvard Corporation, mainly in order "to strengthen and enrich the department of graduate instruction," called three new professors simultaneously: Toy for Semitic languages, Allen for classical philology, and Lanman for Sanskrit. This was done under the conviction "that the prestige of the University was to be maintained and its influence increased quite as much by amplifying the highest instruction, which is necessarily given to a few, as by improving the lower, which is sought by many." Allen's senior colleagues in the classical department were Sophocles (already advanced in years), Lane, Goodwin, and Greenough; and the graduate department of the University was in its beginnings. There, then, for seventeen years he has labored, and has been cut off untimely in the midst of his work.

His first noteworthy publication, the first fruits of his Leipzig studies, was a treatise *de dialecto Locrensium*. It is a beautifully finished essay, lucid and attractive; and its substantial merit was rated high by his teacher, the first authority of the time, Georg Curtius, who published it in the third volume of his 'Studien.' While at Cincinnati he published an edition of the "Medea" of Euripides; and at Yale, a volume of 'Remnants of Early Latin,' which elicited high praise from the best judges. His next important work was a revision of Hadley's 'Greek Grammar,' finished in 1884; and the year 1885-'86 he spent as Director of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens. In 1888 he put forth an elaborate technical treatise on 'Greek Versification in Inscriptions' in the Papers of the School, on whose publication committee he was an active worker. Meantime, the "Harvard Studies in Classical Philology" had been undertaken; and in this enterprise, too, he bore his full part, aiding it by learned contributions, by editorial help, and by the best of counsel.

Mr. Allen was a man of genuine modesty. He was not at all eager to rush into print; he was much more concerned to have his work good, accurate, and usable, well digested in substance, and well finished in form. His published writings, accordingly, are not voluminous. On the other hand, there is every reason to believe, in his case, as in that of the lamented Hadley, that if his life had been spared one decade more, that decade would have been one of great and most valuable productivity. His sabbatical year of 1891-'92 he spent at Oxford and Paris in diligent labor on the glosses and scholia to Plato; and he has left a mass of material upon this subject, in part excerpts from the "Parisinus A," in part notes relating to the scholia of the "Clarkianus" of the Bodleian. And he was hoping, at the next opportunity, to proceed to Vienna and continue this work. In connection with his university lectures he had already made important preparatory studies and collections for a systematic treatment of the Greek religion; and this, it is likely, would have been one of his next undertakings.

He was an honored member of the American Philological Association, at one time its President, and a valued and frequent contributor to its Transactions. He was one of a little circle of friends, with neither organization nor name, but usually known as the History of Religions Club; and to it he brought his thoughtful and instructive discussions of topics of the Greek religion. His resources for diversion were not mean. He took an active and official part in the work of the Appalachian Mountain Club; he was an expert photographer; and his inherited taste and fondness for music made that a great solace to him. With one of his colleagues, by way of pastime, he wrote an operetta, "Old King Cole," and a musical pantomime, "Violetta." When the Latin play, the "Phormio" of Terence, was brought out at Harvard, he wrote the music, which was at once interesting for its fidelity to the spirit of the antique, and charming and graceful in itself.

It was only a very few days before his death that one of his colleagues who knew him well said to another, "How Allen continues to grow!" That was very true. The achievements of the "bright young man" are good; but the element of time is some-

thing in lieu of which no native gifts can stand. Time makes the ungifted man an old fogy. Time was making—had made—of Allen a ripe scholar. Indeed, there was something about him to remind one of the famous old Dutch Hellenists, whom he knew so well and admired so much. Like theirs, his conception of classical antiquity was many-sided; his reading was wide; and his sympathetic interest in kindred subjects (let us say comparative grammar or American dialects) which lay without his special field, was so genuine that his judgments were not easily perverted by giving undue weight to a single kind of evidence. To those who knew Prof. Lane, it is no small praise to say that he set store by Allen's decisions.

And how is it with the fragmentariness of such a life? *Voll Müh' und eitel Stückwerk*, says Goethe of human achievement. But it is vain and fragmentary only as we take it out of relation to what goes before and after. Charles Eliot has just passed away at even less than forty; and yet how complete and distinct is the service of public beneficence which he has rendered in beautifying the region about Boston, and in teaching men to work with nature and to love nature. And Allen has made a complete and distinct contribution to the building of a university. The distinctness of these services may merge as the years run. Future generations may know not whom they have to thank for the opportunity of nobler and more beautiful lives on the one hand, nor for the fundamental traditions of honest and ennobling scholarship on the other. But that need not daunt one's courage for a like high-minded devotion, nor abate one whit from our sense of the completeness and worth of such loving service.

A STATE OF SUMMER RESORTS.

BRUNSWICK, August 7, 1897.

It is now a generation and more since a considerable stream of travel began to pour itself, during the summer season, into the western and southern parts of the State of Maine. Beginning in a moderate way—a few families here, a party of sportsmen or tourists there—the number of summer visitors and residents has grown steadily, until it now reaches several hundred thousand annually; and the increase has been especially rapid in the past ten years. Although the regular summer population is drawn chiefly from the New England and Middle States and Canada, nearly every State in the Union is represented. Of tourists, strictly so called, the number is probably less than in some other places, quite the larger proportion of summer visitors being regular sojourners and their friends. In its size and character, however, as well as in its growing volume, the summer population marks Maine as unquestionably the chief summer resort of the Atlantic Coast, and of the United States as well.

The movement of this temporary population is mainly along three routes, or, rather, into three sections of the State. Fishing parties gravitate towards the Rangeley Lakes, and hunting parties towards Moosehead, while most of those who aim to combine pleasure and sport in about equal proportions commonly make one or the other of these places their starting-point. There is royal salmon-fishing on the Penobscot, and both fishing and hunting in the wild region further north, but the number of sportsmen who visit either of these localities is small as compared with the number who flock to the lakes. The other route is along the seashore, with Mount Desert as the terminus. From Kittery Point to Bar Harbor almost every mile of the coast has some of the marks of a summer resort, although Old Orchard, Cape Elizabeth, and Casco and Penobscot Bays catch and hold the greater part of the tide. Beyond Bar Harbor the summer population is inappreciable—partly, no doubt, because both coast and interior are here less beautiful than is the case further south, and partly because the region is not yet easily accessible. Along the New Hampshire line the influx, while increasing, is not yet very considerable, and is more in the nature of an overflow from the crowded resorts of the White Mountains than an appropriation of a new and distinct locality.

In circumstances, character, and aims the summer population of Maine presents the greatest variety. There are representatives of almost every type, from the excursionist and "globe-trotter" to the regular visitor of many years' standing, from the family of narrow means to the Crœsus whose thousands are scattered without a thought. Sportsmen, as has been said, seek the lakes, and with them goes a small army of less noticeable and less wealthy persons, both men and women, who push their canoes far into the unbroken forest, along the streams and lakes which carry one up to the Canadian and New Brunswick border. Those who go inland seem, as a rule, to eschew the sea, and vice versa; so that along the coast one finds a summer population which cares little for rod or gun, but takes its pleasure in sailing and salt-water fishing. Life in the woods represents the acme of the *négligé;* at the seashore resorts, on the contrary, with their large hotels and greater opportunity for display, the demands of fashion are heavier, and one dresses for dinner. Old Orchard, notwithstanding its magnificent beach, has changed much in twenty years; it is no longer fashionable nor even attractive, but is given over to gigantic excursions, Salvation Army conclaves, and "faith-healing." A large number of Canadians, however, still regularly pass the summer there, and a few remoter parts of the town have escaped, thus far, the barbarian invasion. For the most lavish show of wealth and the fullest fury of the social whirl one turns, of course, to Bar Harbor; but Bar Harbor is a little world by itself, and, notwithstanding its superb beauty, has long since become impossible for all save the financially elect. Finally, scattered over the entire settled portion of the State are thousands of summer visitors, representing almost every calling and condition in life, and attracted, some by family associations, some by the charm of a particular locality, some by the inexpensiveness of living. From June to September there is an endless succession of "summer people" on every train, steamboat, and stage, and at every hotel and boarding-house in Maine.

Of all modern devices for giving pleasure to large numbers of people, few have failed more conspicuously than the average summer hotel. In this respect Maine is no more fortunate than other States. While the situation of the hotels is often extremely attractive, the houses themselves are too often cheaply built and poorly kept, the ruling principle seeming to be the maximum of price for the minimum of endurable accommodation. So far, indeed, have poor service and exorbitant charges been carried at Bar Harbor that many influential cottagers have refused to recommend certain hotels to their friends; and there are said to be signs that the resulting loss of patronage is hastening the coming of much-needed reforms. Moreover, such beauty of situation as many of the seashore hotels originally possessed is being rapidly destroyed, in many cases, by the multiplication and crowding of small and unsightly wooden buildings. If, in this particular, matters go on for ten years more as they are going now, there will be very few large hotels at any populous resort on the Maine coast which persons with a feeling for natural beauty will care to patronize. Summer cottages of the better sort are multiplying, but not rapidly, while the innumerable ones of a lower grade are, ordinarily, little better than rough shells, destitute of every modern convenience. Away from the coast, save at Rangeley, Moosehead, and Poland Springs, the hotels are usually less pretentious, and provide comfortably for their guests. Transportation facilities for the principal resorts are good, although local railroad fares are very high; but the stage lines, which must often be resorted to, have so deteriorated of late years that travel over them is, in most cases, an experience to be dreaded.

The social effect of the large and rapidly increasing temporary population—in number nearly equal to one-third of the total permanent population of the State—is a question of considerable importance, though, naturally, one to which a very definite answer cannot well be given. The majority of summer visitors, of course, come and go without making any marked impression upon the community; but since they spend a good deal of money, they are more or less cordially welcomed. I am inclined to think, however, that anything like a general recognition of the social worth of the summer element is not yet very pronounced. Most communities in Maine are small, with many rural habits and characteristics, but little wealth. As a whole, the disposition to provide especially for the needs or desires of visitors is not strong, even where the chief part of the income is derived from that class; the assumption seems to be, rather, that the visitors are sure to come anyway, and that the less there is expended for their gratification, the greater will be the profit from despoiling them. There are notable exceptions, of course—communities which have been wise enough to spend liberally for their guests, and have reaped a rich reward, not of money alone, but of good-will and social enrichment. In not a few places, also, summer residents have contributed liberally to local public objects. The State authorities, too, are making, in the interest of sportsmen, energetic efforts to preserve the game, and have put in operation this year a novel system of licensing guides. Outside of transportation interests, however, a few energetic communities and select resorts, and, in fish and game matters, the State itself, the summer visitor in Maine is commonly looked upon as primarily a source of financial profit, and, consequently, a most desirable addition to the town or village, but, in other respects, as a person to whom the community is under no special obligation, for whose satisfaction no very strenuous ef-

forts are to be put forth, and from whom little can be learned.

To people generally, the financial side of the question is probably of most practical importance. That a very large amount of money is expended annually in the State by non-residents is evident; and, while the amount can hardly be determined with precision, it is undoubtedly much greater than most persons suppose. In 1893 the Commissioner of Industrial and Labor Statistics estimated "the pecuniary results to the State" from its summer-resort business at not less than $10,000,000 annually. The figure seems enormous, yet some good judges pronounced the estimate too small. Of this total it was estimated that $3,000,000 was spent at hotels and boarding-houses, $1,000,000 for farm produce, and $100,000 for services of guides. Each of these items would now have to be considerably increased. Taking communities as a whole, the receipts from summer business are very evenly distributed, and represent the necessaries rather than the luxuries of life; for, with the exception of Bar Harbor, it should be remembered, there is little expenditure that can be called lavish, most of the summer visitors being persons of moderate means, who seek vacations without display.

The future of Maine as a summer resort is a matter of vital consequence to the people of the State. There can be no question that the summer-resort business is already nearly, if not quite, the leading industry in Maine; and there seems to be good reason for thinking that its rank, in this respect, will be maintained for a long time to come. Two-thirds of the area of the State is still comparatively unsettled; the thickly settled portion, and the resort of most of the summer population, lies to the south and west, south of a line drawn from Machias to Lake Umbagog. The great region to the north, though holding in some sections, as in parts of the Aroostook county, a considerable population, is still, in the main, a land of forests, lakes, and streams. Its development waits upon the railroad; for, next to natural beauty and resource, it is the railroad that makes a summer resort. Railroad facilities, however, both in mileage and in equipment, are increasing. In the southern and western sections summer visitors have become an established institution. They have appropriated about all the choice spots on the coast as far east as Mount Desert; desirable building sites are already scarce, and command a good price. About the fishing grounds, too, land is being rapidly bought up, and permanent camps established; for here, as by the sea, pleasure and sport are unmistakably tending to become practicable only for the well-to-do. In the country, away from the shore and the lakes, signs of change are less in evidence; yet, here again, old farms are being rejuvenated, old houses made over, cottages erected at vantage points. Other indirect results of a practical nature are an increased attention to market gardening, extension of electric railroads, and a growing demand for good country roads. In these various respects, at least, summer business has brought prosperity. It seems inevitable, however, that the near future must witness a sharp advance in the cost of living, and that the reign of low prices, which heretofore has drawn many to the State, cannot long continue; indeed, this result has already, in some measure and in some localities, begun to come about. Such a social transformation will not, of course, work itself out rapidly, and some of its consequences are hardly to be deplored. Year by year, however, the pressure of summer population is forcing the advance line further and further into the forest, and eastward along the coast; and so long as two-thirds of the State, unlimited in resources, is yet unexploited, Maine is likely to remain, beyond dispute, the pleasure-ground *par excellence* of the United States.

WILLIAM MACDONALD.

ITALY AS A "GREAT POWER."

NAPLES, June, 1897.

Returning, last autumn, after twenty-five years, to Italy, I found, as I hardly need say, great changes, some already completed and some still in progress, both in the material and in the moral conditions of the country; but nothing more forcibly claimed my attention than the processes of evolution now going on in its political life. Chief among these in interest and importance is the extremely slow process of national unification; in other words, the gradual prevalence, among the inhabitants of the several provinces of Italy, of whatever makes them Italians over whatever makes them Sicilians, Tuscans, Ligurians, or Venetians, and the substitution, I might almost say, of a national for a sectional consciousness. I had left Italy when she had just completed her territorial unity by the occupation of Rome; I returned to find her still laboriously busy with the realization of a true national unity; and although Italy to-day sums up more visibly than any other European country the transitional character of the present half-century in every branch of human activity, this fact did not so strongly impress me in any other department of the national life as it did in this gradual melting together of so many distinct nationalities and of so many distinct types of men into one nation. The reader may be surprised that I should speak, in this connection, of distinct types of men; but the expression is justified by the facts. There is a greater difference between a Lombard and a Sicilian than between a Sicilian and a native of Provence.

When, long ago, Prince Metternich declared that "Italy" was nothing more than a geographical expression, he spoke the simple truth; and this it was that made his bare statement sting more sharply than the keenest epigram. There was no Italy in Metternich's day; and, what is more, though this is so absolutely ignored alike by Italians and by foreigners, there never had been any Italy. In the remote past there had been a Rome, a vast empire in which the northern Italian counted less as a citizen than the Allobrogian of Gaul or the Romanized Iberian of Spain. Since the disintegration of the Roman Empire, Italy had never been anything but a fortuitous collection of political units jostled together, singly or in ever-changing groups, in ceaseless rivalries and hostilities. Not even Dante had dreamed of an Italy at once united and independent; nor could one say that such an ideal had been cherished by any considerable body of Italians in any age before the French Revolution, that great wonder-worker to which the world owes the bewildering rapidity of its progress in this century of speed.

As late as 1891 the Italian novelist De Roberto could, without in any way violating the probabilities of fiction, make an old *marchese* in his famous novel 'Illusione' say of Italy, "Do you call it a nation? Why, it is a mere harlequin's cloak! How is it possible to stitch together Piedmont and Sicily, Milan and Naples, different races, conflicting manners, repugnant traditions?" His liberal interlocutrix replies, "That will be the work of time. Let us meanwhile be content with political unity: real unity will come by and by." "But he," adds the novelist, "only shook his head, regretting the days of Sicilian autonomy—of the national monarchy." To this old *marchese* of fiction Sicily was the real nation. To the Piedmontese nobles of flesh and blood whom D'Azeglio describes in his 'I Miei Ricordi,' patriotism meant no more than devotion to the sub-Alpine kingdom and to the House of Savoy. To this day the pushing, stirring Sicilian, or Neapolitan, who is invading every field of activity, and especially those of financial speculation and political life, which most attract his mercurial nature, is regarded with as much suspicion and aversion as any foreign intruder might be by the more saturnine Tuscans and North Italians whom he jostles and elbows out of his way in his fussy restlessness.

I must not be understood as undervaluing what has been accomplished already in Italy toward the achievement of the real unity spoken of in the passage just quoted. Much has been done by an intelligent and patriotic press; much by those institutions which bring together for a common purpose the Italians of the different provinces. Among these institutions I may mention the Parliament; the civil service, with its promiscuous scattering of officials of diverse origin over all the land; but chiefly the national army, which has done what no other agency could accomplish, by bringing together the men of the lower classes in barrack and bivouac, in the camp, and on the battle-field; by inspiring them with a true and enthusiastic devotion to a common flag, and by teaching them, in the regimental schools, to speak, read, and write one common language, in lieu of a score of local dialects.

Notwithstanding all this excellent work, much remains to be done to secure real unity in the lowest, and perhaps also in the highest, stratum of society. This need excite no wonder. The case of Italy is essentially different from that of Germany, a nation of equally recent birth. In Germany the standard of popular education was far higher than in Italy, and the seeds of a truly national feeling had been abundantly sown at the time of the war of liberation, when she rose with such admirable unanimity against the first Napoleon; and, although there were in Germany religious differences which do not exist in Italy, there was, on the other hand, a far better acquaintance and a fuller intercourse among the constituents of the present Reich than ever existed among the petty states of Italy. After all, we should not overestimate the real unity of the German Empire, where it might not be difficult to discern a deep jealousy of Prussia, and a growing dissatisfaction with her virtual absorption of the other members of the Reich. As to Austria-Hungary, whose new birth as a constitutional monarchy is also recent, national unity, although now become desirable and desired, is not so indispensable to her as it is to Italy. The farrago of nationalities which that empire includes have been held together for centuries in a merely po-

litical unity by the strong hand of an ancient dynasty ruling over them all in severalty, and rather preferring, until very lately, that they should remain disunited in feeling; whereas, Italy has not in her ruling dynasty any such secular traditions of imperial sway, and must depend in a far larger measure upon the formation and growth of a sentiment of true national unity to give her the requisite stability which Austria inherits from the ages. In Austria-Hungary many centuries of subjection to one and the same master has done little to reconcile Hungarian with Czech, Croatian with German, Pole with Illyrian. It is not, I am sure, an extravagant estimate to say that two or three generations must pass away before the Italians are as truly one people as the French or the Spaniards are to-day.

In the year 1887 this half-consolidated nation formally enrolled itself among the so-called "'Great Powers" of Europe by openly and even ostentatiously subscribing to the Austro-German alliance, to which it had belonged in a less open way since 1883. This step was taken during the premiership of Francesco Crispi, a Sicilian statesman whose theatrical and Jack-in-the-box politics remind one of the late Lord Beaconsfield; and I believe that it was taken unwisely, and has delayed for many years the prosperity and consequent influence which all men felt to be in store for the Italian kingdom. It was Italy's misfortune to be the foster-child of Diplomacy. Every reader is familiar with those events which led to the birth of the new nation. Count Cavour had conceived the bold plan of engaging the little kingdom of Sardinia in an offensive alliance against Russia, well knowing that if England and France should accept Sardinia as an ally, the Italian question could no longer be blinked. In this plan he succeeded, whatever some Italians to-day may find it convenient to forget, by the aid of Napoleon III. Everybody knows how the acceptance of the Sardinian contingent by France and England in the Crimean war, and the admirable conduct of those troops, led to the admission of a Sardinian envoy to the congress which terminated that war by the Treaty of Paris in 1856; and how, in spite of the efforts of Austria, with whom, for her selfish neutrality during the conflict, all the belligerents were profoundly disgusted, the Italian question came to be discussed. This was the very moment of the conception of that Italy which came to her full birth only fourteen years later. Before that time the nascent nation found itself already entangled in the political complications of Europe, being in fact forced to avail itself of them in order to attain to its final plenitude of existence. For although Italy was in a certain sense a *fait accompli* even immediately after the Franco-Austrian war of 1859, she was not able to complete her political unification without the aid of Prussia in 1866 and of Prussia and Austria in 1870.

She thus came into being with old scores to pay, and predestined, as it were, to play in this age the same part that her Dukes of Savoy had formerly played in the wars in which Austria, France, and Spain were the great champions. Accordingly, after 1870, there was no great interval before significant visits began to be exchanged between the Italian and the German and the Austrian courts; and in 1875 the Emperor William was able to announce to the Reichsrath that an *entente cordiale* existed between his Government and that of Italy. This was but natural. Italy owed nothing to France, but only to Napoleon III.; and she regarded that debt as amply paid for by the cession of Nice and Savoy, if, indeed, it had not been quite blotted out by the attitude of France and the Emperor in keeping the Italians out of Rome. On the other hand, she owed Venetia to the Prussians, and Rome to Prussia and Austria. It was evident that everything was pushing Italy to Northern alliances. Again, the Emperors of Germany and Austria, both interested in imposing inactivity upon France, then burning to avenge the defeats and losses of 1870, might well wish to forestall a *rapprochement* between France and Italy; and it seems probable that, as early as 1875, hopes were held out to the Italian statesmen of a definite place for Italy among the "Great Powers," and a treaty to guarantee that place as soon as she could show a sufficiently imposing strength. These projects might have been sooner realized but for a coolness which arose between Austria and Italy by reason of the Irredentist movement of 1878. This, it will be remembered, was an agitation set on foot by Garibaldi and other enthusiasts, who claimed that the district of Trent and the whole of Istria, including Trieste, all of which they chose to call "unredeemed Italy (*Italia irredenta*)," should be surrendered by Austria to Italy because the former had acquired Bosnia and Herzegovina by the treaty of Berlin. This coolness might have lasted many years but for the French conquest of Tunis in 1881. This gave great offence to the Italians, who had important interests in that country and who affected to regard that conquest as "disturbing the equilibrium of the Mediterranean," a phrase more full of sound than of sense. Thereupon King Humbert ventured upon a visit to Vienna, which led to a treaty of alliance with Germany and Austria in 1883. This treaty, which at first was kept secret, was to expire in 1887.

In 1887 it was apparent that the treaty of 1883 had cost the country enormously. As far back as 1877 the Italian Government had thought it necesssary to prepare for such an alliance by extensive armaments, and this policy had been farther pursued after the treaty of 1883, and probably as a condition of it. In 1888, a date which will spare us the repetition of many dry figures, the Italian fleet was second only to that of England, and contained seven armored vessels more powerful than any to be found in the fleet of any other nation. On the 1st of July of the same year the interest on the public debt was more than $112,520,000, while the deficit for the year was considerably in excess of $7,000,000. The treaty signed by Signor Crispi called for still greater sacrifices. The army budget for the year 1888-1889 rose to sixty million dollars, while the navy estimate for the next eight years after 1888 reached the sum of twenty millions per annum. It has taken ten years to convince a majority of the Italians that the premature enrolment of their country among the Great Powers of Europe was dear at the price. One immediate result was an aggressive, braggart tone of which even we, in this country, had a taste when the Marchese di Rudinì, in a very just cause, but not quite *suaviter in modo*, twisted the tail of the American eagle in the most approved Jingo style. Italy, bent on imitating the older nations, even embarked more extensively in African colonization, instead of wisely abandoning her unprofitable settlement in Eritrea after the check received at the outpost of Saati in February, 1887. To-day, after the disasters and disgrace of the war with Abyssinia, the preponderance of sentiment among sober-minded Italians is that defeats and mistakes should be frankly and quickly acknowledged, and that Italy should set the shining example of a nation not ashamed to confess her past follies and resolved to return to those ways of moderation, of thrift, and of well-directed industry from which her ambition has seduced her. If Italy continues in this way, if she devotes herself to restoring her credit by keeping her expenses within her income and reducing her excessive debt, while she conciliates all her neighbors by an attitude at once peaceful and dignified, it seems quite certain that the next century will see her in fact as well as in name one of the really great Powers of the civilized world.

FRANCIS PHILIP NASH.

INEDITED LETTERS OF NAPOLEON I.—I.

PARIS, July 29, 1897.

During his reign, Napoleon III. ordered the publication of the correspondence of Napoleon I. as a tribute to his memory. The work was executed between the years 1858 and 1869, under the supervision of a committee, which was presided over by Prince Napoleon. The correspondence was published in no less than twenty-eight quarto volumes, and contains about 22,000 letters, decrees, orders of the day, bulletins, etc.; but it must not be imagined that these twenty-eight volumes contain the whole correspondence of the Emperor. About a third of the letters and documents still remain unpublished or have been destroyed.

Prince Napoleon, President of the imperial committee, in a report addressed to his uncle in 1864, said: "In general, we have taken for our guide this simple idea: we thought that we ought to publish what the Emperor himself would have yielded to publicity, if, surviving himself and anticipating the verdict of time, he had chosen to show to posterity his person and his system." Acting on that principle, the committee left unpublished all the letters which might have tended to diminish the prestige of the great Emperor, the letters which related to his quarrels with his brothers, those which were thought too injurious to some of the marshals or high dignitaries of the State, many letters concerning the Pope, the police, the press, etc. Many indiscretions were committed at the time, and I remember having heard some curious passages from the correspondence of Napoleon with Josephine (after his marriage), written from Italy and from Egypt. It is well known that Prince Napoleon destroyed a number of these letters. In 1864, an officer of the Emperor's staff was sent by him to the archives and took to the Tuileries forty-two letters, fifteen of which have disappeared, probably in the burning of the Tuileries in 1871. M. Léon Lecestre has undertaken to publish the inedited letters of Napoleon between the years VIII. and 1815; he has not published

any of the letters written before the Consulate, as various publications contain them nearly all. The two volumes thus compiled form certainly a most valuable addition to the publication made under Napoleon III., and will probably be read with much interest, as they contain what may be called the most dangerous part of Napoleon's correspondence. M. Lecestre, if I may use a vulgar expression, has taken the plums of the pudding.

In his 'Representative Men' Emerson takes Napoleon as the type of the man of action. Could he have read the two volumes just published, he would see in them a justification of his definition. It is impossible not to be struck, at every line, by the directness, if I may say so, of Napoleon's mind. Though his complete correspondence fills so many volumes, not a line has been written in vain, not a word is useless. Napoleon writes as he thinks, and his thought never wanders, never gets lost; it always has an immediate object; the clearness of the style is the mirror of an intellect which is clearness itself, and, in the height of passion, shows no mark of disorder or confusion. It is generally thought that diplomatic language ought to be enveloped by prudent circumlocutions, and by a dubious obscurity. Talleyrand, a model of diplomatic expression, said once that language was given to man to conceal his thought. In the long and numerous diplomatic notes and memoranda sent by Napoleon to his ministers, you will find a style very different from the usual diplomatic style. While every precaution is taken with regard to possible eventualities, every side of a question examined, every mode of persuasion examined, the mode of action to be adopted in a given situation or complication is always laid down with the greatest possible clearness; no choice is left to his agents, they have nothing to do but to obey. When you come out of this huge mass of correspondence, you feel almost oppressed by the gigantic effort of which it is the daily, almost hourly, proof, as well as by the tremendous power of a will which allowed no other will but his own, which denied liberty, not only to his own family, not only to his companions in arms, not only to his own people, but to all nations; not only to all national powers, but to all spiritual forces. He was a sort of inspired egotist. His egotism had nothing mean and narrow in its essence, it always aimed at something great; he cared not for money, nor for pleasure; he cared only for power and glory; and for him there was no glory but in power.

In his famous portrait of Napoleon, Taine constantly refers to the Italian origin of the Emperor; he compares him with the Italian tyrants of the Renaissance; only, while these petty tyrants exercised their faculties in the small horizon of a city, fortune gave to Napoleon a wide field—it gave him not only France, but the whole of Europe. The Corsican character of the Emperor is nowhere better shown than in his letters to the members of his family. He had the true clannish feeling, which has been so remarkably maintained in Corsica; and, while he thought that his duty was to promote the interests and fortunes of all the members of his family, he believed that he had a right to their absolute devotion and obedience. He did not distribute to them pastures and olive trees, but kingdoms; but he always looked on them as if they were all living in the neighborhood of Ajaccio. Lucien is the object of constant reproaches. Napoleon finds fault with him when he has made him his Ambassador at Madrid. Lucien is scolded on account of a treaty made with Portugal; he is thought too weak in his dealings with the Prince of Peace. "If this system continues, say boldly to the Queen and to the Prince of Peace that it will end by a *coup de tonnerre*" (December 1, 1801). Lucien married a Mrs. Jouberthon without asking permission of his brother, and fell from favor immediately; he was deprived of his rights as a French Prince when Napoleon became Emperor. Napoleon offered to give them back to him if he would consent to a divorce:

"The divorce from Madame Jouberthon once proclaimed, with a great title at Naples or anywhere else, if Lucien will have her near himself, on condition that it be not in France, he may live with her—not as the Princess, his wife—in any degree of intimacy that may please him. I will put no obstacle in the way of it, for it is only politics which interest me. I will not run counter to his tastes and his passions." (Letter to Joseph, King of Naples, from Milan, December 20, 1807.)

In 1810, we find a letter from Napoleon to Count Laplace, the Chancellor of the Senate, ordering him to strike Lucien from the list of Senators. "Absent for five years from the territory of the Empire, and, when Rome became a part of it, having left this place to cross the seas and retire to America, he has renounced the duties and the title of Senator."

Joseph Bonaparte, first King of Naples, and afterwards of Spain, was more obedient than Lucien; he submitted meekly to the advice of the Emperor, but he was weak and incompetent, and Napoleon has often to blame him: "I have received your letter of the 10th of August. All that is going on in Spain is deplorable. . . . How can Spain be thus evacuated without your even knowing where the enemy is? . . . The army, as it is organized, can beat all the insurgents, but a head is wanting." (Saint-Cloud, August 16, 1808.) In 1813, Napoleon writes from Dresden to Cambacérès, that he sends the Duke of Dalmatia to Spain as his Lieutenant-General:

"As for the King of Spain, my intention is that he shall remain at Pampeluna, San Sebastian, or Bayonne, and shall wait my orders. In any case, my intention is that he shall not come to Paris, and that no high dignitary, no minister, no senator or councillor of state shall see him before my intentions be made known to him. The King ought not to cross the Loire without my order; but if he has done so, it would be best that he should go in the greatest incognito to Morfontaine [Joseph's country place near Chantilly] . . . You will employ force, if necessary, for the execution of my orders."

Napoleon attributed to Joseph the failure of the Spanish expedition; he was extremely discontented with him. "It is ridiculous," he says, to Cambacérès, in a letter from Wittenberg, "that the Prince should not clearly know that I blame him for all that has been done in Spain in the past five years. He has shown neither military talent nor administrative faculty." He writes again from Dresden, July 20, 1813, this time to the Duke of Rovigo:

"My positive intention is that the King shall not come to Paris, or even approach it. Let him remain at Morfontaine. If he goes to Paris or Saint-Cloud, have him arrested; let him know this. . . . The miscarriages in Spain are all the greater because they are ridiculous; such is the opinion of the English themselves. But the army is not dishonored; the Spanish army had no general, and the King was a burden. In the last analysis I am not blind to the fact that it was all my fault."

The last letter published in M. Lecestre's two volumes is addressed to Joseph, from Philippeville, June 19, 1815: "All is not lost. I suppose that I shall still have 150,000 men. . . . I will summon 100,000 conscripts, arm them with the guns of the royalists and the bad national guards; I will raise Dauphiné, Lyonnais, Burgundy, Lorraine, Champagne; but I must be aided. . . . I am going to Laon. I have not heard from Grouchy." It was too late, and Joseph, who had been left behind in Paris, had no part to play in the last struggle.

The letters to Louis, King of Holland, are a never-ending succession of reproaches, and a constant curtailing of the attributes of the King, whose power had really become nominal. Napoleon threatens him perpetually with the incorporation of Holland in the Empire, and consents to preserve Holland as a kingdom only if he can govern it and be obeyed in everything. Some of the letters to Louis are very characteristic:

"We hear that you have in your states reëstablished the nobility, with its titles and privileges. How is it possible that you should have had so little discernment as not to feel that nothing can be more injurious to yourself, to your people, to France, and to myself? You are a French prince; how could you forget your first oath, which consists in maintaining equality among your peoples? . . . You thus renounce the throne of France; for a man who would rob the nation of what fifteen years of struggle and of effort have obtained for it, would not be worthy to sit on it. . . . You have lost your head. You may expect anything if you do not revoke this measure. You will cease to be a French citizen and a prince of my blood."

If such was his language to Louis, the King of Holland, you may easily imagine how he treated Jerome, his younger brother, whom he had placed on the throne of Westphalia. Louis tried, at least, to be a real sovereign, and took to heart the interests of Holland—sometimes too much so to please Napoleon, who, in his great struggle with England, obliged Holland to make great sacrifices. Jerome was a light character; he constantly plunged into debt, and was a poor soldier.

"I have seen an order of the day of yours which makes you the laughing-stock of Germany, Austria, and France. Have you nobody near you who can tell you the truth? You speak as King, as brother of the Emperor—ridiculous qualities in war. You must be a soldier, and again a soldier; you need no minister, nor diplomatic body, nor pomp. Be at the bivouac with your vanguard, day and night, on horseback; go to the front to get news; or else remain in your seraglio. You make war like a satrap. Have you learned this from me?" (Schönbrunn, July 17, 1809.)

Correspondence.

CANADA AND THE UNITED STATES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your number of August 5, speaking of the relations between Canada and the United States, you say: "Separation has become our settled policy, and the commercial union with England which we have

forced on Canada will grow closer and stronger as years go on." You seem inclined to think that the situation created by the Dingley tariff, combined with the Jubilee fever, will be lasting, and will decide the destinies of this continent.

How often has the action of the great forces, sure in the end to prevail, been suspended, and long suspended, by that of the secondary forces or by adverse accident! How often did the unification of Italy and that of Germany miscarry, though certainly destined at last to arrive! Protectionism will run its course. The Jubilee fever will abate. The time will come when American statesmen, now so indifferent to this question, will see that if it was worth while to spend all that blood and money in averting the establishment of an antagonistic power to your south, it is not less worth while to bestow political effort in averting the establishment of an antagonistic power to your north, and that the British Canadian is at least as desirable a citizen as the Southern white or negro. British statesmen, on the other hand, will learn the hopelessness of their attempt to keep five millions of North Americans out of North America and attach them to Europe. The day will come, though men of my age are not likely to behold it. Already, in spite of all the wrangling among the politicians, the two sections of our race on this continent are rapidly fusing. Hardly anything now divides them but the political and fiscal line.

Yours respectfully, GOLDWIN SMITH.

TORONTO, August 14, 1897.

A NEW PARTY, NO NEW NAME.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A communication in the *Nation* for July 29 suggests the following:

At present the really live question in regard to a political organization is, "Is the National-Democratic party the new party?" If it is, whether that party has taken the name best adapted to its mission is a matter of only secondary importance. The individuals to whom we must largely look for support of "sound" principles are not men who will be greatly influenced by a name; yet, so far as the new party must draw votes rather by the sound of its title than by the sense of its platform, the name "National Democratic" is advisedly chosen. The men who are to compose the new party are, first, the truly independent voters, whose prejudices, if they have any, favor the party name under which they have so long supported Mr. Cleveland; second, the dissatisfied Republicans who leave their party from conviction and are not to be lightly influenced by a mere name; third, Sound-Money Democrats; and, last—other Democrats. In other words, the only men, not distinctly men of conviction, whom the new party can hope to reach are former Democrats; the only men who will at all consider the name adopted at Indianapolis are men who will approve of it.

Those who are dissatisfied with the name "National Democratic" quite generally express themselves as believing that we should have a new party with a new name, as in '54. The "new party" of '54 was a grandchild of the National Republican party of '28, which latter took its name from the old Democratic-Republican party. It is interesting to notice, in this connection, a communication from Cassius M. Clay to the Republican convention of February 22, 1856. Mr. Clay wrote: "I approve of your central organization of the 'National Republican Association' "; and, further: "We are no new party; we avow no new principles; *we want no new name.*"

Respectfully yours,

LLOYD C. WHITMAN.

ANN ARBOR, MICH., August 12, 1897.

PENNSYLVANIA TO DATE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The situation has changed. The Legislature has done its worst and adjourned. Gov. Hastings is now busy counting the spoons. The Combine (spell this with a big "C") has got all there was worth getting, and the anti (little "a") got the rest. The "ripper" bill and the electric-light bill and the Becker bill and the mercantile-tax bill were passed by the Legislature merely to show what the Combine could do if it wanted to, and the Governor has been permitted to veto them to show that there is no real animosity between the different sections of the dominant party. The Republicans simply fulfilled their pledges to the people of the Commonwealth. The Combine took "money out of politics," as Senator Quay's convention last year said it would, and fixed things for "running the State Government on business principles," as the Business Men's League has determined it shall be run. The difference between the political merchant and the mercantile politician may be discovered right here: both of them take money out of politics upon business principles. The Treasury deposits in selected banks are still there, as Quay intended they should be.

But there is more in the situation now than Senator Quay's legislation and the Governor's vetoes. There is a hereafter—almost here. A great many people profess to believe that the State Capitol was burned down for the purpose of destroying the archives containing a lot of investigation material, and the crowd of believers is growing. The Prohibitionists have seized this belief, and, with their characteristic energy, have made a ticket which will assist Mr. Quay by as many votes as they are able to keep away from the consolidated opposition. The Reading convention of nondescript Democrats will meet on the 31st instant, and an attempt will be made to sidetrack the silver issue and put a compromise ticket in the field with a hope that the Sound-Money Democrats will then forego the pleasure of taking an active part in the coming campaign. The result will then be precisely what it has always been when that sort of politics has governed the Democratic party in Pennsylvania. Mr. Quay's ticket will win. "Pap" will again be "vindicated," and there will be no parties worth mentioning in the State except the Combine and the anti next year.

But the situation may change again. Mr. Given is State chairman of the Sound-Money Democratic party, and he has called his executive committee together for September 2, two days after the Reading convention. There will be a gathering at that meeting such as Pennsylvania has seldom seen or heard. No one can tell what the result will be, but if it accomplishes a vigorous call for a convention and the probable nomination of Hon. John C. Bullitt to be State Treasurer, and an equally high-grade Sound-Money Democrat to be Auditor-General, good people in the Keystone State and in the Union may begin training their voices for the Te Deum. The Reading ticket will have a short spasm of innocuous desuetude and evaporate, and the Prohibition ticket will get its usual harmless vote, but Quay will be beaten, and Mr. Wanamaker's complaints about the corruption fund which the State Treasurers have been accumulating for thirty years will get a popular response of which he did not dream when he made them. The Treasury of Pennsylvania will be reformed by the man who gave Philadelphia the only good charter the city has ever had.

It is inconceivable that the Sound-Money Democrats should fall into the trap which a dodge of the silver question at Reading would set for them. They have nothing to gain from a union of the opposites which form the two discordant elements of partisan Democracy in Pennsylvania. Such a union would simply short-circuit the current and shock everybody within reach of its influence. The real party, which has principles and traditions and a history and priests and bishops of its faith, and a goodly lot of canonized saints, will be a long way better off when it is rid of the element of Populism which threatens its ancient title to respect. It needs, throughout the Union, the courage to trust the people. It can get nothing from any compromise with an untrustworthy element.

But in Pennsylvania there is a foolish hope that some huggermuggery now will open the way to the campaign next year, and the suggestion of a compromise at Reading is born of that hope, and of certain requirements of Philadelphia politics which have no connection with political principles or party traditions. Ever since Sam Randall showed how a Democratic politician could control a Republican congressional district in Philadelphia, political principles there have been regarded as snares and delusions. Only since Mr. Bullitt and Mr. Dickson and Mr. Baer and Mr. Given and Col. Farquhar and others have determined that Populism and tomfoolery shall not dominate the Democracy, has there been a Democratic party in the State worth following. If it now consents to any process that seems to absorb it into the general mass of conglomerates which will assemble at Reading, you will never hear of it again.

If it should turn out that Quay's hand is at the bottom of the suggestion, and that the whole scheme has been concocted to prevent the independent action of the Sound-Money Democracy, to save Mr. Harrity from getting the bag as a member of the Bryanized national executive committee, and to help Quay control Martin in Philadelphia, nobody will be surprised. If it succeeds, every good man who knows anything will be disappointed. B. C. P.

MEDIA, PA., August 18, 1897.

Notes.

The method of teaching English employed in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology will be set forth in 'Freshman Composition,' by Henry G. Pearson, with an introduction by Prof. Arlo Bates. The publishers are D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

Ginn & Co. have nearly ready a 'Shakspere Note-book,' designed for advanced courses

in colleges and universities, by Prof. Charles W. Kent of the University of Virginia.

A 'Short History of Rome,' by E. S. Shuckburgh, and a new 'Handbook of European History,' by Arthur Hassall, are in the press of Macmillan Co.

Gen. Sir Henry Norman, formerly Governor of Jamaica, and of Queensland, is engaged in writing his memoirs. Sir Henry's military services in India were very distinguished, and his story should be an interesting one.

Mr. W. M. Griswold has prepared an index to Volumes of Proceedings of the National Educational Association, 1871-1897, and (under its former style of the National Teachers' Association) 1857-1870. This volume, of less than a hundred pages, is published by the Association at Chicago. Its classification calls for some study before the seeker can make use of it with confidence, as, for example, if he wishes to turn up the discussions of Luncheons or Promotions, which have no place in the dictionary arrangement. The various speakers, and authorities cited, are duly listed.

'Sound Money Monographs' (G. P. Putnam's Sons), by W. C. Cornwell of Buffalo, is a reprint of speeches and pamphlets by that sound thinker and clear writer. The longest of the series is the monograph of twenty-four pages entitled "Greenbacks," which was published during the campaign of last year and had a large sale. In this incisive document the vices of the existing currency system are set forth in terms that anybody can understand. The definitions are simple, the style easy and engaging, and the argument quite invincible. Mr. Cornwell's brief exposition of the "Money Power" is equally illuminating. He shows that the Money Power consists of all the surplus earnings of all the people, collected together as pools are formed from numerous rills running to a common meeting-place or reservoir. Mr. Cornwell is a believer in the Baltimore plan of banknote issues, with the addition of branch banks under certain restrictions as to capital. Although he is the President of a State bank, he is opposed to the repeal of the 10 per cent. tax on State-bank issues. "To go back twenty-nine years," he says, "and tear down the delicate network of safety which has developed around the National system, and, by a repeal of the 10 per cent. tax, start over again, would be a crude and unwise move, a retrogression, and unnecessary, because every good feature of State-bank issue can be grafted on the strong and efficient trunk of the National system." The book contains 178 pages and has a good index.

Mr. Bernard Bosanquet continues to put the academic world under obligation by enabling it to inform itself of the nature of "university-extension" lectures at their best. He has now followed up the 'Essentials of Logic' by a little book entitled the 'Psychology of the Moral Self' (Macmillan), which purports to give an account of modern psychological conceptions in so far as they appear to have a direct bearing upon ethical problems. In reality, the work is almost wholly psychological in character, and exhibits the author's familiarity with recent psychological speculation. Whether, however, Mr. Bosanquet was well advised to attempt to treat so many difficult and debatable subjects in so brief a compass, is another question altogether.

Part I. of 'Baumwollproduktion und Pflanzungswirthschaft in den Nordamerikanischen Südstaaten,' by Dr. Ernst von Halle, has been received from the press of Duncker & Humblot, Leipzig. This is a comprehensive and carefully written monograph, which treats of a subject that has needed, and never received, a thoroughly scientific treatment. Dr. Halle devotes the whole of his first volume to the cotton industry of the Southern States during the period of slave-labor, and promises a second instalment that shall treat of cotton production since the Civil War. Reserving more extended comment until the completion of the work, we may remark that the author has investigated his subject, with the customary German thoroughness, in most of its technical, economic, and political aspects. The careful student of our economic history will find the monograph a mine of information, while other readers will rather be repelled by the wealth of conscientiously elaborated details.

'Die Imperialistische Socialpolitik: D'Israeli, Napoleon III., Bismarck,' by Georg Adler (Tübingen: Laupp), is a rather interesting comparative study, sketching briefly the socialistic ideas and schemes of the three statesmen named, and leading to the conclusion that "imperial socialism" constitutes an important step towards the enlistment of the proletariat in the ranks of modern society; that it is an illusion, but an illusion of great historical significance. The development of the social movement in England, France, and Germany is also outlined in the fourth lecture of a course delivered in the fall of last year, at Zurich, by Prof. Werner Sombart of Breslau. These lectures are now published and are having a large sale under the title, 'Socialismus und Sociale Bewegung im 19ten Jahrhundert' (Jena: Fischer). The reader who shares Prof. Sombart's view that the modern social movement, in its principal features, is a necessity, that the motto, "War is the common father," applies also to social life, will have to accept his opinion that the social struggle can result in the good of humanity only if it be carried on by lawful and fair means. In an appendix the attempt is made for the first time by the author to present in a synchronistic table the most important dates of the modern proletarian movement (1750-1896).

An Ariadne's thread out of the labyrinth of opinions on "modern" painting is to be found in W. von Seidlitz's two essays on 'Die Entwickelung der modernen Malerei,' forming No. 265 of the well-known series founded by Virchow and Holtzendorff (Hamburg: Verlagsanstalt). Everybody interested in contemporaneous art has some idea of its principal currents, but to form a clear conception of their distinguishing characteristics is a difficult matter, the more so because professional artists are even not disposed, or else not prepared, to help those seeking information. The recent philippic against modern art by A. von Werner in the Berlin Academy, does not lack plainness of speech, to be sure, but Werner's views are not shared by many leading or talented painters of the day. Von Lenbach also has spoken harsh words of similar tenor, but his condemnation is less sweeping, and his position is not hostile to the modern tendency *in toto*. Longer treatises on the question are, of course, not wanting—Carl Neumann's 'Der Kampf um die neue Kunst' has just appeared in its second edition (Berlin: Walther)—but Seidlitz's little work is especially to be recommended for the conciseness, clearness, and impartiality with which the aims and means of the more original artists, since Manet's discovery (or rediscovery) of the *plein-air* principle, are set forth.

In the San Francisco *Chronicle* of August 1, Mr. Charles F. Lummis makes some highly interesting and authoritative comments on the unofficial report of Prof. Libby's recent exploration of the summit of the Enchanted Mesa in Western New Mexico. This bold sandstone "island" is some 900 feet high and now inaccessible except by balloon, or by line and mortar which Prof. Libby employed. He found nothing that, to his eye, indicated human occupation in past ages, but Mr. Lummis points out the extraordinary effects of subaerial erosion in that region, and the need of aboriginal or expert inspection before the ancient legend of occupation can be discredited. He also shows that one end of the rock has been gullied out to an extent beyond the area required for the largest structure that could have been built on the plateau, so that time may have destroyed the work of man together with the natural foundation.

The *Quarterly Review* for July contains an article on "Henri" Taine. This oft-corrected, still recurrent, blunder is noteworthy in this instance for its pervasive thoroughness. Henri Taine appears on the cover of the review, in its table of contents, in the title and running-title as well as in the body of the article *passim*, and is spread abroad in all the advertisements of the number which have appeared in the newspapers.

M. Bischoffsheim, the Paris banker, everywhere known also as a princely benefactor of astronomy, has just distributed among American astronomers the sixth volume of the *Annales* of the Observatory at Nice, which was founded by his munificence many years ago, and is maintained in charge of M. Perrotin as director. The volume is entirely the work of the assistants of the Observatory, M. Javelle contributing a fine catalogue of nebulæ newly discovered with a great 30-inch equatorial; but the volume is for the most part filled with technical detail of observations with the meridian instruments. M. Simonin presents a masterly discussion of the orbit of the small planet Hecuba discovered by Luther at Düsseldorf in 1869, whose interesting peculiarity is that its mean motion is about double that of Jupiter, presenting, therefore, many difficulties inviting the skill of the astronomical geometer; and M. Simonin succeeds in showing clearly that the methods of the new *mécanique celeste*, on account of their simplicity, afford a very close solution of the movement of this little body round the sun.

Literary Americans cannot but take an interest in the fortunes of the great English public school, Christ Hospital, familiarly known as the Blue Coat School. It is some years since the governing body determined to sell their valuable premises in the heart of the city of London, and, like the Charter-house School, to go into the country. It is now arranged that the Prince of Wales shall lay the foundation-stone of the new buildings at Horsham on the 23d of October. The transfer of the school will hardly take place before two years.

Recent transactions in journalistic property in England show that enterprise in newspapers, when in competent hands, leads to wealth on a large scale. A provincial

newspaper, the Manchester *Courier*, with its satellite, the Manchester *Evening News*, has just been successfully launched as a Limited Liability Company, at a valuation of £300,000. Sir George Newnes is converting the hitherto profitable journalistic and publishing company of George Newnes, Limited, into a yet bigger concern, with a capital of £1,000,000. The enterprise was started with *Tit-Bits* in 1881, by the then Mr. Newnes. By degrees the *Strand Magazine*, *Woman's Life*, the *Hub*, and other publications were added to the business. The concern was turned into the existing company in 1891. The profits amounted in 1895 to £57,000, in 1896 to £60,000, in 1897 to £66,000. The one-pound shares, issued at a premium of five shillings, are now worth £2-12-6 each. The *Strand Magazine*, a sixpenny, sells to the number of 400,000 a month, and notoriously has a very large circulation on this side of the water. Sir George Newnes is a remarkable instance of a man's attaining to rank and fortune by self-help. Not so many years ago he kept a small shop in a back street in Manchester. To-day, though only in middle life, he is a baronet of the United Kingdom, and a man of vast wealth. He was a member of the House of Commons, but was defeated at the last general election.

For years past it has been the custom of many booksellers in England to allow to purchasers two pence or three pence in the shilling discount upon the published prices of books. In recent years a long-drawn-out controversy has arisen as to the policy of this system, which is objected to by some of the publishers and by the smaller booksellers, as injurious to the book-trade. The smaller booksellers especially say that they cannot afford to give the discount, which so reduces their income that they have to eke out a living by selling stationery and fancy articles not in the line of an ordinary bookseller's business. The whole matter has just been advanced a stage by the appointment of a sub-committee of the managing committee of the Society of Authors, to examine into the question. This is the result of communications that have passed between the chairman of the Publishers' Association, Mr. Charles Longman, and the chairman of the managing committee, Mr. Rider Haggard. The sub-committee will meet in October. Meanwhile, some publishers have adopted the system of issuing their books at net prices.

For vexatious litigation with a vengeance, commend us to the case of Williams versus Wright, the printer and publisher of the London *Times*, heard in the Queen's Bench division of the High Court of Justice on the 29th of July. The plaintiff, Williams, objects to the provisions of the Sunday observance act, passed in 1781. Avowing himself to have no religious belief, he refused to be sworn. His object in taking the proceedings was, he said, in favor of the utmost liberty being enjoyed by every one on Sundays. So he struck at the act through the *Times* newspaper, on account of an advertisement that appeared in that journal, on the 20th of March last, of a public entertainment or amusement on the Lord's Day. Williams, therefore, sued to recover a penalty of £50 from the defendant, in terms of section 3 of the act. The prosecutor had, however, not taken stock of the facts that on the tickets of admission to the entertainment were printed the words "Admission free." There was, indeed, a charge for seats; but it was not compulsory to hire a seat. The judge decided against the prosecutor, with costs, holding that "the statute spoke of admission, not to a seat, but to an entertainment." The case was heard by Mr. Justice Collins, who is one of the arbitrators chosen by Great Britain for the disposal of the questions of the boundaries between British Guiana and the Republic of Venezuela.

According to the recently published statistics of population in France, there were in 1895 17,813 more deaths than births in that country. The French are, in fact, the least prolific of all the nations of Europe. The annual number of births per thousand is as follows: Hungary 42.5, Italy 36.6, Germany 36.6, Austria 36.2, Holland 33.8, Great Britain 30.8, Belgium 29.5, Switzerland 28.5, France 22.1. There are other factors, however, which greatly modify this result and render it less unfavorable to France than it appears to be at first sight. Thus, the yearly number of deaths in France is only 23 per thousand, whereas it averages 26 in the rest of central Europe. The average number of children born to a family in France is 2.96, whereas in Germany it is more than 4. In some German cities (in Munich, for example) about one-half of the children die before they are a year old. In France, infant mortality is far less. In France, too, emigration is quite small; in Germany it is very large, and deprives the land of many of its most vigorous inhabitants at a time when they might contribute most to the industrial force and military strength of the nation. Indeed, it is probable that this productive class in France exceeds the same category in Germany.

The Oriental Seminary in Berlin, since its foundation in 1887, has developed a practical side, and is now performing a very useful function in the promotion of foreign trade. It has not only provided competent interpreters for the embassies and consulates of the German Empire in the East, and educated candidates for the colonial service, but it has exerted a decided influence upon German business circles by imparting special instructions to young merchants, bankers, and technologists who wish to engage in commercial or industrial enterprises in Asia and Africa. That a German consul who has received this kind of training has an immense advantage over an American consul who has been appointed to office on account of his efficiency as a "political worker," must be evident even to the most inveterate "spoilsman." The result is seen in the astonishing growth of German industries and exportations of manufactures within a few years.

Dr. Karl Brockhausen's report on the workings of university extension in Vienna during the last academical year is extremely encouraging. The number of persons attending the different courses of lectures was as follows, the attendance of the year before being given in parenthesis: Medicine, 2,488 (2,238); natural history, 2,624 (1,793); history, 694 (987); history of literature and art, 1,028 (852); law, 373 (229). According to the by-laws of the Association, lectures can also be delivered in the provinces, provided the request be made by private individuals or corporations, and security be given for the payment of the expenses incurred. There were two cases of this kind, one in Krems, under the auspices of the Volksbildungsverein, and one at Baden (near Vienna), under the dictation of the Catholic Gesellenverein. The hearers were encouraged to ask questions, and not only made a liberal and quite profitable use of this privilege, but also showed a surprising degree of intelligence concerning the subjects treated, including geology, geography, astronomy, anthropology, botany, German language and literature, history of the Greek drama, Latin, etc. The course of lectures on physics was exceedingly popular, so that the hall was overcrowded and parallel courses had to be arranged. Dr. Tuma expresses his astonishment at the comprehension of many difficult problems of electro-technics by persons belonging to the working classes; and Prof. Neumann, who lectured on the history of old Christian art, states that he never had more earnest and attentive auditors among the students of the university. An appropriation of 6,000 florins (nearly $3,000) was made by the Minister of Public Instruction.

In connection with and as a sort of annex to the Catholic University of America at Washington, a woman's college "of the same grade as Vassar," to be known as Trinity College, is to be established under the direction and control of the sisters of Notre Dame, whose mother-house is Namur, Belgium, and who are devoted exclusively to teaching. Sister Julia, Provincial Superior, may be addressed for particulars at K and North Capitol Streets; and endowments are solicited.

—Dr. Murray concludes the third volume of the Oxford English Dictionary, or the 'New English Dictionary on Historical Principles,' with the last instalment of the letter D (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde). He again has "to record the inestimable collaboration of Dr. Fitzedward Hall, whose voluntary labors have completed the literary and documentary history of numberless words, senses, and idioms, and whose contributions are to be found on every page." And another American is singled out among the Readers of the Dictionary, viz., Mr. Albert Matthews of Boston, who has contributed some 28,000 examples. In the section Doom-Dziggetai, *draw*, with its seventeen columns, perhaps claims pre-eminence. We may feel a slight regret that the sense 'to translate' has become obsolete, even if we are not left ill-provided with synonyms for this process. One discerns in Surrey's "translated into Englishe and drawen into straunge metre" an acceptable connotation of workmanship and art. Under the thirtieth division, 'to bring about as a result,' we would fain have seen quoted Milton's "that after no repentance *draws*," as, under *drench* 6, 'to drown,' there would have been place for the preceding line of the same sonnet, "deep thoughts resolve with me to drench In mirth." Those who have enjoyed John Woolman's scrupulous "draught towards the steerage" of his proposed West Indian packet, because of the needless decorations of the poop cabin, will miss the citation of it under *draught*, II. 6, 'inclination, impulse,' though we have there a similar contemporary phrase, "I felt a draught to visit New England." We have often wondered if Dr. Murray had a sufficient Quaker collaboration. *Draught* 46, ' a privy,' would seem to account for *draughty* 3, 'rubbishy, filthy,' all the more because of the date of the sole citation (1602). Hence we should put it first rather than third in the arrangement. It is surprising to find, in the division of mean-

ings for which *draft* has become established over *draught*, how slight is the phonetic inroad—7 for the noun and 3 for the verb *draft* against 46 for the noun and 5 for the verb *draught*. But for Dampier (1697), Washington would be the earliest citation (1756) for *draft* in any sense.

—That the alternative *drouth* for *drought* is maintained, we seem to owe to the poets, who find it handy for rhyming. But these gentry are responsible for more than they may care to be. Tennyson's daring "Little breezes *dusk* and shiver" (1832) was evidently in Mrs. Randolph's mind when she wrote (1879), "A copse of aspens dusked and shivered near the brink"; but the poetry of the word as applied to something invisible has gone clean out of it. A favorite metaphor of Lowell's is caught in his prose, "The sides of the road were *drifted* with heaps of wild hawthorn and honeysuckle," but missed in his verse (of a little lane), "Its *drift* of noiseless apple-blooms receives." One might have expected Edward FitzGerald to figure in illustration of *doubt*, 'to apprehend,' but he was overlooked or crowded out; in this, suffering the fate of words themselves. *Drain* appears in Old English at the end of the ninth century, and then is not heard of again till 1500. Chaucer (1384) uses *duration*, and how could Shakspere dispense with it? He did, as did men of letters generally after the above date till 1600, when it reappeared. *Double entendre* was good French in 1688, and Dryden uses it, in a purely French context, in 1673. It is common nowadays to rule it out as ungrammatical in favor of *double entente;* but this is not the sole example of obsolete French remaining correct in English. *Dot*, 'dowry,' has superseded *dote*, a sixteenth-century French variant of *dot;* but this might not have happened. In both these cases we may read the spread of a knowledge of the French language among Englishmen. The *dude*, which we in New York gave to the world in 1883, has, we believe, not passed the crisis of obsolescence. Regarding *dough-face*, nothing has been discovered prior to Bartlett's date of 1833; yet the citation from Whittier (1834) speaks of it as already "familiar." Some student of Randolph ought to hound this down. There is no cisatlantic citation for *dragoon*, and it is merely remarked that "in the United States Army the term is not used." True; but those of us who remember the Mexican War have only to turn to Grant's Memoirs (ed. 1895), i. 44, where he says of Taylor's army of occupation that, altogether, "it consisted of seven companies of the second regiment of dragoons," etc. In closing, we heartily congratulate Dr. Murray and Mr. Bradley on their new volume. In their next, let them bid their proof-reader render a final *s* to their fellow-lexicographers, Funk & Wagnalls, here twice docked of it.

— With vol. vii. of the 'Jesuit Relations' (Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co.) the narratives enter upon a new phase. Prior to 1635 the missions were so few and struggling that the bulletins of the Superior sufficed to mark the progress made. After this date it was impossible for the official head at Quebec to report from personal knowledge upon all that was being done under his auspices. He continues to act as an editor, but relies more and more on the contributions which he receives from the Huron and Iroquois missions. Identity of training, method of observation, and aim is seen in the harmonious texture of the piece that was annually sent home. Le Jeune for the present continues to be the central figure, though we are warned by his enthusiastic praise of Brébeuf that the apostle to the Hurons is soon to take a more prominent part. "O l'excellent homme pour ces pays icy que le Père Brébeuf, sa memoire tres-heureuse, sa douceur tres-aymable, seront de grands fruicts dedans les Hurons." The language difficulty remains a prominent feature of Le Jeune's letters, and his own defective memory seems to cause him constant distress. Yet, after his winter with the Montagnais (already partly described in vol. vi.), he is in a position to write more intelligently about their tongue than before. A touch of humor is contained in the statement that he has learned most of the abusive words from their constant application to himself. When not calling him "dog" or "pumpkin-head," they sometimes amused themselves by giving him false information when he asked questions. His Christian retaliation was to correct their extravagant ideas of geography and astronomy; as, for instance, telling them the relative distances of the heavenly bodies, and that the ocean was not full of great cataracts like Montmorency Falls, which they had supposed must render navigation difficult. Le Jeune's hatred of the Huguenots, to which we have called attention in a previous notice, finds further expression in the second document of this volume, a letter to Richelieu: "Toute la France vous doit sa guérison ayant dissipé le venin qui luy gagnoit le cœur." The third and concluding piece is the beginning of the 1635 Relation. It is more occupied with individual cases of conversion than with ethnology and adventure; but, by comprising Brébeuf's first report from Ihonatiria (to appear in the next instalment), brings us to the central action of the enterprise.

—The reprint of the rare 'Lettre d'un habitant de Louisbourg' (Toronto: William Briggs), edited with an English translation by Prof. George M. Wrong, is an interesting contribution to the sources of our colonial history. It gives the only known French unofficial account of the siege and capture of this place, and, although it has been used by Mr. Parkman and other writers, this is the first time, to our knowledge, that it has been reprinted in its entirety. The writer signs himself "B. L. N.," and is evidently a person of some means, probably a trader, who conceals his identity on account of his severe strictures on the Governor and the French officers. The whole blame of the misfortune is charged to their folly, cowardice, and mismanagement. His comments upon the English are amusing, and at the same time instructive as showing the state of feeling between the two peoples. Of the nation generally he says, "The majority of them are engaged in piracy"; while of the New Englanders he writes, "These singular peoples have laws and a police peculiar to themselves, and their Governor carries himself like a monarch." He accuses Sir William Pepperell of permitting his soldiers to pillage, and adds, "What could we expect from a man who, it is said, is the son of a shoemaker of Boston?" The independent action of the land and sea forces, so great that "one could never have told in fact that these troops belonged to the same nation and obeyed the same prince," is merely one of the oddities characteristic of the English. "which nevertheless form a part of that precious liberty of which they show themselves so jealous." The writer tells a story of the siege of Annapolis Royal in 1744, which is new to us. The French commander had ordered the Acadians to make ladders to be used in the intended assault and paid them scrupulously for their labor. "The governor of the fort [Paul Mascarene], after our force had retired, told them that since France had paid them for the ladders which they had made, it was proper that England should pay them to destroy them; and in fact they were employed to do this." Prof. Wrong has added some useful notes to his translation, which is excellently done, though at times we detect a tendency to sacrifice the force of the original in order to secure smooth English. It is a sign not only of the progress of historical studies in Canada, but also of the growing intellectual unity of the Dominion, that this edition of a French booklet, primarily concerning Cape Breton, should now be edited, with the assistance of a learned abbé of Quebec, by a professor in Ontario, and published by the Ontario Government (for the letter appears also as an appendix to the report of the Minister of Education for Toronto).

—Readers of Bikelas's 'Tales from the Aegean' (McClurg, 1894) will be interested in the illustrated reissue of the original Greek tales, just published at Athens by Constantinides. Seven Greek artists, among whom the best known are Ralli, the illustrator of 'Louki Laras' (Didot, 1892), and Prof. N. Gyzis of Munich, are responsible for the illustrations, which are ninety-nine in number. The process of reproduction used is a familiar French one, and these same plates figure in a reissue of the French version of these tales by the late Marquis de Queux de Saint-Hilaire, which Didot has for some time had in the press. The brightness and delicacy of the Aegean atmosphere seem fairly to glimmer forth from the pages, scattered throughout the book, where Giallinas gives glimpses of Syra and Hermoupolis, a towering Teniote headland, a steep on the Cretan coast, and other vistas of the isles of Greece. Giallinas has the Aegean Greek's love for his native shores and seas; and it is therefore well that the landscapes of the book are chiefly his, including a remarkably fine drawing of a large stone-pine standing alone (p. 102). With this exception each artist has, in the main, confined himself to a single tale or group of tales. The story of "Philip Marthas," by many regarded as Bikelas's masterpiece, is illustrated by Gyzis, whose original drawings for it figured recently in an exhibition of his works held at Dresden, where they were greatly admired. Among them is a tender and exquisitely Greek vignette of a young mother and her babe, which is also reproduced on the title-page. Here Gyzis expresses the idyllic mood of his theme, but he has concentrated the power and pathos of this wild tale in a strangely beautiful Medusa-like head, representing the overshadowing fate of Philip Marthas. The good-humored comedy of "The Plain Sister" has been a little overstrained in some of Jacobides's illustrations, though in the main he has happily caught its characteristic note of affectionate *bonhomie*. The

closing tale of "The Two Brothers," on the other hand, requires a far more skilled and imaginative treatment than its illustrator, Phocas, can give, and a similar criticism must be passed upon Rigos's illustrations of the breezy sketch of insurrectionary Crete. But Rigos has amply retrieved himself in his genuine interpretation of the sad story of Christos and the mad wolf. Still more remarkable are the drawings of Lytras, which show forth the delicate humor and the pathos of Bikelas's account of "Papas Narkissos." Of Ralli's interpretation of the two remaining tales it is praise enough to say that they show him at his best, and exhibit a draughtsmanship more practised than that of his illustrations to 'Louki Laras,' long since commended in the *Nation*.

THE GREEK THEATRE.

Das Griechische Theater; Beiträge zur Geschichte des Dionysos-Theaters in Athen und Anderer Griechischer Theater. Von Wilhelm Dörpfeld und Emil Reisch. Athens: Barth & Von Hirst; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.

Dr. Dörpfeld's work has been long expected and will amply repay expectation. It is, first and foremost, the work of an experienced architect and accomplished archæologist, providing his material from actual observation; it is brimful of the latest and most accurate results of well-directed research. The literary records and evidence concerning the ancient theatre have been already collected and sifted thoroughly. The literary record was, in many respects, extremely confused and confusing; the technical terms, defined by Pollux and others, offered many puzzles and apparent contradictions—they were even more puzzling, perhaps, than the problematical mass of ruins from which the remains of the Dionysiac theatre were exhumed; but, by the light of the extant monuments, Dr. Dörpfeld has succeeded in extracting from all sources a reasonable and luminous history of the evolution of the theatre.

The weightiest and most original contribution in Dörpfeld's work is his architectural history of the Dionysiac Theatre at Athens. The extant remains of this theatre presented in themselves a résumé and epitome of all the steps by which, in the course of half a dozen centuries, the Greek theatre was transformed and developed into the Roman type. To disentangle these remains, to determine the date and function of the different structures and foundations, so inextricably mingled, so misunderstood by previous authorities; to construct from them an intelligible and coherent succession of plans, by the aid of the most recent excavations, was the task which our author has reported and summed up in the admirable plates that accompany this volume. The chapters which follow on the evolution and development of the theatre are a series of corollaries from these researches. They are fortified by comparison with the latest discoveries in other theatres in Greece and Asia Minor.

A fragmentary outline of Dörpfeld's views has already reached the public through various channels, but the details, as drawn from the extant monuments and remains, are very convincing and fascinating; they are so coherent, harmonious, and reasonable that they impress themselves strongly, even without the support and authority of an accomplished architect and archæologist. His view, now no longer novel, that the Greek actors appeared not on an elevated stage, but on the floor of the orchestra, is simply a portion of his coherent theory of the historic evolution of the drama and the theatre. Hence a brief sketch of the process of development is necessary to an understanding of the question of the stage.

The germs of the earliest dramatic performance are still to be seen in Greece at the present day. The stranger who visits Megara or Rhodes, on Easter Tuesday, or on any great religious festival, will witness, in one of those native dances which are still kept up by the peasantry, a sort of rehearsal of the earliest form of the chorus and orchestra. The musicians form a centre for the evolutions of the dancers, and for the ring of spectators who range themselves around or avail themselves of any coign of vantage in the neighborhood. The most distinguished personages may be provided with chairs or seats in the front row of the circle. In this familiar scene we have all the elements of the artless performances of the sixth century B. C.—we have the circular orchestra, the musicians who stood upon the steps of an altar or *thymele*, the chorus who sang and danced around them, and the θέατρον, or onlookers, with the προεδρία, or reserved front seats for officials, or magistrates, or persons of distinction. A single actor, or the leader of the chorus, at times mounted the steps of the altar and filled the pauses of the dance with his recitation. It will be an obvious convenience for the spectators if this festive rite can be displayed at the foot of some sloping hillside.

In the fifth century, these primitive and casual arrangements are improved. The State now takes official notice and charge of the performance and the arrangements. The hillside is artificially prepared by foundations of stone and earth for the reception of wooden seats for spectators; the circular orchestra below is levelled and made of beaten earth for the steps of the dancers. The two or three actors stand in front of a wooden building—called scena (σκηνή)—which faces the spectators on the other side of the orchestra, and makes a tangent to its circumference. This building serves as a dressing-room for the actors, and in general for their exits and entrances. It serves also as a background for their performances, being provided with projecting wings on the left and right, between which is set up a movable decorative wall, called a proscenium. The scena has one or more doors through which the actors make their exits and entrances, except when they are supposed to come from the city, or from a distance. In this latter case, they use the same passages (parodoi) which the chorus and the spectators use—passages leading on each side of the scena into the orchestra.

In exceptional cases, the actors make their appearance on the roof of the proscenium, when, for example, they impersonate a deity, or are supposed to speak from the balcony of a house or the battlements of a city. The *locus* of the actors is now transferred from the altar to the scena; they emerge and speak from it (ἀπὸ σκηνῆς), or they stay near and in front of it (ἐπὶ σκηνῆς), but they move freely on the floor of the orchestra. The wall of the scena had three doors, probably; but the proscenium, which masked it, varied according to the scene to be represented. In the heyday of the drama, the period of Æschylus, of Sophocles, Euripides, and Aristophanes, the proscenium is a movable scenic or decorative front of the scena, built of wooden columns with painted panels between. These panels may be shifted so that the proscenium suggests a temple, the walls of a city, a rustic landscape with grotto, a royal palace, a dwelling-house, or a row of dwellings, according to the requirements of the particular performance.

The scena building is one story high, unless the exigencies of the play require the temporary erection of a second story. In the fourth and later centuries, the increasing vogue of Menander and the domestic comedy (which Plautus and Terence represent), imparted a fixed character to the proscenium; it regularly represented the vestibule or façade of a dwelling, or of several dwelling-houses. It could, therefore, assume a permanent type; and it was, accordingly, together with the scena, built of stone, its decorative columns replacing the wooden posts of the earlier shifting contrivance, its height remaining from ten to twelve feet, the width of its roof from eight to ten feet or thereabouts. At this conventional house-front, which is clearly indicated in the remains at Epidaurus and elsewhere, the actors continued to make their exits and entrances. Its doors opened on the street, *i. e.*, on the level of the orchestra, and on this level the actors stood, as in the earlier period.

Such, at least, is the contention of Dörpfeld, and it looks eminently reasonable. It is a logical sequence of the development of the theatre, which we have just lightly sketched. It did not present itself first to him as part of an *à priori* theory, but as an architectural fact among the ruins of the Dionysiac theatre—a fact which was quite unaccountable according to existing opinions. Yet these opinions were based on the distinct statement of Vitruvius, a professional architect writing in or near the time of Augustus, and accompanying his article on the theatre by exact mathematical measurements. In this treatise he expressly states that the Greek theatre had a stage, and that its height was not less than ten nor more than twelve feet; and he seems to say, almost as explicitly, that the actors performed on this stage.

This is certainly a staggering statement, and requires an array of stark facts to controvert it. "It is absurd to suppose," says the article in Harper's recent 'Dictionary of Antiquities,' "that Vitruvius could have made a blunder in writing about the Greek theatre of his own day." Many distinguished French and German Hellenists are struck with this same absurdity. Mr. Haigh, among English scholars, accepts the dictum of Vitruvius, with some modifications which he proposes for the fifth century. Within a few years, the French at Delos and the English at Megalopolis thought they had found crucial evidence in inscriptions and in a stage structure to confirm the Vitruvian prescription. Our American archæologists, on the other hand, have generally supported Dr. Dörpfeld's contention; and among these we have had occasion to notice the useful contributions by Prof. John Williams White and Prof. Edward Capps to the discussion of the evidence afforded by the dramas. The controversy, therefore, be-

came, in an esoteric way, an international question. It would be quite impossible to present even a summary of the array of arguments which Dr. Dörpfeld marshals; but a few of them, after the sketch we have given, will be interesting and perfectly intelligible.

In the first place, assuming Vitruvius to be correct, no one who accepts his statement has ever pretended to explain why the Greeks, who were reasonable and practical people, should have been so absurd as to mount their actors on a narrow shelf, which had to be climbed by a staircase of some twenty steps, and from which they must have talked with the chorus as people call from an upper story of a house to their friends on the next floor below. Dr. Dörpfeld says that this curious, high, narrow ledge *was*, in fact, an upper story, viz., the roof of the proscenium, which an actor did occasionally mount if he was to gaze from city walls or to climb a roof, like the escaping disciples of Socrates in the "Clouds," or to pose as a deity declaiming from the skies. In such rare instances an actor might stand quiet and keep his head, notwithstanding the inconvenience of being hampered with a mask and with high-soled boots; in other instances and for ordinary purposes, Dörpfeld asserts that such a ledge is an impossible position for an actor wearing a mask and using the free and vehement action which experts agree in attributing to the performers in tragedy as well as comedy.

If we ask how could the people see the actors without a stage, Dörpfeld makes a very ingenious and obvious reply. It is simply this: If your spectators sit on a level, a stage of moderate height is necessary; if, on the contrary, they sit on ascending tiers of seats, as in the Greek theatre, a stage is unnecessary, is even undesirable and objectionable. The higher it is, the more objectionable; in fact, for the nearer spectators it will defeat its own object. This is a mere question of optics and mathematics. A moment's reflection and calculation will show that if the stage is ten feet high and ten feet wide, a spectator ten feet away will lose sight entirely of an actor standing at the rear of the stage; spectators at a greater distance are at a less disadvantage, but all spectators near by are inconvenienced by this elevation instead of being helped by it. On the other hand, the rising tiers of seats remove the necessity of such an elevation. The spectator sees over his neighbor's head, and looks down across the wide orchestra with perfect ease and clearness.

Our author offers an ocular proof of this in a photograph taken at the theatre of Eretria. In this view more than fifty people are standing distributed over the orchestra and close to the scena wall. Every one of these is distinctly and separately visible, without crowding or confusion. Perhaps the picture would have been still more convincing if it had been taken from a lower point, with an experimental arrangement of chorus and actors. Only the spectators in the very lowest and foremost row of seats could have any difficulty in distinguishing the actors and the members of the chorus. Even here, as Dr. Dörpfeld observes, the vision is assisted and the distinction made clear by the varied costumes of the actors, and, in tragedy, by the elevation due to the cothurnus.

Another weighty fact, the significance of which has been imperfectly understood, is remarked by Dr. Dörpfeld. The outer boundary of the Roman cavea for spectators forms a semicircle; the Greek cavea is extended beyond a semicircle, in lines which are not a continuation of the original circle, but are struck from new centres, and give an elliptical or horse-shoe shape to the cavea. The object of this arrangement is generally said to be to increase the seating capacity of the theatre, and this is, in some cases, true as far as it goes. But there is another object which is strikingly evident and practical when once pointed out. This arrangement enables the spectators at each end of the horse-shoe to look on without inconvenience; moreover, if we draw and plot out the "lines of sight" for spectators near the extremities (choosing, for example, the actual curves of the theatres at Athens or Epidaurus), we shall find that these lines converge toward points between the centre of the orchestra and the front of the proscenium. The conclusion from this is obvious, viz., that the action must have taken place in front of the proscenium, that the arrangement of the curves was designed to favor the spectators' view of the portion of the orchestra lying between its centre and the proscenium; for a view of the proscenium itself the curve is extremely awkward, and would oblige the sitters to turn half-way round. If, on the other hand, the actors had stood on a stage situated as Vitruvius prescribes, a simple semicircle would have given all the spectators desirable seats and points of view.

It seems an astounding and improbable thing that an architect writing professionally about the theatre, and with the object of giving practical instructions for building, should commit such a mistake. We must, however, remember, says Dörpfeld, that he was a Roman architect writing about Greek theatres. He may never have seen a performance in a Greek theatre; he was familiar only with the Roman type, which always possessed the elevated stage. He had before him undoubtedly plans and dimensions of Hellenistic theatres; his data in regard to these are, on the whole, accurate. But he looked for an equivalent of the Roman stage, and he found it, as he thought, in the Greek proscenium, with its narrow ledge of roofing. The dimensions of this are exactly what he gives for the Greek logeion, or stage. He may have been further misled by the wording of his Greek sources; in these the actors would be said to stand ἐπὶ σκηνῆς, an expression which he would render in Latin by *in scæna*, "on the stage"; whereas Dörpfeld's discussion of the whole subject proves it to mean *close to* or *in front of* the actor's quarters.

The evidence which will induce one to accept this explanation in face of such an authority as Vitruvius must be very weighty and convincing, and, in fact, it is the cumulative mass of all the architectural facts presented in the extant theatres, fortified by the literary testimony of the plays themselves, which Dörpfeld arrays against the Roman writer. Discussed piecemeal and in a scattered way, as they have been hitherto, the word of the ancient architect might seem irrefragable against this or that particular bit of testimony; but the entire mass is so serried, so coherent, that, to our minds, it overbears and countervails the ancient authority completely. It is entirely convincing, though we confess that for years we have maintained hitherto a sceptical suspense. We are the more convinced because this theory fits in satisfactorily with so many facts and illuminates so many obscurities. It fits to a nicety the facts of the extant dramas; it explains such puzzles as the diversity of meaning attached to *thymele* and orchestra, applied to both stage and arena.

Mr. Haigh and others have made an apparently strong point in the evidence of certain vases from lower Italy, which seem to represent scenes from Greek comedy, performed on an elevated stage. They argue that these vases are evidence of the custom, borrowed by the Greeks of Magna Græcia from the mother country. The evidence of this character and of other extant monuments, such as bas-reliefs and Pompeiian wall-paintings, is very fully discussed in an interesting chapter by Emil Reisch. He shows that the kraters from Ruvo, from Bari, and Lentini are really evidence of the local farces or burlesques which were indigenous in lower Italy, and were reduced to literary form more especially by Rhinthon in the fourth century. These "fooleries" were burlesques of tragic subjects, and were performed by actors solely, without a chorus, in local theatres where the spectators sat on a level floor and required the aid of an elevated stage. The same requirements would give rise to the same expedient wherever the same conditions existed; and such conditions might, of course, sporadically have existed in a few spots in Greece proper, though of such places we have no information. The testimony of these vases is therefore good for the region in which they are found, and for the period which they cover, *i. e.*, from the end of the fourth to the second century B. C. The number of steps in the ladder, or staircase, by which the stage is reached is anywhere from four to eight. This again indicates a height approaching that of a Roman pulpitum. The vases have a real interest and value, as recording certain steps in the development of the Italian theatre, which doubtless had its influence on the Roman type. The information from Pompeiian paintings is much less definite and trustworthy. In this case we have to deal with the whim and fancy of the painter and his decorative purpose; when we make allowance for this, we can extract no secure evidence, except such as is supported by architectural facts of the extant remains.

It follows from the sketch we have given that there is no logical connection between the Greek proscenium and the Roman stage (pulpitum). The latter is not derived from the former by the discovery on the part of the Romans that the Greek proscenium was too high and impracticable, and that a platform wider and half as high would be much more convenient. So elementary an observation was not reserved for the Roman mind to make. On the contrary, the Roman stage and all the structural deviations of the Roman theatre are evolved by practical necessity from the simple process of dividing the orchestra, and depressing that portion of its floor which was nearest the spectators. The comedy of Plautus and of Terence—the comedy of domestic life and manners, which is the forerunner of Molière and Congreve and Wycherley—dispensed with the chorus. As soon as the chorus disappeared from the drama, a portion of the orchestra circle became no longer needful for its occupation

and evolutions. The depression of one portion of the floor has for its correlative the moderate elevation of the other part, which becomes the Roman stage. The Roman stage retains for its background the decorative wall of the Greek proscenium. The actors continue to stand in front of this, and in the same general relation to the spectators and the scena building which they originally had in the Greek theatre. The structural peculiarities of the Roman building follow necessarily from this one fact of the disuse and the depression of one portion of the orchestra, and its conversion to other purposes; hence the vaulted passageways leading into this part of the orchestra and to the cavea, and the disappearance or transformation of the original *parodoi*.

The height of their stage is that of the line of sight of the foremost spectators, and is rigidly confined to this reasonable figure. Other structural changes follow necessarily from the roofing-in of the whole building and placing it under cover. The simplicity and the logical necessity of these changes are strikingly shown by some simple diagrams, which illustrate the transition of the Greek theatre proper to the types of the theatre at Aspendus or Assus, and in Pompeii. In Italy, the superfluous portion of the orchestra is devoted to seats for senators and magistrates. In Asia Minor and at Athens it becomes an arena or *conistra* for gladiatorial combats.

A New History of the United States. By Horace E. Scudder. Sheldon & Co. 1897.

Student's American History. By D. H. Montgomery. Ginn & Co. 1897.

History of the United States. By W. A. and A. M. Mowry. Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co. 1897.

About thirteen years ago Mr. Horace E. Scudder published a history of the United States for the use of schools. In spite of occasional indistinctness of outline, and a style rather more elementary than some teachers thought necessary, the substantial merits of the book were soon recognized, and it has continued to hold its own as one of the best of elementary text-books. Mr. Scudder has now published a 'New History of the United States,' modelled, he tells us, on the same general lines as the earlier work, but with fuller treatment and somewhat different emphasis. Perhaps the most distinctive feature of the later volume is its arrangement. All of the history preceding the fall of Quebec is treated as merely introductory, the six chapters occupying less than one-fourth of the text, while the succeeding events are grouped, as in the earlier work, in two periods, with the close of the second war with Great Britain as the dividing line. Two supplementary chapters deal with the preparation in Europe for the discovery and occupation of America, and the physical features of the continent. While the plan, in these respects, is not entirely novel, its advantages, in the way of a rational topical treatment of the subject, are considerable. The human element in the narrative is emphasized by the special attention paid to biography, reinforced by a wealth of portraits. Another notable feature is the frequent reference to poems, novels, biographies, and other pieces of literature illustrative of periods and events; in this respect, indeed, nothing quite so good has yet come to our notice.

The volume is profusely and excellently illustrated, and provided with numerous maps; the illustrative material being reproduced, for the most part, from the earlier book. Finally, Mr. Scudder has equipped his book with a "pedagogical apparatus" of discriminating questions, theme subjects, and topics for debates, besides topical analyses, chronological tables, and a copious index. One does not look for fresh facts or original comments in an elementary manual, and Mr. Scudder has attempted nothing of the sort; he has, however, written simply and carefully, and with an effectiveness which betrays the hand of a practised writer. Altogether, this 'New History' has many points of superiority to any similar text-book which we now recall.

There has certainly long been need of a volume which should do for American history what Gardiner's 'Student's History' has done for the history of England. We cannot think that Mr. D. H. Montgomery's 'Student's American History' has supplied the lack, but the volume is, nevertheless, a useful addition to the small number of commendable text-books in its field. In plan it is similar to the same author's 'Leading Facts of American History,' which has, we believe, met with favor as a text-book for preparatory schools; the present work is larger, however, and covers the subject more in detail. Its merits are clear arrangement, good proportion, and judicious emphasis; its especial weakness is its style, which seems to us to "discount" pretty heavily the literary appreciativeness of the young people who are likely to use the book. The narrative is brought down to the close of Cleveland's second administration. A feature unusual in elementary manuals is the frequent reference to authorities for important statements in the text, although the citations themselves are mercifully transferred to the end of the volume. There are useful appendices and a good index; some of the maps, however, with their solid patches of black and white, strike the eye unfavorably.

A less ambitious, but, on the whole, more successful work is the Messrs. Mowry's 'History of the United States.' It is intended for schools, and, while presenting no points of marked originality, has the merits of simplicity, directness, and balance that one expects to find in a well-constructed text-book, and is worthy of the attention of teachers. The volume is liberally, though not very well, illustrated, and is equipped with useful maps, those in colors being taken from MacCoun's 'Historical Geography of the United States.'

In two respects recent writers of text-books in American history show intimations of relative perfection: their statements are generally accurate, and their sense of proportion good. What they signally fail to do, it seems to us, is to make it appear that the events they narrate were, after all, particularly worth while. In formal construction, as well as in truthfulness and balance, each of the above works has some superior virtues, but neither of them has succeeded in investing the subject with a living interest. The crucial point, of course, is the anti-slavery struggle; and it may as well be said at once that no one is likely to get any vivid impression of the importance of that movement by reading what any one of these authors has to say about it. Mr. Scudder and Mr. Montgomery, in a commendable effort to be impartial, have limited themselves to a somewhat meagre chronicle of events, perhaps with the idea that the teacher will provide the skeleton with flesh and blood; the Messrs. Mowry follow the same course, though less successfully. No doubt a judicious treatment of the slavery controversy, especially in a school-book, offers difficulties, but we are not yet prepared to think them insuperable. The history of the United States shows three great phases—the struggle for territorial possession, the struggle for national independence, and the struggle for moral consistency. Of these three, the last is the greatest; but where is the writer who shall make this clear to American youth?

Citizen Bird. By Mabel Osgood Wright and Dr. Elliott Coues. Macmillan. 1897.

We have here an extremely praiseworthy attempt to teach children about our domestic birds, by encouraging them to observe the living creature rather than the inanimate "specimen" from whom death has taken every personal quality but beauty. Upon the slender thread of a story, in which a naturalist shows some girls and boys how to "name all the birds without a gun," the authors hang a great number of interesting and easily remembered facts, while carefully selecting from our Northern fauna only such birds as are most familiarly seen and easily identified. For instance, in this latitude the fish crow is a not uncommon bird, but hard to distinguish from the common crow, which outnumbers him a thousand to one; the sharp-tailed finch is not unlike the grass finch; the white-eyed vireo is hard to tell from the red-eyed vireo, the black-billed from the yellow-billed cuckoo, and the short-billed marsh wren from the long-billed. So the child is spared the doubt of a perfect identity, impossible to establish with the eye alone, by omitting a discussion of the variation of species, which would tend to puzzle and discourage him. The physiology of the bird and its analogy to that of mammals are simply and entertainingly explained, and all the significance of its life—food, nesting, song, migration—and the especial traits of the various "guilds" of water-birds, tree-birds, sky-birds, and "cannibals," that go to make up "bird citizenship," are exhibited in a manner to bring them within the range of human sympathy. Above all, the book is meritorious in aiming to foster appreciation of the services and beauty of the most amiable and blameless creatures in the animal creation, and to reinforce the protest against their wanton destruction, of which, strangely enough, amiable and blameless women and children are the principal cause. The recent Massachusetts law protecting insectivorous birds from the ravages of milliners is a great step forward; but in the absence of laws suppressing the wide commerce in birds' eggs and skins, which goes on between dealers and boys with "collections," this book has a most useful mission. More than a hundred accurate and spirited illustrations by Louis Agassiz Fuertes add greatly to the attractiveness of the volume.

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Remsen, H. R. The Daughter of Ypocas, and Other Verse. Putnams. $1.50.
Scott, Harriet M. Organic Education. Ann Arbor, Mich.: J. V. Sheehan. $1.25.
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The Week.

Speaker Reed's suggestion that the discriminating duty in the Dingley bill on foreign goods brought into the United States by Canadian railways "slipped in unnoticed," as such things are likely to do, leads the Richmond *Dispatch* to remark that when such slippings take place somebody usually gets paid for them. This is certainly a wise thought, and it suggests as one of the earliest duties of Congress that an investigation be promptly ordered into this matter. Here is a clause involving millions of dollars and bringing about a change of the policy of the Government on a matter of grave importance—a clause that nobody hears of till the bill is passed and signed—a clause that could not have been passed if it had been publicly introduced and debated. Is it likely that such a provision was introduced clandestinely by a clerk after the bill had left the hands of the conference committee? It is much more likely that it was introduced by some responsible person or persons with full knowledge of its purport and consequences. Whether it was paid for, as the Richmond paper conjectures, is a thing to be found out if possible. At all events it is the duty of Congress to investigate the whole subject. We shall expect to find Speaker Reed and Chairman Dingley especially eager for an investigation, since their State and their section of the Union are hit hardest by this clause of the bill. The public can form some judgment of the facts by observing which members of the House, if any, oppose an investigation. If it is a fact, as Speaker Reed suggests, that the clause "slipped in," it will be very easy to find out how it slipped in. If it did not slip in, but was bought in, its origin and progress will be more difficult to trace. We trust that no apprehensions of lending aid to Bryanism and 16 to 1 will be allowed to stand in the way.

While it may not be easy to find out how the clause slipped in, nobody can have any doubt who caused the slipping. The "slippers in" were the Pacific railroads. The competition of the Canadian Pacific has been a grievance to them for a long time. They have asked Congress more than once to relieve them of this competition. New England has always been "up in arms" against such relief, and has always defeated it. Now it has been carried by stealth, to the extent of at least excluding Chinese and Japanese goods imported by way of Vancouver. The clause that was "slipped in" says that "a discriminating duty of 10 per centum ad valorem, in addition to the duties imposed by law, shall be levied, collected, and paid on all goods, wares, or merchandise . . . which, being the production or manufacture of any foreign country not contiguous to the United States, shall come into the United States from such contiguous country." This is so plainly an attempt to cut off Chinese and Japanese trade by way of the Canadian Pacific that it is impossible to imagine that it "slipped in" without design on the part of some important person or persons. The question whether a lot of money slipped into somebody's pocket simultaneously is the only thing open to doubt.

There is a remarkable hurrying and scurrying among the silverites in the West. The fall of their favorite metal and the simultaneous rise of wheat are the real cause of the sudden activity of the anti-Bryan Populists. This faction, sometimes called Middle-of-the-Road men, are building their hopes of controlling the Populist party on the fact that Bryan's predictions about wheat and silver have been falsified. So they tell their fellow-Populists that the silver question is not the main thing to be considered. The real issues of the time are railroad freight charges, government by injunction, and the "money power." It seems that the last-named monstrosity is working its way westward with rapid strides, and is likely to settle down in the centre of Nebraska, for, according to the Omaha *Bee*, the increased crops of that State this year, together with the increase of prices, will bring the farmers of the State $96,000,000, being a gain of about $19,000,000 as compared with last year. When the "money power" becomes firmly entrenched in central Nebraska, Mr. Bryan can return to his original vocation of reporter for the local newspapers.

Very few States hold elections this year, and in more than one of these there will be no life in the contest, because the overwhelming triumph of one or other party is assured—Republican victory being certain in Massachusetts, for example, and Democratic in Virginia, while in New York a judgeship of the Court of Appeals is the only office at stake. In but three States will the canvass be watched with national interest—Ohio, Kentucky, and Iowa. The meeting of the Republican convention in Iowa on August 18 really opened the campaign there. Eight years ago the Republicans lost the governorship, for the first time since the party came into power before the war; two years later they were beaten on the State ticket again; and in 1892 they had to work very hard to give Harrison 22,965 more votes than Cleveland, although the Populists ran a separate ticket which had 20,594 supporters. A succession of Republican victories during the next three years did not prevent Iowa's being considered again a doubtful State last year, although the Sound-Money Democrats finally gave McKinley a plurality of over 65,000. Long as it yet is before election, it already seems clear that the opposition to the Republicans stands no chance whatever of success. Moreover, as Iowa is typical of the wide belt of great States now commonly known as the Central West, the conditions which obtain there seem to be characteristic of a large section of the nation, and to indicate the result that might be expected if elections were to be held generally next November. The chief feature of the situation is the utter demoralization of the old Democratic party.

The movement for fusion between the Bryan Democrats, the Populists, and the Silver Republicans in this year's campaign in Iowa broke down as soon as the three State conventions met a few weeks ago. The similar movement in Bryan's own State appears to have collapsed ten days before the assembling of the conventions on the 1st of September. County conventions, for the choice of delegates to their State convention, have been held by the Populists throughout Nebraska, and a majority of them were controlled by the "Middle-of-the-Road" element, which believes in "going it alone." With a hearty union for "Nebraska's favorite son" the fusionists gave Bryan last year less than 13,000 plurality over McKinley. With anything short of an effective fusion by the opposition the Republicans seem certain to carry the State easily this year. The troubles which Bryan encounters at home are the same as in Iowa and other States. On the one hand, there are in Nebraska, as elsewhere, a considerable number of voters who honestly believe in the principles of the Populist party, and who see that the Democrats with whom they acted last year really care nothing for those principles. On the other hand, there is a large body of men who voted for the Bryan ticket last year because times were hard, and they were ready to support almost anything in order to get a change, but who now find that a change for the better has come without Bryan's election. Neither of these elements is any longer open to the arguments which were used with effect upon them last year.

The position of the Hon. Horace Boies on the silver question has been the subject of painful doubt for several months. In the campaign of last year he was a supporter of Bryan and 16 to 1. About the time that candidates for the governorship of Iowa began to be talked of this year, the rumor got abroad that Mr. Boies, although still a Bryan man, was no longer a 16-to-1 man, whereupon his name was dropped from the list of candidates, to his own contentment, it was said. The rumor proves true, for in the course of a speech at Marshalltown on Thursday evening, Mr. Boies solemnly renounced his belief in 16 to 1, and declared himself in favor of the Windom plan of bimetallism, of which he gave the following definition:

> "Issue Treasury notes against silver bullion at the market price of silver when deposited, payable on demand in any such quantities in silver bullion as will equal in value at the date of presentation the number of dollars expressed on the face of the notes at the market price of silver, or in gold at the option of the Government, or in silver dollars at the option of the holder."

For example, if a man had deposited 1,000 ounces of silver bullion at the Treasury a fortnight ago under the Windom plan, he would have received approximately $550 in Treasury notes. Then suppose that the notes were presented for redemption a week later, silver having declined say 3 cents per ounce. They would be redeemable in whatever quantity of silver bullion $550 would buy, *i. e.*, about six per cent. more bullion than the Government received. Fortunately, it has a supply from which it could make up the difference, but the Government could redeem the notes with $550 gold if it should prefer to do so, or the holder of the notes could demand $550 in silver dollars. While this plan speaks volumes for the honesty of Mr. Boies, who abhors the cheating that would result from the 16-to-1 plan, the difficulty of making its operation clear to the common understanding will probably prevent its ever becoming popular during his lifetime.

The Republican party of Virginia is in a melancholy condition. Although it came within about 19,000 votes of carrying the Old Dominion for McKinley last year, the State executive committee met last week and decided not to nominate any ticket for the State election this year. The committee also deposed the late chairman, but he contends that the meeting was illegal, and says that he shall call a State convention next month. Whether he does or not is a matter of no consequence to the Democrats, as the other Republican faction would not support his ticket. The trouble grows out of squabbling over the patronage, and is an impressive lesson on the hopelessness of building up a party in any State with federal offices.

Comptroller Eckels's address at the bankers' convention at Detroit last week was a strong restatement of the reason why the Treasury should take itself out of the banking business by retiring its circulating notes and restricting itself to its proper function, collecting and disbursing the money needed for the Government's expenses. He quotes among other things the vigorous protest against the legal-tender act made in 1862 by Mr. Justin S. Morrill, now Senator and then Representative from Vermont. This recalls the fact that Mr. Morrill and Mr. Sherman were both in Congress when that act was passed, that both have been continuously in public life since that time, and that both have been leaders of their party in matters relating to finance. Mr. Morrill opposed the legal-tender act, and voted against it. Mr. Sherman favored it and voted for it. Mr. Morrill has been in favor of every measure that has been before Congress since that time to retire the greenbacks, and Mr. Sherman has opposed every such measure. Mr. Morrill is certainly as good a Republican as Mr. Sherman and as much entitled to the confidence of his party. Yet every suggestion that the greenbacks be retired is treated by some persons as a sort of party treason. We commend to their attention the example of the venerable Senator from Vermont, "Father Morrill," as he is sometimes called, who pronounced maledictions on the greenbacks thirty-five years ago, and has never retracted a word that he then said about them.

The law as to injunctions and contempt of court for their violation was laid down by Judge Goff of the United States Circuit Court very clearly at Clarksburg, W. Va., on Saturday in the cases of some miners who had been arrested and lodged in jail for disregarding the famous injunction order issued by Judge Jackson. Judge Goff pointed out that the simple question was whether the defendants were in contempt of court, and declared that, if they were aware that the court had passed the decree granting the injunction, and were aware of its terms and import, and if they interfered with or intimidated the employees of the coal company, thereby preventing them from getting to or from their work or causing them to abandon it, then they were guilty of the contempt charges, and should be, must be, and would be punished. He reviewed the evidence, and showed that the body of strikers to which the defendants belonged had really interfered with the work at the mines, and intended by their demonstrations so to interfere. They knew of the injunction, and, when it was read to them, some of them replied, "We will take the consequences." There consequently could be no doubt of their guilt; but as the Judge considered them thoroughly honest in their claim that they had the right to march and act as they did, because they were on the "public highway," he let them off with three days' imprisonment apiece; but he served warning that, if others should follow their example after the law had been laid down, they would be severely punished.

Judge Goff cleared up one point which seems to have puzzled some people who had less excuse for confusion over it than the ignorant miners. This is the assumption that a body of strikers have the right to make almost any sort of a demonstration, provided the scene of it is the "public highway." In this case over 200 men assembled before daybreak, marched along the road until they came opposite the opening of a mine, and then took possession of the highway on each side for a distance of at least a quarter of a mile, at the exact places where the miners were in the habit of crossing that highway for the purpose of going from their homes to their work. The striking miners seemed to think that they could go and come on and over the country road as they pleased, because it was a public highway, but the Judge declared that this was a mistake, since the working miners had the same right to use the public road as the strikers had, and it was not open and free to their use when it was occupied by over two hundred men stationed along it at intervals of three and five feet. As a matter of fact, it was shown that some of the miners who wanted to work were deterred from doing so because they were afraid to pass through this hostile line. To say that such interference with the rights of laborers must be permitted because the offenders conduct their operations in a public highway, would be to throw the influence of the public on the side of disorder.

The Mississippi judiciary seems resolved to do its full duty in the matter of lynching. Three judges took occasion in opening court week before last to enunciate their position most clearly and emphatically. Judge Sykes at Corinth declared that mob law must be stopped, or government would prove a failure; law and order must prevail, or the mob would rule in everything. Judge Powell at Raymond called the attention of the grand jury to the recent hanging of a negro by a mob in that county, and instructed them to inquire diligently into it and, if possible, indict those who participated in the mob. Judge Cassedy at Monticello portrayed the horrors of lynching, showed clearly the effect which utter disregard of the law would have on the community, and said that to take the life of a fellow-creature, except in necessary self-defence or by due process of law, is cold-blooded murder. Coming

down from generals to particulars, he referred to the pending case of a negro accused of a grave crime, and threatened with vengeance, announced that he was sworn to protect the life and limb of every man on trial in his court, and declared that it was his intention to give the negro a fair and impartial trial, cost whatever it might, and that no mob could get him unless they first walked over his dead body. Nothing could do more to bring people to their senses and put an end to the craze for lynching than such words from the bench. We are glad to observe, by the way, that the recent accusation against an Alabama judge of using most improper language regarding "a white man's country and a white man's court" is disproved, and that what Judge Banks really said during a trial at Decatur was approved by both races.

Nothing affords stronger evidence of the popular strength of Mr. Low's candidacy than the straits to which it puts Tammany for a candidate. All the Tammany leaders realize that somebody not closely identified with the organization in the past, and somebody of irreproachable personal character, must be found to run for Mayor. What is wanted is a man who will draw independently-disposed Democrats away from Mr. Low—that is, a man who will give assurance that as Mayor he would be as desirable an official, from the point of good city government, as Mr. Low would be. The latest possibility in this direction is said to be Judge Van Brunt. A short time ago it was Judge Morgan J. O'Brien. It is extremely doubtful if either one of these men would consent to stand. Both prefer the bench to politics, and would be most reluctant to leave it. Aside from them Tammany has not been credited with thought about anybody as a candidate who could be looked upon as meeting the exigencies of the situation. If by any possibility Mr. Low were to be removed from the field, we should see at once a decided lowering of the present Tammany standard of availability, and the difficulty of finding a Tammany candidate who should give reasonable assurance of election would be greatly lessened.

The anxieties of the English Government over the situation in India will undoubtedly be increased by the conflicts on the frontier. But the more serious causes of concern had come to light before, and are independent of the movements of the tribes to the north, however formidable these may for a time appear. Armed incursions and revolts the Indian Government can face with confidence, but what is it to do to allay the sullen dissatisfaction and growing sense of unrest within the empire itself? That was the really alarming feature of the recent cold-blooded assassination of the English officials, Rand and Ayerst. There was no personal grievance to be avenged, but a blow was to be struck to show the settled discontent of the natives with British rule. This discontent has been nursed by a form of political agitation which has been in existence in India for ten years or more, and which is now more threatening than ever. It is organized in native associations, led for the most part by educated young men, which have for their fundamental object the redress of the intolerable grievances which, it is alleged, the inhabitants of India suffer from the viceregal government. With a vernacular press of growing power and recklessness to foster the agitation, with native congresses becoming popular, and the demand for a certain measure of home rule becoming loudly advocated, the elements of a serious internal disturbance are evidently present.

It should not be forgotten that the troubles of the British on the India frontier are greatly heightened by the Government's determination to retain Chitral. When the Indus was the frontier, a disturbance among the independent tribes beyond was easily dealt with. All the military authorities had to do was to close up the outlets of the valleys of the offending tribe, shut their markets to its traders, and wait quietly till it submitted or till a convenient time came to send out a punitive expedition. But now the situation is entirely changed. Small bodies of natives or mixed troops are pushed up hundreds of miles beyond the main line of defence. Their communications are subject to attack by any one of a long succession of tribes; transportation is difficult and costly, and the time for fighting is chosen to suit the convenience of the tribesmen, not the British officers. But for this new phase of the problem, the mobilization of 35,000 troops on the frontier would not have been necessary. Their presence is demanded not so much for actual fighting as to hold the country, to protect communications, to support and relieve the garrisons. This is really the direct result of the decision to hold on to Chitral, after the Indian Government had announced that the object of going there was simply to make a demonstration in force and then retire.

The Sultan has the Powers dead-locked again, it is reported. Nobody can remember how many times he has had them so before. It is an old game for him and he knows its every move. For four years, 1878-1882, he stolidly faced the same Powers, and finally carried his point. The Congress of Berlin, it will be remembered, handed over to Greece not only Thessaly, but also a large slice of Epirus. But the Turk refused to surrender Epirus. He took to "negotiating" instead. He negotiated with such skill that in the end the Powers were completely fagged, and said, "Well, then, keep Epirus." This final settlement was not effected till November, 1882. At that rate, the negotiations about Thessaly will be going on earnestly in 1901. The Sultan is plainly preparing to tire out Europe again. Moreover, he clearly perceives the inherent weakness of the Concert of Europe. As a writer in the *Fortnightly* points out, the Concert was never framed either to resist or to coerce the Sultan. It had and has no such mandate. It originally came into being in 1894, on the initiative of Lord Kimberley, to inquire into the Armenian massacres. Then it was continued for the purpose of urging "reforms" upon the Sultan. He reformed cheerfully, at their request, but the more he reformed the more he was the same old reprobate. Then came the Cretan troubles and the war with Greece, with each of which the Concert showed itself wholly unable to cope. So it apparently is now with the settlement of the terms of peace. The Concert was not created for any such purpose, and is a most bungling instrument for the end in view. The Sultan pretends to submit to the Concert, but then makes some proposition which hopelessly divides the Concert, and shows that it is nothing but a committee of disagreeing members. In that guise it stands to-day.

While "dollar wheat" is presumably making all Americans rich and happy, it seems to be filling the French with great alarm. Where are they going to get their bread? If the present high prices of flour go higher, what will the consumer do? This question does not, of course, trouble us here in the United States, because, if flour goes up a dollar a barrel, we have a benevolent President to increase our wages and salaries and profits correspondingly, so that we pay the difference without knowing it. But M. Méline, though as ardent a protectionist as Mr. McKinley, has not been able to make *his* tariff bring general prosperity; hence the complaints about dear bread, coming from the artisan class. It has occurred to the anxious consumers to appeal to M. Méline, at this juncture, to reduce the import duties on wheat, or if not on wheat at any rate on flour. But to do so would be little short of an outrage on the French farmers. Their grain duties, in ordinary years, are only less of a humbug than are our own. Like ours, they are meant only to fool the farmer. But now that an unnatural scarcity promises to make them really effective, it would be the very suicide of protectionism to lower them. When nature comes to the help of man and makes the necessaries of life scarce and dear, it would be very like flying in the face of Providence to try to bring food within the reach of needy millions by repealing a protective tax.

HARVESTS AND POLITICS.

Not least interesting among the advices from the grain-producing districts have been the brief announcements of the failure of one or two Populist conventions. These political gatherings were duly convened; the chairman and the secretary were on hand, and two or three of the professional Bryanite barnstormers of last summer were in sight when the doors were opened. But nobody else put in an appearance.

We shall hear much more of this sort of news between now and the sowing of next season's winter wheat crop. This indifference of the farmers will, without any question, play its part in next autumn's elections in the Mississippi and Missouri valleys. The overwhelming break in silver, along with a rapid advance in wheat, is an important object-lesson in itself, but political developments would probably be the same even if silver had advanced with wheat. The chief factor in the situation is better times in the grain-growing States, without any tampering or experimenting with the standard of value.

The farmers of Kansas, who gave Bryan a plurality of 12,269 last November, and the farmers of Nebraska, who gave him a plurality of 13,470, were neither born agitators nor dishonest citizens. The very great majority of this Bryan vote was cast by people who had not the slightest comprehension of the free-coinage issue. But their own situation was really deplorable—partly, it is true, through their own mismanagement, but largely also through the accident of nature; and with the proverbial tendency of unlucky people, they were disposed to put the blame anywhere except where it properly belonged. Let us notice exactly what was the state of things. Nine years ago, when the country as a whole yielded a heavy crop of corn, these two corn-growing States produced an average harvest. In 1890 came one of the periodical crop shortages abroad; another followed it in 1891. The result was that the price of corn rose 50 per cent., and in 1891 a crop of exceptional magnitude was sold at this advance. Very much the same experience happened with wheat, of which crop also a good deal is produced in Kansas and Nebraska. The result was that all Kansas and Nebraska went to work raising wheat and corn. This of itself was a natural and proper sequel to the movement of the markets; but unfortunately a large part of the increased acreage was undertaken on the basis of borrowed money, as a speculation. Still more unluckily, these borrowings were largely based on the prices of 1890 and 1891. With 80-cent wheat and 60-cent corn produced in plenty through the succeeding years, these farmers would have come out ahead on their speculation; without such a result, some at least of them were doomed to certain ruin.

No more disastrous speculation was ever undertaken by an industrious community. To begin with, all the other arable land of the Western States was turned into farms of the same two staples. Between 1885 and 1891, the planted area of corn in the entire United States increased 3,000,000 acres; the area of wheat nearly 5,000,000. Inspired by the high European prices of 1891, foreign producing states made similar enlargement of their acreage. The Danube countries and the Argentine Republic began to raise and export even corn. The crops of Kansas and Nebraska increased rapidly; but the price of corn at farm declined from 50½ to 36½ cents a bushel, and this, though a plain commercial consequence, was very far from what the borrowers on farm mortgages had looked for. It was an easy theory to set up that the "money power" of the East was grinding the farmer under the weight of intolerable charges. But it very soon became manifest that the bargain was as bad for the lenders as for the borrowers. In 1893, half of the largest farm-mortgage companies doing business in Kansas and Nebraska failed, and holders of their debentures were left in as sorry straits as the farmers who had used their money. To cap the climax, the corn crop of 1894 in these two States was almost completely ruined by drought. Kansas, which produced 139,450,000 bushels in 1893, had in the next year less than 42,000,000 to sell. Nebraska's production fell from 157,000,000 bushels to 13,800,000. The price of corn advanced, of course, on this wholesale devastation; but the advance made little difference to the Kansas-Nebraska farmers.

Events such as these in the agricultural States were doubly unfortunate from their coincidence with the commercial break-down in the East, and with the collapse of the national finances under the three reckless laws passed for the revenue, the expenditures, and the currency, by the Congress of 1890. The rise of the Populist party had its origin as plainly in these misfortunes to the farmers as the fiat-money craze in 1874 and the free-coinage movement of 1878 had their birth in similar phenomena. In 1874 the grain markets were congested by enormous wheat production, at home and abroad, exactly as they were twenty years later. Ohio and Indiana, then the central wheat-producing States, became known as the "hotbeds of inflation." In 1878, largely because of the new acreage in Kansas, Nebraska, and the Northwest, our wheat and corn production rose far beyond any previously recorded. But the crops of the outside world equally passed their previous maximum; cereal prices declined rapidly, farm mortgages ate up all the profit of speculative farmers, and in the fall of 1878 the wheat-producing States were either barely carried for the sound-money administration, as in the case of Ohio, or went for the opposition on the most extreme financial platforms, as with Michigan and Kansas.

The remarkable similarity between the agricultural situation in 1879 and the situation now, following, as the developments in both years have done, a long season of enormous world-wide production, low grain prices, and embarrassment of farmers who had rashly contracted debt, will lend peculiar interest to political events this autumn and next year. Paper-money inflation was killed by the harvest of 1879, happily coinciding with resumption; free silver disappeared as an issue for nearly a decade. In the Presidential election of 1880, the Greenback ticket received in Kansas only 19,851 votes out of 201,226, in Nebraska only 3,950 out of 87,452. It is reasonable, in the light of all experience, to look for a similar result this coming year. If, as fortunately seems to be indicated, the farmers use their present profits, not as a basis for new debt, but as a means of acquiring actual ownership, we shall hear little of Populism for a long time to come. The price of wheat to-day stands 40 cents per bushel above its price a year ago. Current reports of injury to the Northwestern wheat may affect, in some measure, the actual total product, but the most recent commercial estimates predict that the Southwestern group of wheat-producing States, including Kansas and others which rolled up a heavy Bryan majority last November, will this year harvest, in face of the great advance in price, 95,000,000 bushels, against only 59,000,000 in 1896.

THE STRIKE INJUNCTIONS.

The peacefulness of the great coal strike, which has now been going on for several weeks, has attracted universal attention, and no one will grudge the miners the credit they have got for it. Their quiet attitude is all the more creditable to them because a certain portion of the press have done their utmost during the whole period to incite the men to violence—not, indeed, deliberately, but with that irresponsible recklessness which is equally dangerous. If they have not misrepresented the orders of court which have been issued, they have denounced the judges issuing them with a violence of language eminently calculated in a time of disturbance to incite to resistance to the law. One paper suggests that Judge Jackson be impeached; another calls for a "severe example," and denounces his action as "tyrannous," declares that the acts of "men like Jackson" are doing more to bring the discontented into "hot antagonism" to the established order than "most other causes put together," and

that Judge Jackson's order is "as gross a usurpation of power as any ever recorded in the annals of tyranny"; a third insists that it is superfluous to discuss the question at all, and a fourth declares that the strikers have been denied a right "inherent in American citizenship." The newspapers in which we find this extreme language are not strike organs, but the Chicago *Inter Ocean*, the Springfield *Republican*, and the Boston *Herald*. We shall not waste time in arguing that the general drift of such words at such a time is provocative in a high degree. If any one who sympathizes with the oppressed doubts it, let him ask himself how he would feel if he believed that the description of what the courts were about was true.

In the multiplicity of injunctions which have been granted, it would be very strange if some mistakes should not have been made, which, however, are always subject to correction by the court on cause being shown, and it is utterly impossible to discuss such a matter wholesale. At the time of the Debs injunction in 1894 we expressed the opinion that resort to courts of equity by the Government of the United States to suppress disorders connected with strikes was a mistake, and many of our readers no doubt shared the feeling that the sheriff, and police, and troops were the proper remedy; but when this very argument was addressed to the Supreme Court, the judges unanimously said that it could have no force with them, whether it was sound or not, because they were appealed to, in a case where the jurisdiction was clear, to issue a writ which they had no right to deny; and any one who has not a very low opinion of the Supreme Court must believe that the judges acted upon a conscientious conviction that they could not do otherwise than they did, for at least four of them, with Judge Harlan at their head, were known to have strong leanings against straining the law in favor of corporate and "monopolistic" wealth.

Of all the recent important decisions of the Supreme Court, we know of none which shows greater deliberation and sense of responsibility, and none which is plainer in its statement of principles, than the Debs case. Although it related directly to a railway strike, it covered the whole ground of injunctions against acts constituting interferences with property rights, both in the State and federal courts, and it constitutes, and was intended to constitute, a permanent guide for the action of inferior courts. That it will be followed there is no room for doubt, and those who wish to advise strikers should study it, not rave about inalienable rights which have no existence. Until the Populists have their way and destroy the Supreme Court, it is the law of the land, and it is probably because it is the law of the land that the present strike is so peaceable.

It should be borne in mind that to say in advance what specific acts may be enjoined in a strike and what may not is utterly out of the question. In the Debs case (158 U. S. 564), the case made by the bill was forcible obstruction of interstate commerce; the jurisdiction of the court was rested on actual or threatened interference with property or rights of a pecuniary nature, the same ground which is appealed to every day by private individuals in the case of nuisances and trespass. It was objected that it was outside the powers of a court of equity to restrain the commission of crimes. In reply to this, the court said that the power to prevent injury to property was not affected by the fact that, if not exercised, crimes might ensue (p. 593); and this, as anybody may satisfy himself by looking at the cases cited by Judge Brewer in his opinion, is no novel federal assumption, but well-recognized law in the State courts. The injunction, in that instance, was very broad, since it enjoined the strikers from entering on the railroad premises, from attempting to induce employees of the railroads to "refuse or fail to perform any of their duties," and from threats and intimidation, whether for the purpose of inducing employees to leave the railway service or of preventing others from entering it. To sum up the whole thing, what the strikers and their leaders were trying to do was to bring the railroads to a standstill. On the ground of threatened irreparable injury to the pecuniary rights of the United States in the transportation of the mails, every conceivable act in furtherance of the conspiracy was enjoined, even acts which under ordinary circumstances would have been lawful.

The important thing, it seems to us, is that everybody in the United States should understand that the violence and disturbance of former strikes have led, not to the introduction, but to the wide application, by the courts of a remedy which paralyzes the arm on which strike-agitators used to rely, because it brings within the reach of every property-owner in the United States who sees his workmen banded together to stop his work, and who can satisfy a judge that he is really in danger, a local preventive constabulary, which forbids whatever acts or deeds the judge deems dangerous, under penalties for disobedience which no man or body of men can safely face. Such is the law, and, in our opinion, the remedy will continue to be applied until the fears of the property-owning class cease to be acute. That can only be when the courts are persuaded that the dangers apprehended do not exist, and when that time comes there will be no more applications for strike injunctions. Meanwhile, to our minds, what is needed is not tirades against them, but a thorough comprehension of what the law is.

THE KEY TO GOOD FOREIGN RELATIONS.

A Chicago dispatch reports that Mr. Northcote, a son of the late Lord Iddesleigh, living in that city, has given out the opinion that the real attitude of Americans towards England is one of "indifference." He thinks that the majority of Americans consider England an "effete monarchy," but at the same time believes that the interests which the two countries have in common will always prevent a serious quarrel.

For two or three years past the English press has teemed with articles on the attitude and temper of America, and the question whether America hates or loves England; yet, so far as we have observed, the question is no nearer solution now than it was at first, and we doubt if Mr. Northcote's solution is accepted by anybody. The tremendous anti-English excitement which was cooked up for two months over the Venezuelan boundary would not have been possible had Americans in general regarded England with indifference. That no considerable body of Americans consider England to be an effete monarchy, can be proved in black and white by reference to the thousand and one articles on the Jubilee in the American press; while, of course, it is merely begging the question to say that common interests must necessarily prevent a serious quarrel. They may, and then again they may not.

While we ourselves believe that a war between the United States and England would be such a monstrous calamity that it is impossible to conceive of either country deliberately entering upon a policy with war as an end in view, it is absurd to pretend that the relations between the two countries may not be severely strained, or that war is out of the question. They were severely strained during the civil war; they were severely strained during the long discussion over the *Alabama* arbitration after the war had ended; while the Venezuela dispute, and in a different way the seals correspondence, go to show that there are causes of irritation between the two countries which are likely at any time to break out and produce trouble, and at least an angry exchange of abuse in the newspapers, all of which is deplorable in itself and leaves behind the seeds of further misunderstanding.

But it must be evident to any one who looks at the matter dispassionately that no amount of inquiry as to the "real feeling" of America for England, or discussion whether it is indifference or hate, or a mixture of both, or love or good will, or a keen sense of a community of interest, throws much light on the possibilities which such troubles may have in store for us. The political dealings of the two countries with one another are not carried on, as their business is, by the nations at large or

the individuals who compose them, but by a small number of selected representatives—the President and Congress on one side and Parliament and a cabinet on the other, and during most of the time by the Secretary of State here and the Minister of Foreign Affairs in England. In fact, when Congress and Parliament are not in session, these two persons have the whole business in their own hands.

Behind these representatives stand two nations of the same blood, both fond of money and land, both adventurous and combative, and both having a profound belief in themselves and an inherited tendency to attribute acts of national aggression and violence to very lofty motives. Under such circumstances, whatever may be in doubt, one thing that is clear is, that the relations and state of feeling between the two countries must depend, in the main, not merely on the sentiment which animates one people or the other, but primarily on the behavior of these selected representatives or agents who carry on their business. The very fact that they are selected representatives and trusted agents shows that, unless there is something very extraordinary about their behavior, they will generally be "backed up," whatever the consequences may be, by the body of the people behind them. The people of this country, for instance, backed up Mr. Cleveland in his Venezuela ultimatum, with little or no understanding of the merits of the matter or of the meaning of the "Monroe Doctrine"; and the people of England, and even the Opposition in the House of Commons, are to-day "backing up" Lord Salisbury in a European foreign policy the ultimate purposes of which hardly any one professes to understand. This is partly a necessity of the case, arising out of the fact that foreign business, unlike domestic politics, is still carried on with mediæval secrecy, until the occasion comes when the agent thinks fit to reveal what he has been doing.

Consequently, the great desideratum for a good understanding between America and England is less an inquiry into the sentiments which animate the two peoples than the most careful selection of the men who are to carry on this vastly important and secret business, for it is on their character that the relations of the countries depend. One constant cause of misunderstanding with England at present arises from our attempt to treat this fact as if it did not exist. When Mr. Sherman was selected for Secretary of State, the question of his mental competency was raised at once by the correspondents, and there were plenty of persons who knew him to be out of the question; but no attention was paid to this by the appointing power, and the "shirt-sleeves" dispatch was the result. Now, we venture to say that the idea that this could be the explanation of that extraordinary communication never entered the head of any Englishman in public life until we in this country let the cat out of the bag. It did not enter their heads, because such an appointment could not be made in England. For two generations the habit of considering fitness the first test in appointment to office has become so ingrained in the English mind that it is very difficult for English people to imagine the state of affairs which has come to exist at Washington in our time, and is still tolerated and even encouraged there, of picking out a high officer of state so as to make a place for some other politician somewhere else. To an English public man such a step would be not only unintelligible, but horrible. No doubt, it is stupid for him not to inform himself more thoroughly as to all the possibilities of public life in this country, but to this extent he must be allowed a little latitude, for it hardly lies in our mouth to complain very loudly of his error in taking it for granted that our Secretary of State was mentally sound.

Now that the condition of affairs in the State Department is understood in England, what are we to say of the effect that it will have on the relations of the two countries? Nobody can be sure that it will have any, it being taken for granted that it will not be allowed to last; but the extraordinary character of the trouble over the "shirt-sleeves" dispatch may serve to remind us that the actual conduct of the business of diplomacy between two countries like America and England is of vastly more importance than the condition of sentiment and feeling on either side. What prevented war between the United States and England in 1861? It was not indifference, or amiability, or popular hatred of fighting, but the character of the representatives of the two countries, and especially of the United States—Lincoln, Adams, and Seward—and the fact that they had been picked out on both sides as the very best men to do their work who could be found.

A NEW PROFESSION.

There is a marked contrast between the methods employed by men in making investments in real property and mortgages and those which they follow in investing in other securities. In the city of New York, and the cities generally, whoever buys a piece of land or takes a mortgage has his title examined by a trained and responsible expert, to whom he—or the maker of the mortgage—pays a substantial fee. To omit this precaution, except under peculiar circumstances, is regarded as decidedly unwise and unsafe. Fiduciary institutions invariably require it, and so do all trustees. These conditions have therefore resulted in the existence of a regular body of trained conveyancers, whose special business has become a recognized profession.

If we inquire into the practice of men who invest in corporate bonds, we find an entirely different condition of affairs. Conveyancers themselves, who will not let a client make a loan on bond and mortgage without the most thorough investigation, will buy a railroad bond in complete ignorance of the real condition of the property securing the loan. They may, it is true, ask the opinion of their bankers or brokers, but this opinion is seldom based on any truly scientific induction, and is never, we might almost say, comparable with that of a conveyancer upon title. The bankers and brokers hear the current gossip; they know many significant things about railroad directors and managers; they may happen to know about the borrowings for current expenses of particular roads. But unless they have special sources of information, they can give their customers only the current opinion of the financial world. This may be generally correct, but it is liable to be mistaken, and the consequences may be disastrous in the extreme. Every one has bought because every one else bought, and when the security on which they relied comes to be tested it is found to be insufficient.

Nor should it be forgotten that bankers are under constant temptation to take optimistic views. They are offered large commissions to "float" bonds, and it is only natural that even honest bankers should behold the future through rose-colored glasses. They are not, as a class, trained to the scientific determination of all the causes that may operate in favor of or against a railway. They are, of course, as a rule, able men; many of them men of the greatest sagacity. But they are not qualified nor do they undertake to act as advisers. They do not make it their profession to give opinions on any cases that may be submitted to them. They will give their friends and customers the benefit of their information and judgment; but they do not offer information and judgment for sale, as a lawyer or a doctor offers his opinions.

Mr. T. L. Greene's recent book, 'Corporation Finance,' shows the necessity of establishing a new profession. There ought to be men as well qualified to certify to the merits of railroad bonds as the men who now certify to the merits of land-titles. They should make it their business to analyze and verify the official reports of corporations, and to check these reports by collateral investigations and comparisons. There are now, it is true, quite a number of professional auditors, but they are generally called on only in case of extensive reorganizations, when the overhauling has to be complete, although they have been

sometimes employed to recommend certain securities to investors. But what is required is a class of responsible experts, available for the service of the ordinary investor who has a few thousand dollars at a time to put into something. Such investors, whether men or women, and the trustees of churches, colleges, hospitals, and many other institutions, are often much worried by the investments that they have to make, as well as by those that they have made. Were they able to secure expert advice at a moderate expense, they would find it a great convenience, and in the end a great saving. The losses of the last few years have been so severe as to make people conservative, and if it were found practicable to obtain really trustworthy advice concerning the merits of investments, very few investors would dispense with it.

The beginnings of the new profession are already visible. The number of men who are now competent to pass on the validity of municipal bonds is considerable, and the forms of corporation mortgages and stock certificates are subjected to critical examination by bankers' counsel. But, as Mr. Greene shows, the coming bond conveyancer will have to do more than this. He must be able to take the published reports of corporations, and by comparison and analysis drag the truth out of them. He may not be able to detect absolute falsification. If a railroad reports that it has bought a thousand freight-cars when it has really bought only five hundred, it may for a time deceive those who do not physically inspect it. But such frauds as this are seldom attempted, because they cannot be carried on without admitting too many people into knowledge of the deceit. And there are many ways in which such a fraud must soon disclose itself to the trained eye. There are the reports of former years, and the reports of similar corporations, comparisons of which show with relentless accuracy the true conditions of corporate enterprises. To analyze these reports and draw from them correct inferences requires ability of a high order, but we do not suffer from lack of ability. Ability suffers rather from lack of opportunity, and in the field described by Mr. Greene there appears to be ample opportunity. The public can well afford to pay those who are able to save it from throwing away its money in dishonest and badly managed enterprises.

THE POURBOIRE IN DANGER.

The inroads of the "tipping" habit upon our severe republican simplicity have often been commented upon. Its conquests have been deplored by jealous patriots who would not willingly see the servility (or the serviceableness) of the lower classes in Europe imported into this fair land. But their efforts to stay its triumphant march have been, it must be confessed, but so much labor lost. Tip-givers admit all their arguments, but go on tipping. Nor have the appeals to the manhood and independence of servants and waiters seemed to make their palms any the less ready to secrete the grateful coin. Indeed, the takers of tips might well say that there is a delightful confusion of ideas in the way they have been rebuked by social reformers like Mr. Howells. Which is the more demoralizing, to pocket a fee, or to pocket superior advice? To be bidden to assert yourself against the man who would break down your independence by a gift, but to be expected to submit in a craven spirit to the directions how to conduct your life by a man who descends upon you from the upper spheres, is not a little puzzling. At any rate, tippers and tippees have gone on increasing in the United States in an astonishing way, within the memory of any man of middle age.

But while this foreign custom is thus subduing us, it is, strangely enough, suffering a powerful attack, in an unexpected way, right in its immemorial home. To say that there is a possibility of no more pourboires in France sounds almost like saying that there will be no more travelling in France, no more dining, no more living in hotels, no more concierges, no more garçons. Yet a strong movement in favor of abolishing the pourboire, at least in cafés and restaurants, is now on foot in Paris. The comic illustrators picture the astonished guest actually going on his knees to the waiter to try to get him to take the customary pourboire, while that majestic being pushes it away as sternly as Cæsar did the crown. That is the astonishing part of the whole affair —the protest against the pourboire is made by those who have been in the habit of receiving it.

Let no one think that this is due to a belated spreading in Paris of American ideas of manhood and the dignity of labor. This would be doing the French waiters too much credit. No, their revolt against the pourboire springs from much more elementary human instincts, the desire to live, for instance. The case is this. The pourboire has given a chance to keepers of cafés to oppress their employees. By maintaining a pretty close watch, they have arrived at a fair notion of how much a waiter receives on the average in the form of pourboires. This has gradually suggested the practice not only of paying no wages at all to garçons in frequented restaurants, but of compelling them actually to buy their positions. Nay, in addition they are forced to turn over to their employers all that they receive above a certain sum, which, of course, is a sum all the while tending to the minimum. In the keen competition of French society, men are found willing to do waiters' work for a bare subsistence, and they set the standard to which the others, under the system mentioned, are forced more and more to conform. The more they get in pourboires, the more they have to give up. French lucidity at last saw that the only hope was in the abolition of the pourboire and the return to a system of fixed wages, and accordingly the waiters, to the infinite amusement of the wits and the boulevardiers, are now quietly requesting their customers to omit the pourboire altogether.

Economically, the situation is a new illustration of Ricardo's doctrine of rent. Rent of land is, scientifically, the difference between the productiveness of good land and of that which yields a bare subsistence. In this point of view, the waiter is simply the tenant of the restaurant-keeper. If he takes in pourboires to the amount of 10 francs a day, while another gets only 3, and can manage to live on that sum, the first has to pay over 7 francs, which is clearly Ricardian rent. The garçon is no longer a hired servant, but simply a *métayer*. His position and tools are furnished him, but the inexorable doctrine of rent reduces his returns to the bare sum required to support life. It is this "iron law" so visibly at work, and not any fanciful notions about personal independence, which has led the French waiter to rise against the tyranny of the pourboire.

Another urgent motive for doing so would be furnished him in the concern just now manifested in France over the undoubted growth of alcoholism. This has caught the attention of many medical men, and for it they have assigned many causes. A Dr. Legrain, in charge of an asylum for inebriates at Ville-Evrard, has ingeniously argued that one unmistakable cause is the pourboire. He is not punning; he is sober, if his patients are not. They number, he says, some 250, and of them a very undue proportion he finds to consist of *garçons de café*, coachmen, porters, valets, and servants—the class, in short, most in the habit of receiving pourboires. Evidently this kind of tip is taken in France with great literalness; and waiters might well pause to consider, in the light of Dr. Legrain's statistics, how in the end it biteth like an adder. But we fear that their agitation is not reinforced by such moral considerations.

The whole thing is suggestive, however, of the way in which the evil—if we grant that it is an evil—can alone be successfully attacked. Something extra for the performance of simple duty will be given as long as those who give think they will be better served in consequence; or simply out of compliance with imperious custom; or perhaps on the conviction that wages are kept low because they are expected to be supplemented by tips. Pourboires will be taken, too, in spite of all the moral

and social reasoning that can be brought against them. But let them work into such unpleasant results as the Paris waiters are now experiencing, and the case is at once altered. Selfish human nature does sometimes quietly effect a social reform beyond the achievement of unselfish reformers.

INEDITED LETTERS OF NAPOLEON I.—II.

PARIS, August 12, 1897.

I have tried to give an idea of the tone of Napoleon's correspondence with his brothers; he assumed at all times towards them the character of a master, and the clannish feelings of the Bonapartes made it seem almost natural that he should do so. He owed much to Lucien, but his other brothers owed everything to him.

From the tone of his family correspondence it is easy to imagine how he spoke to his ministers. There are, in the two volumes published by M. Léon Lecestre, many letters addressed to Fouché, the Oratorian, whom Napoleon made Duke of Otranto, and who was for a long time his Prefect of Police, afterwards becoming one of the instruments in the restoration of the Bourbons. In the first letter addressed to him (on the 23d Frimaire, An IX.), he is still called Citizen Fouché. On the 21st of September, 1804, Napoleon was at Mayence, preoccupied with the movements of some royalists. He speaks at length in a letter to Fouché of Rivière, an agent of the Count d'Artois, afterwards Duke de Rivière:

"I think it would not be difficult to make Rivière speak. A clever agent, who should begin by entering into the confidence of a woman who has been his mistress, and who has taken a great interest in him, might be bearer of a letter from the Count d'Artois, which would fulfil its object; and you need not be embarrassed by signature or seal. You could find a way to have this man speak to Rivière in his prison, and the most extravagant would be the best. One might suppose, for instance, that this man had enlisted in the corps which guards the prison. Have the first interview a day when he is on guard in his uniform; add 200 louis, which this individual would be commissioned to place in his hands, and give him to understand that there are ways of procuring for him as much as 2,000 louis. Rivière will probably first send money to his sister; you will see that she receives it. At the end of a fortnight, you will have, by this means, a correspondence between the Count d'Artois and Rivière, which should be very curious. In order to succeed, you must keep Rivière in prison, and not let him see his mistress."

In another letter, from Trèves (October 8, 1804), he tells Fouché to send "an agent to Vilna, who will follow the Count de Lille [Louis XVIII.], learn what he is doing there, and what relations he has with the governors and commanders of that country."

From Milan (May 22, 1805) he sends instructions as to the press:

"The *Gazette de France* is the paper which seems to me the best-written and in the best spirit. . . . It recalls no bad memory of the Revolution. . . . I have already announced to you my intention of naming a censor for the *Journal des Débats*. This paper seems to be going from bad to worse. . . . It would be a good thing to wrest it from the hand of Bertin, an agent of intrigue and of treason. If the thing cannot be done gently, prepare for it, nevertheless; for, at the first bad article in the *Débats*, I shall suppress it. . . . Let some article be written against the Princess D. . . ., who talks ridiculously and indecently at Rome. You know that she has lived long with a singer; that her diamonds, of which she talks so much, came from Potemkin, and are the price of her dishonor. . . . She wishes to be considered a *femme d'esprit*, she is acquainted with the Queen of Naples, and, what is quite as astonishing, with Madame de Staël."

From the Camp of Boulogne he writes on August 22, 1805, to Fouché:

"I hear that Gen. Lecourbe has returned to a country house which he has near Paris. I had sent orders to him to go to Franche-Comté. If he is still at his country house, have him arrested and taken to Franche-Comté by the gendarmes. . . . Let him know that the first time he comes within forty leagues of Paris I will have him arrested and transported. . . . I know the part he had in the conspiracy of Cadoudal. . . . He is a bad, dangerous man, who is on good terms with all my enemies."

The same day he says: "I don't know why you did not arrest the Baron de Viomesnil when he came to Bordeaux. You ought to have him imprisoned at once. You show a weakness in your administration which I cannot imagine." Orders are sent to exile to Dauphiné the ladies La Rochejacquelin, Zibot, and others, "who have given refuge to priests who refused to take the new oath." It would be too long and too tedious to mention all such orders of arrest. The general impression that remains is, that Napoleon was always urging Fouché to be more severe; his tone is always peremptory. Thus: "If M. Chénier [brother of Alfred Chénier and a dramatic poet] allows himself the slightest chatter, let him know that I will order him sent to the Island of Sainte-Marguerite. The time for pleasantry is past. Let him keep quiet; it is the only right he has. . . . Don't let that *coquine de* Madame de Staël approach Paris." Napoleon is never tired of abusing Madame de Staël.

"Among the thousand things," he writes from Finkenstein (April 19, 1807), "you will see by this letter what sort of a good Frenchwoman we have in her. She would do anything to see Prince Louis, our mortal enemy and the cause of the downfall of his monarchy. It is my intention that she shall never leave Geneva. Let her go, if she likes, with the friends of Prince Louis. To-day courting the great, to-morrow patriotic, democratic, one cannot repress one's indignation when he sees all the forms taken by this . . . and ugly besides. I don't tell you of all the projects formed by this ridiculous set, on the chance of my being killed; a minister of police ought to know all that. All I hear of this miserable woman shows me that I must leave her in her Coppet, with her Genevese and her Necker family."

In 1807 he writes from Rambouillet (September 7):

"You will issue an order of arrest against Kuhn, American Consul in Genoa, for wearing a cross of Malta given by the English and as agent of England. . . . This man, having received a foreign decoration, has ceased to be an American. I am vexed that you should have entered into communication with the United States Minister. My police know no ambassadors. I am master at home. If I suspect a man, I have him arrested. I would arrest the Ambassador of Austria if he entered into a conspiracy against the state."

It is very interesting to see with what care Napoleon examines the receipts and expenses of his Minister of Police; he will know all that is produced by the gaming-tables (they were allowed in Paris and the principal towns of France till 1830), by passports, by licenses for shooting, etc.; he examines all the documents of what the French call *comptabilité*.

"The budget," he says, "is my law; you must conform to it, as the finances, in all branches of the administration, are my first business. . . . The Minister of War does not give 50 francs to an officer without my signature. You must not have people receive 300,000 francs and think that they receive it from another than myself. It is opposed to good service and to the internal administration of the state. Lay before me this month the budget of 1808. Add some observations to each chapter, for I will have a serious budget. Retrench all useless expenses." (Fontainebleau, October 18, 1807.)

Napoleon was unwearied in scolding Fouché: "You do not exercise the police with the necessary activity and energy." He was constantly finding fault also with the papers, the *Journal des Débats* particularly, and made Fouché responsible for their stupidity. He insisted upon having every day a bulletin from the police. "I don't know why I no longer receive every day a police bulletin. See that I have it daily." (Bayonne, June 11, 1808.)

His ideas on the old families are well shown in the following letter:

"I learn that some families of *émigrés* avoid the conscription for their children, and keep them in culpable idleness. It is clear that the old and wealthy families which are not in my system are against it. I want you to have a list made of ten of these important families by department, and of fifty for Paris, letting me know the age, the fortune, the quality of each member. My intention is to issue a decree sending to the military school of Saint-Cyr all the young men belonging to these families between the ages of sixteen and eighteen. If any objection is made, your only answer will be that it is my *bon plaisir*. The coming generation must not suffer by the hatreds and small passions of the present generation."

The army seemed to him the crucible in which all the elements of French society were to be melted together; but it is certainly curious to see him adopt in his arbitrary measures the very words used under the old régime, "Car tel est notre bon plaisir."

Napoleon's discontent with Fouché becomes more and more visible as we advance in the correspondence: "You are not making the police of Paris. . . . Occupy yourself with the police, not with affairs which do not concern your ministry." "I invite you to leave politics aside and to let me know frequently what is going on in the departments. What I have just told you I ought to have learned from you. I attach importance to such facts, not to vagaries on Russia and Prussia." We come now to the climax. On July 1, 1810, Napoleon sent from Saint-Cloud to Fouché a note thus conceived: "Monsieur le Duc d'Otrante: Your services can no longer satisfy me. It is proper that you should be off in twenty-four hours, to remain in your *sénatorerie*. This letter having no other object, I pray God that he have you in his holy keeping." Among the reasons for Fouché's dismissal was his interference with the affairs of Lucien Bonaparte, as well as his relations with the great army contractor Ouvrard. Napoleon suspected Ouvrard of having communication with England and had him arrested. He accused Fouché of being more his brother's minister than his own. At the first moment when he appointed Fouché Governor of Rome, he said to his brother, the King of Westphalia, and to his Arch-Chancellor, "I will never replace that man; he has his defects, but he

is the only statesman I have had." The decree was cancelled, however, when Napoleon claimed from Fouché all the letters which he had written to him during his ministry. Fouché answered that he had destroyed them; his papers were searched, but nothing of importance was found.

I have given extracts from this correspondence, indicative of the character of the two volumes published by M. Lecestre. These volumes are a mine which is not easily exhausted. Fouché reappears in them during the Hundred Days, as Minister of the General Police. The tone of the notes sent to him by the Emperor is quite different; they are short, cold, and polite. Napoleon had need then of Fouché, and did not feel as strong himself as in old times.

From a psychological point of view, it would be interesting to follow, in its developments, the correspondence of Napoleon with Talleyrand, the man who played in the diplomacy as important a part as Fouché in the police of the Empire. Napoleon said at St. Helena that they had as much to do with his downfall as his enemies; he called them traitors. True, he had covered them with honors, but he had always made them pay dearly for these, and had never concealed his contempt for them.

THE SCHOOLS OF ARCHÆOLOGY AT ATHENS.—IV.

THE BRITISH SCHOOL OF ARCHÆOLOGY AND CLASSICAL STUDIES.*

In spite of the evidence to the contrary which the existence of the great British Museum justly may be supposed to offer, it is nevertheless true that the modern science of archæology has been long in securing a foothold in Great Britain. During the last century and the greater part of this, the scholars of Great Britain have busied themselves with the discussion of the text of the Greek classics, the study of Greek grammar, and other cognate branches; but archæology, the great verifier and vivifier of the written word, was uncultivated except by a few, whose names are still held in honor. In Great Britain, the traditional methods of an old-fashioned scholarship have been tenacious of life, and to this day the flavor and fragrance of the olden time still clings to British soil and influences British thought. I remember the astonishment and incredulity with which, only eleven years ago, an English professor of Greek, who has gained renown by his admirable translations of Xenophon, received from me the startling news that in America all boys were taught to read Greek with the accents. I well remember, too, my own amazement at the discovery, some fourteen years ago, that the holder of the Oxford travelling studentship to Asia Minor was actually afraid to give to his articles titles that would at once indicate the archæological trend of his work, lest such departure from the classical traditions of Britain might give offence in academic circles at home. To be sure, such archæologists as Sir Charles Newton and a few others had long been working in honored isolation in England, and plans for a British School at Athens had been discussed for several years, but still it is, perhaps, not incorrect to say that the founding of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens marked an era in archæological endeavor in Great Britain as well as in America. Certainly it aroused a feeling of generous rivalry in the breasts of the friends of archæology in the dear old islands, which, with their classical traditions, learned leisure, and great wealth, might certainly hope to emulate the example of the transatlantic nation of yesterday, if not that of France and Germany, countries in which archæology had been cultivated as a science for more than fifty years. Indeed, when Mr. Goodwin was returning from Athens, after having piloted our School through the first year of its existence, matters had already progressed so far that he could be present at a meeting held in Marlborough House, on June 25, 1883, under the presidency of the Prince of Wales, to consider the question of the establishment at Athens of a British School of Archæology and Classical Studies.

About thirty of the leading scholars and statesmen of England took part in that meeting, at which a resolution was passed avouching the expediency of establishing such a school. At the same time the scholars composing the meeting defined the object of the School, the duties of the Director, the conditions of membership in it, and moved a subscription for the general purpose. The sum of $20,000 was subscribed, and the executive committee decided to expend $15,000 of it in erecting a suitable building upon the large plot of ground that had just been offered by the Greek Government to the promoters of the enterprise. The remaining $5,000 was reserved for the purpose of providing a library of reference. This plot of land, something less than two acres in extent, lay on the southeastern slope of Mount Lycabettus, and adjoined the plot of similar size which the next year was given to our School. The land was conveyed to the trustees of the British School on November 3, 1884, and work was begun at once. The plans of the building were drawn by Mr. F. C. Penrose, the distinguished architect, who became the first director of the School, and the School was actually founded with no director, no students, and no money wherewith to pay the salary of the director. As has been pointed out in the paper on the American School, this courageous action of the British stimulated interest in America, and, thanks to it, a proud building, floating the American flag, has long stood by the side of the English institution.

The aim of our School is not so much splendid achievements with the mattock and the spade as it is to educate a body of young Americans who may be able to pass on to others the influence of their sojourn in Greece. On the contrary, one of the main objects of the British School is the excavation of ancient sites, or, to use the language of the rules and regulations:

"The first aim of the School shall be to promote the study of Greek archæology in all its departments. Among these shall be (i) the study of Greek art and architecture in their remains of every period; (ii) the study of inscriptions; (iii) the exploration of ancient sites; (iv) the tracing of ancient roads and routes of traffic. Besides being a School of Archæology, it shall be also, in the most comprehensive sense, a School of Classical Studies. Every period of the Greek language and literature, from the earliest age to the present day, shall be considered as coming within the province of the School."

The British School was opened in November, 1886, by Mr. Penrose, who years before had made himself famous by his examinations of the Parthenon, and but recently had conducted excavations on the site of the Olympieion. The British School is therefore the junior of the American School by four years. In 1887 Mr. Penrose was succeeded in the directorship by Mr. E. A. Gardner, the first student who ever attended the School. Mr. Gardner guided the fortunes of the School for eight years, and with success, in spite of the ever-present lack of money, for during the first nine years of the existence of the School its normal income had been only $2,500, of which annual sum $500 was contributed by the University of Oxford, $500 by the Hellenic Society, and $500 by Mr. Walter Leaf, renowned the world over for his brilliant studies in Homer. The remaining $1,000 was made up by about eighty persons, who subscribed annual sums ranging from $5 to $50. This was disheartening, for the School owed its precarious support chiefly to the liberality of a few lofty-minded men, and as yet the *national* sentiment of Britain had not been aroused. And yet the School had conducted important excavations in several places—in Cyprus, which yielded inscriptions and works of art of various styles and periods; at Megalopolis, which yielded results of unique interest, especially as shedding light upon the theatre-question; at Alexandria, in Egypt, where the results were important, though negative, inasmuch as excavations at Alexandria were proved to be impracticable because of the depth of the soil and the bad condition of what is preserved beneath it. Besides these excavations, valuable contributions had been made to ancient topography in Cyprus, Aetolia, and Arcadia; light had been thrown upon many problems in the development of ancient art by the cleaning and sorting of the bronzes found during the course of the excavations on the Acropolis, and the remains of Byzantine art that were scattered throughout the length and breadth of Greece had been studied and illustrated.

But the close of Mr. Gardner's successful conduct of the School in the face of serious discouragements marked a turning-point in its history, for in June, 1895, a memorial was presented simultaneously to the First Lord of the Treasury and to the Chancellor of the Exchequer, praying that an annual grant of $2,500 be made to the School from the public funds. This memorial was signed by almost all the scholars and dignitaries of the United Kingdom; perhaps so many honored names were never before attached to so simple a petition. The Government was favorably impressed by the memorial, and one of the last acts of Lord Rosebery and Sir William Harcourt, before their resignation, was to record a Treasury minute recommending that the grant be made from the fund set apart for scientific investigations. The present Lords of the Treasury confirmed the minute of the outgoing Ministry, making the grant for five years beginning with 1897, and there is every reason to hope that at the end of the five years the grant will be renewed, in the case of efficient work during that period.

On July 9, 1895, a meeting in the interest of the School was held in St. James's Palace, under the presidency of the Prince of Wales. Speeches in enthusiastic support of the School were made by the Prince of

*Most of the facts contained in this paper have been gleaned from the 'Annual of the British School at Athens,' No. 1, Session of 1894-5.

Wales, Mr. Leaf, Mr. Macmillan, the Duke of Sparta, the Archbishop of Canterbury, Prof. Jebb, Sir Frederick Leighton, Mr. Egerton (H. B. M. Minister at Athens), Lord Herschell, and Dr. Magrath, Vice-Chancellor of the University of Oxford. At this meeting it was resolved "that the British School at Athens has already done excellent work during the nine years of its existence, and is well deserving of increased support," and, secondly, "that this meeting pledges itself to use every effort to place the School upon a sound financial basis, so that in point of dignity and efficiency it may worthily represent this country among the other foreign institutes in Athens." As a result of this meeting, annual subscriptions to the amount of $1,875 were promised, mostly for periods of five years, and donations were received to the amount of $7,300. By reason of all these agencies the present income of the School is about $6,000 a year, of which a considerable part was secured for five years, beginning with 1895. The value of the Treasury grant must not be measured by its amount, but by what it implied: that the work of the School was important enough to the national life of Great Britain to justify encouragement by the State. Furthermore, it must be a source of gratification to every one to know that this verdict in regard to the value of the work of the School has been passed by both political parties, so that the future existence of the School seems to be assured, though, of course, substantial aid will be needed continually in order to maintain it in a permanent state of efficiency.

In 1895, Mr. Cecil H. Smith, assistant in the British Museum in the department of classical antiquities, was elected director for the period of two years, the British Museum being unwilling to lend him for a longer time. The period of his incumbency has just expired, and he is to be succeeded by Mr. D. G. Hogarth, who has distinguished himself by archæological work in Cyprus, Asia Minor, and Egypt. In the last country he was associated with Flinders Petrie, and conducted the excavations at Alexandria, with the assistance of two members of the British School, Messrs. Benson and Bevan. During his directorship Mr. Smith conducted excavations in the island of Melos and at Athens, where he sought for the site of the Cynosarges, and, as is claimed, with success. Last fall he was fortunate enough to discover a remarkable replica of the Parthenos at Patras. During his incumbency the borders of the British School have been enlarged materially by the erection of an additional building upon the grounds of the School. The new building is intended to be a kind of club-house, in which the students may room and board. Such a club-house is much needed by our School, also, for both Schools are situated so far from the centre of the city and the decent restaurants that a vast deal of precious time is lost by the students simply in travelling back and forth from the School for their meals. The result is that those students who room down town, at a distance of a mile or more from the School, are averse to making more than one trip a day to the School library, especially in warm weather, when the climb of a mile up hill in the hottest part of the day is peculiarly distressing, as well as disastrous to efficient work. This is much to be deplored, for the students would be immeasurably the gainers if all of them could be accommodated in a School building where they could have their private apartments and get wholesome meals besides. They could then work in the library both by day and by night, so that the efficiency and the amount of work done by them would be increased almost by half.

In 1895, after nine years of the British School's existence, its *first* 'Annual' was issued. It contains the report of the managing committee, the proceedings of meetings held in support of the School, and certain supplementary matter consisting of papers read at the meetings of the School, or otherwise illustrating its work. Up to date no second volume has appeared, although in the prefatory note to the first volume its continuance as a *periodical* was promised. This Annual is not to be in any way a rival of the *Journal of Hellenic Studies*, seeing that the more elaborate papers by members of the School will continue to be published in the *Journal*, whereas the Annual is to be the repository for more popular accounts of travel or research, so that the two periodicals will supplement one another.

The number of students who have attended the British School is about forty-five, though I have no means at hand of ascertaining the exact number. Upon their return to England all have obtained desirable and influential positions, and it can be predicted with safety that they will be indefatigable workers in the interest of the School, that it may take rank along with its sister schools of archæology.

Besides the four Schools that have been discussed in the preceding papers, there are other archæological agencies of first-class importance at work at Athens. As a preliminary to the founding of a School of Archæology, Austria for several years has had in successful operation an Archæological Mission under the charge of Drs. Reichel and Wilhelm, Privatdocenten in the University of Vienna. They are the peers of any archæologists in Athens, and their lectures are downright features of the archæological year. Wilhelm's lectures on the science of epigraphy in the presence of the original stones in the Epigraphical Museum are attended by the members of the American School almost in a body.

Another archæological agency of like importance is the Greek Archæological Society, whose work of excavation during the past year has been made known to your readers. Gerhard visited Greece in 1837, just eight years after the founding of the Institute of Archæological Correspondence in Rome. Full of enthusiasm for archæology, and inspired by the belief that an institution in Greece somewhat similar to the one in Rome would do wonders in the way of preserving the precious remains of the past that still existed on Greek soil, he suggested to the native and foreign scholars of Greece the necessity of creating a society for the purpose. The Greek Archæological Society, the result of Gerhard's timely suggestion, has done distinguished work during all these years, both by its epoch-making excavations and by preserving the finds in museums and otherwise. Though the Archæological Society is not a school of archæology, yet its members are most important factors in the archæological life of Athens, for they read papers upon archæological subjects both before the German and French Schools, and especially before the Parnassos Society. Indeed, some of the papers by Greek scholars were among the most important read at Athens last winter. As the result of all these agencies, the American student at Athens is actually in danger of surfeit because of the superabundant feast that is spread before him. He is a welcome guest at the exercises of all the Schools, of the Austrian Mission, and of the Parnassos Society, so that, if he can understand French, German, and Greek, he must of necessity make rapid strides in the acquisition of a knowledge of archæology. Indeed, for the budding professor of Greek, residence at Athens for a year or more is not merely a necessity, but a most precious privilege which no man can afford to deny himself.

Unfortunately our School at Athens is too little known throughout the country at large, especially among the students of our universities and colleges. There are but few candidates for the two fellowships offered by the School, though this may be due to a consciousness of inability to stand the examinations for a fellowship. The fellowships pay $600 a year, and are open to any American. They cannot be had for the asking, however, but only by passing successfully a series of examinations upon Modern Greek, the Elements of Greek Epigraphy, the Introduction to Greek Archæology, the Principles of Greek Architecture, the History of Greek Sculpture, the Introduction to the Study of Greek Vases, Pausanias, and the Monuments and Topography of Ancient Athens. The examinations cover a large field, it is true, but they require only such knowledge as is necessary for the full enjoyment of the privileges of a residence at the American School. It must be noted that these examinations are intended solely for those who aspire to the honor of a fellowship in the school—that is, to the honor of being leaders in the School. Simple *membership* in the School is accorded to the graduates of the subscribing colleges as their right, but it must not be forgotten that graduates of all reputable colleges in America may become members simply by application to Prof. John Williams White, Cambridge, Mass., or to Prof. Thomas Day Seymour, New Haven, Conn., who will gain for them the approval of the Committee. Such approval is cordially given, because the object of the School is to inspire as many souls as possible. The same gentlemen will furnish applicants with copies of the Annual Report, which contains all information necessary to the prospective student.

The examinations for the fellowships are held on the same day in May at any or all of the contributing colleges, and, for the convenience of Americans studying abroad, in Berlin and Athens. The successful candidates may compete for the prize as often as they wish, and the chances are that they can easily win it a second or a third time.

J. R. S. Sterrett.

Correspondence.

THE PATRIOTIC VIRUS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In commenting on a story of Mr. Owen Wister's in the August number of *Harper's*, you remark that you "cannot help suspecting that he is a victim to the pseudo-patriotic virus which is doing so much to poison letters."

Cannot a virus very like that which you

suspect in Mr. Wister's tales be found far earlier in American literature — in the 'Sketch-Book,' for example, in 'English Traits,' and, especially, in the second series of the 'Biglow Papers'? It is true that the *Nation* was not in existence when Irving and Emerson and Lowell fell victims to this bubonic plague of "pseudo-patriotism," as you call it; but have you not been derelict to your duty in failing to denounce similar symptoms visible in the later writings of Col. Higginson, of Mr. Warner, and of Mr. Howells? And is it too late now to do anything to put down the plague and save American literature? Perhaps the *Nation* could issue a call for a meeting to form a society to combat the evil—an active organization on the model of the Anti-Vaccination League. BRANDER MATTHEWS.

THE CATSKILLS, August 16, 1897.

[We are more fearful that we have been derelict in Prof. Matthews's own case, though he modestly forbears to press it. If so, he has our apologies.—ED. NATION.]

NO MEDIUM FOR SERIOUS ARTICLES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your number of July 29 your correspondent "Prexie" notices the dearth of articles of special literary scholarship in the periodicals of to-day; and in the reply of "Professor," August 12, the truth of this is implied. Neither of these correspondents remarks how difficult it is to find admission for such papers to-day, when the American magazines, even those whose literary quality has been best maintained, are distinctly deprecating any articles which do not relate to subjects of general current interest. Except in these periodicals, the results of special research can hardly be published, as your correspondent desires, "in forms widely intelligible to thoughtful educated men and women"; for book-making requires much time and an accumulation of material, and, what is still more serious to the needy scholar, it ordinarily brings small and tardy remuneration.

Perhaps when the reading public is satiated with the profuse illustrations and short stories which now pervade our magazines, there may again be room and encouragement for less volatile writing. Until then it is scarcely fair to infer from the dearth of them that discussions at once serious and interesting upon scholarly subjects are among the lost arts. E. L.

AUGUST 17, 1897.

Notes.

Messrs. Putnam have just brought out the fourth volume of the important 'Life and Correspondence of Rufus King,' covering the period 1804-1806. We shall report upon it in due course. The editor, Dr. Charles R. King, announces to subscribers that his material surpasses his calculations, and will overrun the five volumes contemplated in the contract. Nevertheless, he will supply the sixth volume without additional charge to all who subscribed before July 1, 1897, while all future subscribers must pay thirty dollars instead of twenty-five for the complete work.

The same firm give notice that they will include in their precious series of "Writings of the Fathers of the Republic" the works of Samuel Adams, now collected for the first time, and to be edited by Dr. Harry Alonzo Cushing of the Department of History of Columbia University. The Messrs. Putnam would be glad to correspond with the possessors of material pertinent to this enterprise.

Frederick A. Stokes Co. have under way Lord Lytton's 'Lucile,' illustrated after water-colors by Madeleine Lemaire; 'The Love Affairs of Some Famous Men,' by the Rev. E. J. Hardy; 'The Son of the Tsar,' an historical novel, by James Graham; 'Lying Prophets,' by Eden Phillpotts; and a collection of Fairy Tales by Thomas Dunn English, illustrated by Miss Elizabeth S. Tucker.

Facsimiles of autograph letters by Tennyson, Browning, Lowell, Holmes, Dean Stanley, and other celebrities will adorn Dean Farrar's 'Men I Have Known,' to be published in October by T. Y. Crowell & Co., who have also in hand an English translation of an historical novel, 'The Pharaoh,' from the Polish of Bolislaw Prus (Alexander Glowacki).

L. C. Page & Co., Boston, publish immediately 'The Court of Nideck,' adapted from the French of Erckmann-Chatrian by Ralph Browning Fiske, and illustrated by Victor A. Searles.

Small, Maynard & Co., Boston, have acquired the sole right to issue the writings of Walt Whitman, and will bring out greatly improved editions of the 'Leaves of Grass' and of the 'Complete Prose Works' early in the autumn—the latter with illustrations.

'From September to June with Nature'—that is, with Nature during the primary school year—by Miss M. L. Warren, is in the press of D. C. Heath & Co. It will be illustrated.

'A Batch of Golfing Papers,' by Andrew Lang, is announced by M. F. Mansfield, No. 22 East Sixteenth Street.

Mrs. Elizabeth Wormeley Latimer has in preparation for A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, 'Spain in the Nineteenth Century.'

In the momentary pause in book production, we may glance at the reprints which have been accumulating on our shelves. The two 'Jungle Books' of Rudyard Kipling carry on the Scribners' beautiful uniform edition of this author's works, and combine a weird and stirring text with excellent specimens of the elder Kipling's designs in relief. From Macmillan we have, in their series of standard novels of the first half of the present century, Marryat's 'Snarleyyow,' with a good introduction by David Hannay, who extenuates the profuse brutality of incident on the ground of the unreality of the characters. He might have added that the childish mind is guarded from the effects of this brutality by the dominating humor of the story. The same firm sends us, in connection with J. M. Dent & Co., London, two more volumes of the translation of Balzac edited by George Saintsbury, viz., 'Lost Illusions' and 'A Distinguished Provincial at Paris,' both Englished by Ellen Marriage. The style of this edition is very elegant, and so on an humbler scale is that of Dent's "School for Scandal" (in the pocket "Temple Dramatists") and Boswell's Johnson, to fill six of the small numbers of the "Temple Classics" over which Mr. Israel Gollancz presides. This fresh symptom of the Johnsonian revival for which Dr. Birkbeck Hill has done so much, is based on the sixth edition of Boswell, and is annotated by Mr. Arnold Glover.

The Harpers' new edition of their 'Georgia Scenes' bears the copyright date of 1840, and though the ante-bellum Southern literary humor is rather painful reading, the truthfulness of these sketches gives them an historical value that justifies their revival. Much of what is depicted is coarse, not a little is cruel, but the authors are not blind to this. The hunting and racing, shooting and "gander-pulling" scenes were but a part of the neighborhood sports of a rural community. The running down of a negro was a common diversion, and the lynching so prevalent to-day is partly maintained by the gratification it affords of the love of excitement in a crowd. There is nothing of this complexion in these pages, but the chapter with the unpromising heading, "A Mother and her Child," throws a noticeable side-light on the manners of domestic slavery.

The world was much slower in accepting Richard Wagner as a poet than as a musician. Indeed, the principal cause of prolonged misunderstandings was that the critics, in spite of his essays and protests, persisted in treating him simply as a composer, usually sneering at his poems, which were caviare to them because so different from all previous opera texts. But of late a change has ensued, and Wagner's poetry is now receiving almost as much attention as his scores. Within the last few years several writers have attempted to show that his opera-poems are capable of being put into the form of prose tales, like those based on Shakspere's plays. The latest of these is entitled 'The Story of the Rhinegold' (Harpers), and was written by Miss Anna Alice Chapin, a girl of only seventeen years, though no one would suspect her youth from her style or the quality of her work. Indeed, her book is the best of its kind yet issued. It shows no trace of being based on operatic texts, and reads as naturally as a fairy story invented as such. It is intended for young readers, and Miss Chapin has succeeded, partly in the text, partly in an introductory chapter, in clearing up the obscure points. In spite of the narrow title, the whole Nibelung tetralogy is included, and Miss Chapin has had the happy thought of dividing each drama into chapters and giving them special names: The Rhine Maidens, The Giants, Nibelheim, The Rainbow Bridge, etc. There are also a dozen full-page illustrations, and some of the more important motives are given in musical type.

The 'Complete Hoyle,' by R. F. Foster (Frederick A. Stokes Co.), declares itself to be an enclyclopædia of all the indoor games played at the present day. As 500 of its 600 pages are devoted to games at cards, the claim may not be extravagant so far as these are concerned. The descriptions of the games are lucid, and as the print of the book, although close, is clear, the manual seems well adapted for its purpose. That it is "the only entirely original book on games that has appeared for 150 years," is a proposition that we shall not attempt to criticise.

Mr. William Gow examines the trade relations of England with her colonies in a pamphlet entitled 'A British Imperial Customs Union' (Edinburgh: David Douglas).

Recent events indicate that no such customs union will be formed, and the scheme suggested by Mr. Gow is therefore not a matter of practical interest. It is, however, a very rational and very ingenious scheme, and as the pamphlet contains also some valuable tables showing the main features of the commerce with the colonies and the duties levied thereon, it deserves preservation.

A portfolio containing sixteen compositions by Clara von Rappard has just been brought out by F. Bruckmann's Verlagsanstalt in Munich, and will soon be accessible to art-lovers in America (New York: George Busse). The artist's name has been favorably known for some years past, her landscapes, portraits, and illustrative compositions, exhibited in the Salon, at the Royal Academy, at Berlin, Munich, and elsewhere, having almost universally won the praise of the critics. Her "Jungfrau in Morning Twilight" will be remembered by visitors to the Woman's Building at the World's Fair. The present collection of etchings, lithographs, and heliotypes—"Studien und Phantasieen" is its title—shows in an eminent degree the peculiar genius of the gifted artist. In some of her conceptions a powerful and sombre imagination, in others a mystic-mythological element, is very strong. A lighter mood characterizes "By the Fireside," and "Gaudeamus," while a delightful humor reveals itself in "Mutual Criticism"—a young mondaine lorgnetting a statue which seems to meet her supercilious glance with an inimitable look of disdain. The strong, pensive faces in the "Sibyls," and also the symbolic head in "Bad Weather," betray the skilled portraitist.

The latest series of 'La Vie et les Livres' (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.), is the fourth collection of the *Temps* articles published weekly by the gentle and elegant critic Gaston Deschamps. He has divided the present volume into four parts, according to the character of the works reviewed in each. The last contains the most charming pages of the volume, for it deals largely with Greece, a country which has always awakened the writer's enthusiasm. If, out of the whole work, one were to draw any conclusion concerning M. Deschamps's likes and dislikes, it would be, in the first place, that he believes in breadth of culture rather than in the mandarin excess of erudition, though he is not slow to acknowledge the services to knowledge rendered by the patient digger in forgotten archives or even well-known texts. The second would be that this same love of broad culture should mark the scholastic and academic programmes of France. He is constantly inveighing against the stunting effects of the present system and calling for a change. The third would be that he is not afraid of the reproach of lack of patriotism, as recklessly and unjustly launched in France as with us against all those whose love of country is neither blatant nor otherwise offensive. But, after all, is there very much use in republishing newspaper articles? If M. Deschamps were to give us, instead of these warmed-up reviews, a good and well-connected volume of essays on modern literature, the result would be infinitely more profitable both to himself and us. The newspaper article is very seldom good enough to be reprinted, and such a collection as that of 'La Vie et les Livres' comes perilously near being light literature.

There is absolutely no difference in the case of M. Brisson's work, which is, indeed, of the very lightest. He also publishes a new volume, the third in his series of 'Portraits Intimes' (Colin). It is devoted to interviews of prominent persons in various walks of life, from the great writer, or say the known writer, to the beer-garden singer. If anything can be more essentially local and ephemeral than most of the interviews recorded in this volume, it would be hard to name it. They may possess a certain interest for a certain portion of the Parisian public, but they cannot interest any one else. Here and there a crumb of information is met with: one about Victor Hugo, which is valuable as a proof that the venomous Biré, who lays so much stress on his accuracy as distinguished especially from the poet's inaccuracy, has not always got at the facts; another about Musset and his way of looking on the characters in his plays; and still another about George Sand. But they are only crumbs, and there are only three of them.

A series of articles that were well worth reprinting is found in 'Sur la Côte,' by Charles Le Goffic (Colin). They appeared originally in the *Revue Bleue*, and are delightful and interesting reading. To the lovers of Loti they will commend themselves on account of the story of the original "Frère Yves," whom, however, M. Le Goffic did not meet in the flesh. But the whole book is full of the breath of the salt sea, and takes us into the homes, the boats, the minds themselves of the men of the shore. There are strong and charming descriptions of seascapes, though without the wealth of adjectives in which Clark Russell delights, being all the better for that. There are tales of the old wrecking days, perhaps not so very old; tales of the Icelandic fishing and of the times when privateering was in vogue; reminiscences of the whaling cruises, now wholly abandoned, and common-sense remarks on the way to treat sailors.

A rare and noteworthy patriotism is that which seeks to enrich the literature of a nation. A wealthy Greek of Odessa, Gregor Maraslis, has undertaken to give to his countrymen the masterpieces of the historical, philological, archæological, and philosophical literature of other countries by means of the best possible translations. This work has been intrusted to professors of the University and other scholars, and already parts of Curtius's 'Greek History' and Macaulay's 'History of England' have appeared. Among works in preparation is Prof. Whitney's 'Life and Growth of Language.' The Maraslis library is printed at Athens and is issued in monthly parts of one hundred and sixty large octavo pages, at a very low price.

It is gratifying to learn that the fund which is to maintain the Child Memorial Library at Harvard, for the benefit of the English Department, has nearly reached the sum of eleven thousand dollars. The Library itself has received, in addition, two MSS. and more than three hundred volumes, with which has been merged the special library of the English Department. A start is, therefore, made with some 1,000 volumes. Handsome bookplates have been engraved to mark the collection and to acknowledge gifts.

—It is well known that on our northern frontier no revenue has been reaped from tariffs. The salaries of custom-house officers have eaten up all the duties they have taken in. Had those officials covered into the Treasury what they have received in the way of bribes or hush-money the result would have been otherwise. Still greater gains would have accrued to the public had no dutiable goods eluded the vigilance of frontier guards. These facts first become clear to many Americans when they are shopping in Montreal. They scruple to buy because of the exactions they must pay in carrying purchases home, and are assured by sellers that whatever they buy shall be delivered on the American side of the international boundary. It has always been thus and all along the line. Pike found it so in 1805 even up to the headwaters of the Mississippi. But the most curious light dawns on this matter from a long-forgotten manuscript at Mackinaw. The buildings of Astor in those headquarters of his fur trade are well preserved, and have become the John Jacob Astor Hotel. Among other heirlooms there may be seen the books of the company, and one folio of 200 pages is the letter-book of Ramsay Crooks, western autocrat of the enormous American Fur Co. This volume contains his correspondence for four years, from 1816 to 1820. The letters, still very legible, were copied by hand, the copying-press seeming to be unknown. Those to Astor, who was in fact the Company, are the longest, and give such an inside view of his strategy as it were idle to expect to get from any other source.

—In 1815 the Canadian Northwestern Fur Company were excluded from American territory, and their stock became so depreciated that they sold out their property to Astor at his own price. His bargain, however, did not prove so good as it had appeared, for a host of individual Canadians intercepted the most valuable furs on the way to his agents. He, therefore, by the advice of Crooks, undertook to shut out of the country all foreigners not in his own employ, and to secure from the President blank licenses for Indian traders and agents which he could fill out to suit himself. This "indulgence," as he terms it, he hoped to obtain by correspondence, but was taught better by Crooks, who wrote, "For God's sake, go to Washington unless you are very sure of obtaining what we want without making so disagreeable a journey." He went, but after all in vain. But Crooks had better success in Detroit, for on June 23, 1817, he wrote to Astor: "Governor Cass, although positively instructed to be guided by the orders of the War Department of last year in regard to the granting of licenses to foreigners, and having no directions from Secretary Graham to bestow any specific indulgence on your agents, has written Major Puthuff [in command in all the region around Mackinaw] to attend particularly to our wishes; and should he act as the discretionary nature of his orders will allow, he can serve our purpose almost as effectually as if foreigners had been excluded generally, and we had obtained the number of licenses in blank you at one time so confidently expected." Yet in his relations to Puthuff the course of Crooks did not run smooth. In fact there was no true love betwen them. Puthuff held that "corruption wins not more than honesty." Worse than all, Crooks found to his dismay that his agents throughout the wilderness of the West encountered rivals who undersold them at every point. The reason was plain: he had paid a heavy duty —they were smugglers one and all. His

first campaign, though managed with great sagacity, turned out a losing business—a new experience for Crooks. Thereupon his casuistry was that of the saloon-keeper who says, "If I do not sell, others will." So Crooks wrote to Astor: "We must wind up our trade unless you can make arrangements with some London firm which will agree to furnish whatever we need to import, and to deliver the goods to us on our own territory." Crooks knew that such a contract could be easily consummated, since many such houses had made them for decades, opening a commercial underground railroad. The word "smuggle" was not used, but ere long the letters of Crooks were addressed to Mr. Astor in Europe—who had learned that no pen is so good as a personal interview—while the American Fur Company's enterprises thenceforth had free course and were glorified. This tale of truth has as plain a moral as any fable. The more protective a tariff, the more it tempts to immorality, to which it gives a semblance of justification.

—'The Bowdoin and Temple Papers' (Collections of the Massachusetts Historical Society, sixth series, vol. ix.) are far removed in spirit from the excited conditions which preceded and introduced the Revolution. For the most part they are cool and moderate communications between men of no uncertain position, some of English, some of American, birth, but all having that English outspokenness which expects to be taken at its word, and which is also ready to accept the integrity of a disputant. The "Sam Adams" note is conspicuously wanting here; there is, however, no uncertainty in the patriotism of Gov. Bowdoin. His letters and those of his son-in-law John Temple give the occasion of this volume, which otherwise would lack harmony and have small reason for being. Their letters are almost antiphonal in effect. Bowdoin was a high-minded man, distinctly an adherent of the American cause; the other, a gentleman after the standards of the century in which he lived and of the class to which he belonged, but, even to the present day, as is delicately intimated by one at least of the editors, not wholly purged from suspicion in connection with the famous Hutchinson Letters, over which he fought his duel with William Whately. Even in mental attainments the difference between the two men is wide; for while Temple confesses that he "never could write correctly," his father-in-law's breeding showed itself in his excellent but not brilliant style. Among their correspondents were Gen. Gage, George Grenville, Prof. John Winthrop, and William Bollan, and none of the letters in the volume are more important than Bollan's. Of particular interest are the communications to Temple from Thomas Whately, Grenville's private secretary, and afterwards Joint Secretary of the Treasury, a Lord of Trade, and then Under-Secretary of State. With other good advice to the hot-headed Temple, his friend in London was candid enough to say: "To men in office nothing is of more consequence than the utmost temperance of language." Yet, writing this, Whately lived to become a target for the uncomplacent wit of Junius. There follow some interesting letters regarding a proposed expedition to Lake Superior in 1769 to observe the transit of Venus; one from Mauduit mentioning his share in the presentation of the "Pietas et Gratulatio" to George III.; a careful statement by Bowdoin to Bollan of the "Boston Massacre," with a letter by Samuel, Viscount Hood on the same affair.

—The earlier portion of the volume is of the first value. Both sides of the pre-Revolutionary irritations are here discussed with perfect candor, and (to quote the words of Judge Mellen Chamberlain which appear in the latest proceedings of this Society) in the mood of "a dozen intelligent gentlemen in a quiet room—not in a representatives' chamber with galleries full of their constituents—who were desirous of reaching conclusions dishonorable to neither, but advantageous to both parties." The closing papers touch upon the attempted extrication of Temple from any disgrace in connection with the Hutchinson Letters. According to his own affirmation, made here to Franklin, "they were obtained in an honorable way"; but the situation seems not altered. The imputation of invading the privacy of correspondence still lies at the door of Franklin and Temple. Surely the editor would have been wise to print, instead of the rough draught here given (p. 480), the fair copy, dated a day later, of Temple's letter to the General Court of Massachusetts, the original of which is in the Boston Athenæum. A brief tabulation of the letters under the names of the writers would have been a distinct convenience. Eccentricities of editing are rare in the publications of this Society, and therefore we are the more constrained to notice that the transcription, throughout a number of pages, of the contracted "the" of manuscript into the printed "ye" is at variance, not only with the usual practice of the Society, and with the published view of its President, but even with the rest of this volume.

—The late Johannes Brahms detested letter-writing more even than Chopin, of whom it was said that, rather than write a note, he would take a cab and drive from one end of Paris to the other to deliver his message. Nevertheless, there is a considerable number of Chopin letters, whereas of Brahms's there are hardly any. Some years ago La Mara (Marie Lipsius) published a volume of 'Kunstlerbriefe,' containing specimens of letters by eminent composers with their autograph signatures. In some way or other she managed to secure a few of Brahms's letters, but was conscientious enough to ask his permission to print them. He refused it, but, by way of atonement, wrote her a letter of some length with permission to print that. In this letter he took occasion to say that no one could possibly do him a worse turn than by publishing his letters, because he never wrote any except unwillingly and in haste. Nevertheless, his most intimate friend, Dr. Hanslick, has lately printed in several numbers of the Vienna *Neue Freie Presse* his reminiscences of Brahms, interweaving with them a dozen or more Brahms letters written at various intervals, beginning in 1863. In one of these Brahms makes a very sensible suggestion regarding complete editions of the composers: "You know my old favorite wish, that the so-called complete works of our masters—even those of the first rank and certainly those of the second—should not be printed too complete, but that, on the other hand, absolutely complete copies of them should be made for the libraries. You know how eager I have always been to come across their unprinted works. But of many of my favorite composers I do not wish to see everything printed." In September, 1878, Brahms had been invited to attend a music festival at Hamburg at which one of his symphonies was to be produced. The committee was unable to get a definite answer from him, whereupon it appealed to Hanslick, asking him to serve as intermediary. But Brahms wrote to his friend that, in spite of his questions, not a word had been said to him about honorarium or travelling expenses, which was rather hard on a poor musician. He also expressed a fear that unless Joachim conducted his symphony it would go wretchedly. Nevertheless, he went to Hamburg, conducted the symphony himself, and received a great ovation. In several of the letters Brahms expresses his pleasure at the cordial letters Hanslick had written to him praising some of his new pieces as they appeared. He was particularly pleased with the praise bestowed on the song "Vergebliches Ständchen": "This time you have hit the bull's-eye! For that one song I myself would give all the others, and the W.-album in addition." In various short notes complimentary references are made to Goetz, Dvořák, Reinhold, Mandizewsky, Novak, and especially Perger, whose chamber music he repeatedly lauds in the strongest terms. There is also a slight sneer at Bruckner, but such personal references, complimentary or otherwise, are rare in his letters. In one of his notes from Hamburg he expresses great delight because Hans von Bülow, "who never lacks happy thoughts," had planned to close a music festival with three Strauss waltzes.

—It must be admitted that most of Brahms's letters are as dry as the dryest of his compositions. Much more interesting are Hanslick's reminiscences. It appears from these that Brahms, while he wrote most of his works in Vienna, never had more than one pupil—Frau Nenda-Bernstein—during all the years he lived there. Twice he was director of musical societies, but only three years altogether. Regarding the Hungarian Dances, which first established Brahms's popularity, Hanslick reveals the interesting fact that not all of them are mere arrangements of national melodies, but that two of them are of Brahms's own invention. He does not state which. Touching these dances Brahms wrote: "You know that, for an exception, these pieces have amused me too somewhat." Regarding Brahms's letters Hanslick says that he wrote very rapidly and with a quill. Place and date are usually missing, and in lieu of his full name he always signed himself J. Br., partly as a defensive measure against autograph hunters. When personally appealed to for an autograph, he usually ruled five irregular lines, scribbled two or three bars of music, and put his name under it. So little faith had he in his letter-writing faculty that whenever he had an official note of importance to write he always submitted a sketch of it to Hanslick. He was chary, too, of letters written to himself. When Bülow's widow published her late husband's correspondence, knowing that Brahms had some enthusiastic letters from him, she begged him to let her have copies for her book, whereupon Brahms selected a few short and formal notes, intending to submit those, but Hanslick interposed and induced him to send the others, in justice to Bülow.

BELLAMY'S UTOPIA.

Equality. By Edward Bellamy. D. Appleton & Co. 1897.

We have read Mr. Bellamy's 'Equality' with a good deal of interest and entertainment, though we fear it will not have the run of the story of which it is the sequel. 'Looking Backward' was a clever piece of literary work, which had some of the interest of a novel, besides the fascination of all ingenious speculation about the future of the world. In the author's present venture he has undertaken a reply to the critics of the other, and 'Equality' is therefore a somewhat controversial explanation of his social system or Utopia. The characters are the same as in 'Looking Backward,' Julian West, Edith Leete, and Dr. Leete, and the time is still the year 2000; but the book is not a novel; it is a philosophical essay in the form of dialogue and exposition, designed to work out the author's coöperative substitute for the present industrial and political system, and show it in detail. This is, for any idealist, an attempt full of danger, but especially so in a socialistic book. If Mr. Bellamy's second attempt does not have the effect of destroying much of the work accomplished by 'Looking Backward,' we shall be forced to consider that socialist delusions have obtained a stronger hold on the world than we had ever supposed possible.

The book is rightly called 'Equality,' for it is an attempt to solve the problems of life by means of an elaborate application of a doctrine represented by that phrase. The fundamental idea underlying it is that an artificial inequality produces all the evils of life, and enables capital to oppress labor, the rich to harry the poor, and so on. Mr. Bellamy has inherited this idea from the doctrinaires of a hundred years ago, but he insists that their application of it, while it had the effect of removing many an ancient abuse and privilege, has been far from introducing any actual equality of condition among mankind. It has, in fact, resulted in the present régime of competition, which, in his opinion, aggravates the inequalities of life. The obvious deduction from this view is that our forefathers did not go far enough. Had they introduced an absolute equality of condition, and found the means of preventing any lapses from it, the problem would have been solved. This means is furnished by coöperative socialism. The State takes all the property and means of production, making each individual a shareholder on the coöperative plan, allots to him the work he is to do, and lets him have his share of the product. There are no profits, each individual receiving his aliquot share from time to time. No one can accumulate, and hence no one can become rich; inequality is a thing of the past.

Two very serious objections have been urged against such a scheme for the regeneration of mankind: one, that inequality is at bottom not the result of artificial arrangements, but is a fundamental fact in human life, which no amount of human arrangement will ever do away with; the other is that, at the best, the scheme merely results in leaving things where they were. The total wealth of the world is not affected by changing the ownership and distribution of it; and if the total product is divided by the number of souls in any community, a very simple calculation shows that each one of the poor would be little better off than he is now, while the well-to-do would be all reduced to poverty. Economists have shown over and over again that socialistic theories all rest on the assumption of the existence somewhere of an enormous fund of wealth, which, if we could only get at it, would make us all comfortable for life. The novelty of Mr. Bellamy's position as a Socialist is that he does not pass this entirely over, but attempts to meet and overcome the objections raised. The first he meets with a flat denial, and the second with the assertion that there is such a fund, and that if we would look about us we should see it.

What he has to say on these two points is fully set forth in chapter xiii. (pp. 88, 89). The main factor in the production of wealth, Dr. Leete explains to Julian West, is the machinery of associated labor and exchange. "The element in the total industrial product which is due to the social organism is represented by the difference between the value of what one man produces as a worker in connection with the social organization, and what he could produce in a condition of isolation." This difference in value, which, under the rule of competition, is scrambled for, would, under a socialistic scheme, be the common property of all. "Toiling in isolation, human experience has found" that a man "would be fortunate if he could at the utmost produce enough to keep himself alive." Working in concert with his fellows, however, he and they "produce *enough to support all in the highest luxury and refinement.*" The effect of the revolution, therefore, will be that, instead of there being millions for some and nothing for the rest, as now, every one will have at least an income of $4,000 a year, that being the "annual credit" for the year 2000 (p. 29). In other words, the fund is here, but misappropriated. Let Society reclaim it, and the problem is solved.

With inequality Mr. Bellamy deals no less trenchantly:

> "If the modern man, by the aid of the social machinery, can produce fifty dollars' worth of product where he could produce not over a quarter of a dollar's worth without society, then forty-nine dollars and three-quarters out of every fifty dollars must be credited to the social fund to be equally distributed. The industrial efficiency of two men working without society might have differed as two to one—that is, while one man was able to produce a full quarter dollar's worth of work a day, the other could produce only twelve and a half cents' worth. This was a very great difference under those circumstances, but twelve and a half cents is so slight a proportion of fifty dollars as not to be worth mentioning."

There are two or three rather serious defects in this reasoning; one lies in the assumption that because man in existing society can do better work than in isolation, therefore, with a reorganization based on the abolition of private property, he would go on working and producing as at present. What is the connection between the two propositions? Another is the idea that the inequalities between human beings are only those represented by their differences as manual laborers. In a single family the inequalities are such that great distinction of mind or character is seldom repeated in two generations; on the contrary, the son of a man of great vigor of intellect and character is usually not a man of any note whatever. The historical view of the matter is that inequality is the natural law of the universe, and that equality, when we succeed in introducing it, in the interest of humanity and justice, is artificial. Mr. Bellamy's idea seems to be that all this is upset by the fact that one day laborer earns about as much as another. There can be no doubt whatever that, in a period of universal suffrage, if the majority of mankind, or of any community, could be persuaded, through such arguments, that by merely vesting the title to all property in the State, and going to work on the coöperative plan, each person could get $4,000 a year, the existing order would not stand for six months. But are they persuasive?

Every man has an indefeasible right to represent Utopia in any way that he pleases, and there will probably be a good deal of difference of opinion as to whether Mr. Bellamy's "Republic of the Golden Rule" is, in other respects than this immediate universal enrichment, an agreeable place. It is a place where independence of one's fellows in any degree is unattainable, where labor is forced, and ambition and the desire to excel is "treason to humanity." We have looked with some curiosity to see how the author provides for the certainly not impossible case of idleness, or lack of desire to cooperate. He seems to have nothing for it but a sort of exile; but then he makes labor under the new régime attractive. In a society in which man is naturally fond of work, and does not regard ease as the highest good, this problem does not really exist. But Mr. Bellamy gets over a good many other difficulties in the same way. The reader, if not on the watch, will hardly observe how he introduces here a new machine, there a new pleasure, and again a new motive, all tending to the increase of human happiness, while leaving the reader to attribute the change to Equality. There is certainly no connection between the "multiplication of power" and socialism, for all our greatest labor-saving inventions have been produced under the present individualistic system.

We are obliged to admit that the conception of life with our desires all gratified, and nothing either to hope or fear from fate or from ourselves, is, to our minds, one which, even on an income of $4,000 per capita, represents a somewhat infantile ideal. If we say that our desires are gratified, we must be, by definition, happy; yet can we conceive of happiness without its opposite? Is not the struggle with evil in its various forms the price of all enjoyment? Is not this struggle but another term for life itself? These questions will suggest themselves to the reader, but he will find no answer in Mr. Bellamy's pages.

The fact is, that though Mr. Bellamy represents his highly virtuous community as all at work, and glad to be at work, he has reduced their hours of labor, by means of labor-saving machinery and the "new chemistry," to such a point that their work has become play, and the tasks set by Society become a sort of children's game, in which the stress and agony of life are quite gone, and, in their stead, we press a button, bear gently on a lever, or turn a switch, while Equality does the rest. Thus, in reality, although a great deal is said about work, we find, in the end, that there is little or none, and that, strange as it may seem, after all, what our Utopian guide has had in mind all along, though he has cleverly concealed it, is the

old dream of a paradise of sloth and ease. No wonder that in such a heaven individual ambition has become treason. It has never occurred to Mr. Bellamy that the reason why such a paradise is attractive to the multitude may be because man is an animal fond of sloth and ease, and that it is to this fondness that much of the inequality in life is attributable. The irony of life was surely never better illustrated than by the fact that thousands should cherish as their ideal a condition which everybody recognizes as being for his neighbor undesirable.

Whether as a literary man, or an economical writer, the world at large seems little likely to accept Mr. Bellamy at his own valuation. It is difficult to define his position, but he certainly belongs to a class apart, a prophet not without honor in his own and other countries, but in the domain of letters and knowledge not recognizable as having any special standing at all. Perhaps, if we said that, without being a charlatan, he does the work of a charlatan, we should not be far from right. As kings formerly had heralds to announce their approach, demagogues have their literary trumpeters who prepare the way for them; and when they propose crazy popular crusades against windmills, are sure to be preceded by preachers of the word and sowers of the seed. This work is nowadays greatly aided by the fact that a superficial education widely disseminated has made the whole world readers without making them good judges of what they read; and the result of this is that, outside the educated world—the world which has a continuous tradition of life and knowledge and literature—there exists a cosmos in which knowledge begins over again with each new generation, and in which millions of readers spend their lives in raising and discussing anew problems known by their more lucky and instructed fellow-creatures either to be settled and done with or to be insoluble. Just as there are pseudo-scientific inquirers ready to enter with keen zest into the question of perpetual motion and even the truth of the Copernican system and the curvature of the earth, so there are vast hordes of readers who will rush to buy books on any social question, and especially entertaining stories professing to have discovered the key to the regeneration of the world. This is the opportunity of writers like Mr. Bellamy. They can no more help writing than the others can reading. They fancy that they have a message to deliver, and lift up their voices and deliver their apologues with the zeal and unction of true prophets.

These facts explain many a contemporary reputation. Formerly any one who had fifty thousand readers was almost necessarily a man of real literary distinction, for the reason that the whole body of readers belonged to the comparatively instructed class. Education was hard to get, and meant the expenditure of time and money. The educated reading class corresponded roughly to the well-to-do class, who preserved all the traditions of life, society, and property. Now, for every one of these there are a hundred readers who have had all the avenues to speculation opened to them, without ever having been taught to think. For this multitude instructors come forward, themselves not more than half educated, who revive questions long disposed of, having no interest for the really educated, and raise a clamor over them which completely drowns the voice of real knowledge. Mr. Bellamy has got his notion of Equality from Jefferson and Jefferson's teachers, and undertakes to apply it to everything with a true doctrinaire's passion for uniformity. To make his preaching attractive, he has artfully appealed to the ruling and universal passion for wealth, and with his socialist wand has called up a world in which applied Equality produces for every one an easy life on $4,000 a year furnished by somebody else.

The Genesis of Shakespeare's Art: A Study of his Sonnets and Poems. By Edwin James Dunning. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1897.

The subjection of Shakspere, especially the Shakspere of the Sonnets, to a process of cryptic interpretation has become one of the abnormal but recognized phenomena of the day. It has been variously urged that these "deep-brained Sonnets" embody an allegory of Beauty, of Reason, of Immortality, of the Catholic Church, of Dramatic Art, or of the Evolution of the Ideal. The book whose title we give above, combines two of these theories, and, making a coherent series of the "Venus and Adonis," the Sonnets, and "The Lover's Complaint," reads into it the story of the genesis of Shakspere's art and of the evolution of his poetic ideal.

The process is simple and obvious. Consider the matter. Has not the 'Odyssey' been regarded as an allegory, even by eminent classical scholars? Did not Dante write with perpetual symbolism? Has not Emerson said that Shakspere's Sonnets "deserve to be studied in the critical manner in which the Italians explain the verses of Dante and Petrarch," and was it not the fashion of some of the great humanists of the Renaissance to interpret these verses allegorically? May we not refer to the example of Giordano Bruno, who wrote cryptic verse of his own (to which, it is true, he appended a prose commentary and interpretation), and have not several of the critics tried to establish the theory of a relationship of some sort between him and Shakspere? Did not Keats write that "Shakspere led a life of allegory; his works are the comments on it"? And has it not always been a customary thing for poets to figure forth the genesis of their art in their poetry, as, for recent example, Wordsworth in his "Prelude," or Swinburne in his "Thalassius"? Here in the case of Shakspere then we have a series or sequence of poems presenting a curious mixture of pieces, some of apparently universal and philosophic significance, others of intensely personal bearing, and still others perhaps of little or no meaning except as mere exercises in versification. Many of these poems, if taken literally, are difficult of explanation from all the evidence which we are able to command, if not quite inexplicable. How are we ever to reduce final order out of all this most admired confusion except by the method of allegorical interpretation? For order we must have in some way, by hook or by crook, if it costs us a thousand guesses to set us right! How can a generation nursed on the two dugs of science and of transcendental idealism be expected to tolerate uncertainty in matters of literary interpretation, evidence or no evidence, when theories are to be had for the asking?

Mr. Dunning offers as his guess a theory of ultra-idealistic bias. He sees in the Youth of the first series of the Sonnets, who likewise is prefigured in the Adonis of "Venus and Adonis," Shakspere's "personified poetic Ideal," and in the Dark Lady of the last series the contending influence of the element of Realism in Shakspere's art. The test of such an hypothesis is to apply it independently to the sonnets in question and see whether it really explains them and leaves them fuller of meaning for us. Artistic symbolism there obviously is in many of these poems. A poetic idealism and worship of beauty akin to that expressed in the classic passage from Marlowe's "Tamburlaine," beginning,

"If all the pens that ever poets held,"

are apparent in most of them. A few of the Sonnets, it is not to be denied, are prettily explained by the new theory, as, for example, those numbered 29, 43, 66, 68, and 126. Yet even in these the literal interpretation is the more obvious, natural, and effective. And what shall be the fate of others, such as Sonnets 30, 71, 73, 90, 109, 110, and 111, in which the personal meaning is so deep and strenuous and unmistakable? Read as mere allegories of the "poetic Ideal," these and many others like them pale their ineffectual fires and become as languid and passionless as the thinnest of metaphysical verse. Allegory will never do: it robs us of the poetry of our Sonnets in order to put a bastard philosophy in its place.

Mr. Dunning has expounded his theory with quiet address and fluency, although his initial assumptions and the absence of all logical or argumentative presentation make us suspect that the book is intended only for the true believers, and is not addressed to the Gentiles. The author has done a service, at any rate, in calling attention to many motives, common to the Sonnets and the other poems and the plays, which are unnoticed by other commentators. The fact, however, that similar motives are often to be found in other literature of the age, in which no allegory can possibly be concealed, is overlooked by Mr. Dunning as by so many other writers on the Sonnets. Yet if we must have an allegory, the one here expounded is as innocuous as any yet offered, and is more consistent with poetic probability than any other. It is true that, like the rest, it is pretty much cut out of whole cloth, that it emasculates the real beauty and human passion of most of the Sonnets, and that it really fails to help us to understand (other than in the most arbitrary way) the allusions and the concrete symbolism of these lyrics of the inner life; but at least it presents us Shakspere as an artist and poet interested in the problems of his art, rather than as a metaphysician, or as a controversialist, or as the bearer of an orphic message to his times. The interpretation has to be unduly stretched to cover the difficulties presented in such a sonnet as the 35th; on such sonnets as the 84th and the 102d it becomes manifestly hypersubtle and impossible; and to us, at least, the results of applying this method to the intense, human, and concrete passion of the Dark Lady series are nothing less than grotesque. That this series should be but a veiled argument on the theme of Realism vs. Idealism! One can imagine Shakspere rubbing his eyes with astonishment, if, where he dwells in the Elysian fields, word could be brought him of the fantastic ulte-

rior meanings that a later world is reading into his lyric exercises.

"Others abide our question, Thou art free.
We ask and ask—Thou smilest and art still,
Out-topping knowledge."

Two tempting corollaries inherent in his demonstration are neglected by the author. If the Sonnets and the poems are an allegory of the genesis of Shakspere's art, obviously the capstone of the whole edifice is supplied in the "Tempest." *Ferdinand* is the Youth of the Sonnets, and once more *Ariel* is the personification of the poetic Ideal or the poetic Imagination ("Where the bee sucks, there suck I"); *Caliban* is implacable Realism; and *Prospero* is the type of the poet himself (did Shakspere act the part?), who in the end breaks his wand and abandons his art for good and all ("Now my charms are all o'erthrown"—and see the rest of the Epilogue). Again, if the rivalry with the Rival Poet is one of art only, and if the contest between the two is over the common theme of poetic Beauty, why may not Spenser and the "Hymn of Heavenly Beauty" be hinted at? The "Four Hymns" were not published until 1596, and it is possible that the Sonnets were written at about that date. Moreover, "the proud full sail of his great verse" is a phrase which admirably characterizes Spenser's full and splendid rhythm, while it is remarkable that in Sonnet 85 Shakspere speaks of "every *hymn* that able spirit affords." Clearly Spenser is to be considered if we can only establish a basis of rivalry with Shakspere; and that is afforded if we accept the theory that Shakspere's envy is the result of purely professional jealousy of one whom he magnanimously accounts the greater "poet"—an envy, it is obvious, more plausibly directed against Spenser than Chapman—and that his emulation of this poet is purely concerned with the celebration of the common "master-mistress" of the two, poetic Beauty. The allegorical method should not stop short with results only partially worked out and finished!

The Dawn of Modern Geography: A History of Exploration and Geographical Science from the Conversion of the Roman Empire to A. D. 900. By C. Raymond Beazley, M.A., F.R.G.S. London: John Murray. 1897. 8vo, pp. xvi., 538.

Although no modern people has contributed so much to man's stock of earth-knowledge as the English, systematic accounts of the process have been strangely lacking in the English language. It is now more than two generations since the whole field was covered by an English writer, W. Desborough Cooley, in his 'History of Maritime and Inland Discovery.' Meanwhile, English geographical literature has been enormously enriched. It is high time, then, that the coördination and presentation of all this material should be undertaken in behalf of the English student. The late E. H. Bunbury laid a solid and enduring foundation for such a work in his treatise on Ancient Geography, but the more arduous and forbidding task of penetrating the dark continent of early mediæval geography, not hitherto attempted except in a fragmentary way, has now been undertaken by Mr. Beazley with an energy and zeal that deserve warm recognition.

'The Dawn of Modern Geography' deals with the state of geographical knowledge during the six centuries from the conversion of Constantine to the migrations of the Northmen. It is more in accord with our traditional views of the middle ages to regard this period as one of decay rather than as one of slow recovery, but Mr. Beazley makes it clear that the process of decay had been going on rapidly for a century before Diocletian. Such writers as Solinus and Martianus Capella, who became the authorities for the middle ages, were little above the intellectual level of their followers. From the ruins of the temple of ancient science they saved only the gargoyles. The real clue to this loss seems to have been, in part at least, the diversion of intellectual interests from the things of this world to those of the next. Yet in this very diversion of interests there is a glimmer betokening the coming dawn, for the concentration of thought upon heavenly things invested with irresistible fascination those regions of earth which were the scenes of sacred story. And so, in the early narratives of Pilgrims to the Holy Land we find the dim beginnings of a movement which culminated in the splendid achievements of the age of Prince Henry and Columbus.

Mr. Beazley's work consists of four parts: an account of the pilgrimage literature, of commercial and missionary travel, of the contemporary theory, and of early Arabic and Chinese geography. The first two divisions are the most interesting and novel, and, with the third, constitute a highly important contribution to our knowledge of the intellectual condition of the early middle ages. Pilgrimages to the Holy Land, whose beginning antedates any authentic record, took on a new life after the visit of the Empress Mother Helena in 326, which was rewarded by the finding of the true cross, and by 333 we have in the Bordeaux Itinerary the first Christian guidebook to the Holy Land. That pilgrimages were already an old custom is fully attested by the wonderfully varied identification of the sites and relics of Biblical history. For example, in or near Jericho, the Bordeaux Pilgrim is shown the sycamore of Zaccheus, the house of Rahab the harlot, the spot where the Ark of the Covenant rested, and the twelve stones which the children of Israel brought out of the Jordan. Going from Jerusalem to Bethlehem the traveller visits the tombs of Rachel, Ezekiel, Asaph, Job, Jesse, David, and Solomon. Fourteen miles further on is the fountain where Philip baptized the eunuch, and at Mamre the pilgrim can sit under the shade of the oak that sheltered Abraham when he entertained the angels. The next important stage in pilgrim travel is marked by St. Jerome's residence in Bethlehem, and the most interesting narrative of this period is that attributed to Sylvia of Aquitaine, which was first made known in 1883. It is supposed to have been written about the year 380, and is an exceptionally full and independent account of the personal experiences of a lady from southern Gaul who spent four years in the East, going in one or two instances beyond the bounds of the Roman Empire. A translation of Sylvia's narrative was published by the Palestine Pilgrims' Text Society in 1891.

The inroads of the Barbarians seem to have increased the number of religious travellers, and for the next forty years pilgrimages were very frequent. Jerome wrote that ladies from Rome "filled all the cities" of the East. About the middle of the fifth century there is a falling off, followed by a recovery in the age of Justinian. As time goes on, the passion for relics becomes more greedy and less discriminating. The handbooks of this period are often only catalogues of these marvels. In the 'Breviarius de Hierosolyma,' 527-530, the demands of the most restless curiosity could hardly fail of measurable satisfaction. The reader is informed where he may see "the holy lance made of the wood of the Cross, which shines at night like the sun in the glory of the day"; "the horn with which David and Solomon were anointed"; "the earth of which Adam was formed"; "the stone with which Stephen was stoned," etc. In this later period the most curious and interesting narrative is that of Antonine of Piacenza, written about 570. He is far more credulous than Sylvia. To her disappointment, she found that the pillar of salt into which Lot's wife was turned was no longer to be seen. "Believe me," she writes, "the pillar itself was not visible, only the place is shown. The pillar itself is said to be covered in the Dead Sea. We saw the place, but no pillar; I cannot deceive you about this matter." Antonine, on the other hand, has no difficulty, and takes the pains to correct the false report as to Lot's wife and her pillar of salt, "that she is diminished in size by the licking of animals." He found the statue just the same as it had always been. At the Red Sea he visited the scene of the miraculous passage of the Israelites, then a tidal gulf, where, he says, at ebb-tide could still be seen the traces of Pharaoh's army and the marks of his chariot-wheels, "but all the arms have been turned into marble." The rise of Mohammedanism interrupted pilgrim travel for nearly a century. Late in the seventh century comes a revival, and the documents of this period have long been familiar in Wright's 'Early Travels in Palestine.'

Mr. Beazley's critical review of the history of geographical theory begins with the 'Collectanea' of Julius Solinus, whose compilation of curiosities from Pliny became a standard source of geographical eccentricities for a thousand years. Solinus probably wrote before 300 A. D., and it is a striking symptom of the advancing intellectual decay in the third century that his knowledge of the earth's surface is far behind that of Herodotus. Cosmas Indicopleustes is next taken up as the forerunner of the Biblical literalists. Mr. Beazley finds, however, that his 'Christian Topography' had only a slight influence on subsequent writers.

It has been possible to touch upon only a portion of the contents of Mr. Beazley's volume. The chapters on the early maps, on missionary and commercial travel, and on Arabian and Chinese geography are all interesting, the first especially so. In covering so extensive a field, almost as an explorer, it is not surprising that the author should make some slips, yet one is hardly prepared to find him citing as an instance of the ignorance of the Ravenna geographer that "Jornandes, the historian of the Goths, though professedly one of his main authorities, regularly appears as Jordanis," p. 305. As a whole, the work is an exceptional contribution to our knowledge, and deserves a grateful reception not only from the students of history and geography, but from all who enjoy the literature of travel.

Dante in America: An Historical and Bibliographical Study. By Theodore W. Koch. Boston: Ginn & Co. (for the Dante Society). 1896.

The Treatment of Nature in Dante's Divina Commedia. By L. Oscar Kuhns. Edward Arnold. 1897.

The first half of Mr. Koch's volume is taken up with brief and somewhat amateurish sketches of famous American Dante scholars. Those relating to Ticknor, Longfellow, Parsons, Lowell, and Norton seem to contain nothing that is new; but with regard to Da Ponte, the romantic librettist of Mozart, who was the first to introduce the study of Dante into the New World, and the less known Richard Henry Wilde, whose important share in the discovery of the Bargello portrait has been lost sight of, the author has collected some exceedingly interesting information. The second and more valuable part of the volume consists of a detailed bibliography—as complete as possible—of all that has been published in the United States about Dante, including translations and even magazine articles and important book-reviews. In such work Mr. Koch is an expert, and his record of American thought and interest for nearly a century makes it worth while for us to review for a moment the period, with the object of seeing what of importance has really been accomplished in it.

American acquaintance with Dante seems certainly to have begun in New York, under the stimulus of Da Ponte, but deep interest in his works has, until recent years, been confined almost entirely to New England. Elsewhere he was read with an amateur's admiration and affection; it was only on the ground which the Puritans sowed thick with ethical and religious aspirations that study of the great moral allegory became more than a dilettante's pastime. As early as 1839 Longfellow translated a few passages from the "Purgatory" in his "Voices of the Night." In 1841 appeared Parsons's "Lines on a Bust of Dante," comparable with any of its class in the whole range of modern literature; in 1843, his remarkable version of the first ten cantos of the "Inferno." In 1867, Longfellow's translation of the whole 'Divine Comedy' was published; Parsons's of the "Inferno"; and Norton's of the 'New Life.' Lowell's well-known essay first appeared in 1872. From that time until 1888, the date of Dr. Fay's 'Concordance,' nothing of value was done, and with 1891, the date of Mr. Norton's translation, the brief list of important works comes to an end, unless we include Mr. Latham's version of Dante's 'Letters' (1891); Miss Hilliard's of the 'Banquet' (1889); Dr. Harris's suggestive 'Spiritual Sense of the Divine Comedy' (1889), and Mr. Lane's model 'Bibliography' (1890).

Small as this product is, it is an important one. We have three excellent translations, from different points of view, of the 'Divine Comedy,' the great Concordance, and an essay that has done much to widen the knowledge and appreciation of Dante's works. France has done far less, Germany and England not more. Indeed, in Italy itself the great poet, though more a name to worship conventionally, and though to a greater degree the subject of antiquarian and exegetical research, has not often been studied with so open a mind, with so little political and religious prejudice, as in this republic.

But the test of a poet's greatness or of love for him lies in the hearts of his readers, not in books about him. To the people at large the 'Divine Comedy' will always be a sealed book; its mastery demands too frequent readings, too protracted effort. There are many signs, however, that Dante's poem has brought to not a few of us (not merely men of learning) congenial and strengthening ethical and æsthetic conceptions, and that its best teachings have thus been absorbed, not without an effect on character, into our national life. It is at once unfortunate that the recent exodus of our young men into the wilderness of mere linguistic research has apparently greatly diminished, for some years, the powerful attraction of Dante for students of letters, and fortunate that the university-extension movement and kindred projects, dangerously superficial though they may sometimes be, have done so much to bring Dante before the people.

Prof. Kuhns's volume is Germanic in its scope and trend, for it takes account of all Dante's references to the outward physical world that is not the handiwork of man. It is, however, characteristically American in its practical treatment of the subject. It has a good index, and the whole mass of matter is classified in such a sensible fashion that no one can fail either to find in the volume any particular group of facts or to get a general survey of the field. We miss, however, a full discussion of what seems to us the most important question with regard to the whole matter: How far is Dante's feeling for nature in accord with our own, and how and what does it add to our pleasure? The point has been often raised but never fairly settled—certainly never on the basis of such an array of facts as Prof. Kuhns's industry and accuracy have at last provided. It is to be hoped some competent person may now give this deeper side of Dante's treatment of nature careful consideration. Of course, the necessities of rapid narrative and preoccupation with ethical matters make Dante's references to nature wholly cursory. It is evident, however, that he took pleasure, as we do, in observing and recalling simple and striking scenes, that he was interested in the habits and bearing of men and animals, and particularly moved by effects of light. He differs from us in a certain city-bred quality that shows itself in odd ways. The real forest was strange and horrible to him, as it is not to us in this athletic modern time; his flowers were garden flowers; birds, except the larger species, he scarcely noticed; for horses and dogs he does not seem to have cared. He anticipated our curious thrill of delicate awe and pleasure before the sea and the stars, though, disdainful of adjectives, he never read into nature what is not plainly there for the normal man. Notwithstanding that his whole poem is a parable, it was only on rare occasions, which should be carefully enumerated, that, like holy writ, he availed himself of physical imagery for the specific statement of spiritual truths. These are slight hints, and subject to correction.

Arnold of Rugby: His School Life and Contributions to Education. Edited by J. J. Findlay, M.A., with an introduction by the Bishop of Hereford. Cambridge (Eng.): University Press; New York: Macmillan Co. 1897.

This book is almost entirely a compilation from Stanley's 'Life' and from Arnold's own sermons and miscellaneous writings. The original part consists of a preface, an introduction; a bibliography of Arnold, Rugby, and Public School literature; and an almost fantastically elaborate analytical index to the whole book. It is not very easy to see the reason for its compilation at all. The materials which make up the bulk of it have been long before the world and have attained a wide circulation. As the author himself intimates, the popular opinion in England of Arnold, now that he has been dead more than half a century, is made up, and may be accepted, unless by minute critics. Certainly nothing is to be obtained for Englishmen from such material as this book contains to illustrate or correct that view.

With Americans it is somewhat different, and the contents of this volume may have a use in showing Arnold as he really was. There is an Arnold legend, one might say myth, prevailing in the United States, like the Tory myth of Pitt, spoken of by Macaulay. Up to the appearance of 'School Days at Rugby' in 1858, though Stanley's 'Life' had been published for more than ten years, Americans generally were in deep ignorance of Arnold, of Rugby, and of the English public schools as a class; an ignorance not lessened by the totally different acceptation of the term "public school" in the two countries. 'Tom Brown' created an excitement unparalleled on such a theme. It at once gave currency to an ideal view of Arnold and his services. Stanley's 'Life' was reread, and Arnold exhibited as the model educator, who had revolutionized by precept and example all the schools of England, and whose pattern all American schoolmasters would do well to follow. The fact that Thomas Hughes gave his strong sympathy to the North in our civil war increased this cultus, and the three Thomases were confused in a way worthy of the Autocrat's conception of the same name. (The writer of this article has known Dr. Arnold spoken of as the author of 'Tom Brown's School-Days.') Every time an energetic and esteemed schoolmaster died after some years' conspicuous service, he became an "Arnold of America." We can testify from personal knowledge to four such in New England alone.

This legendary view, like all similar views, has been of doubtful service both to Arnold and to his worshippers. Great as were his merits in his own field of action, he was hardly the man to be copied in his own country, and wholly unfit for a model to an American schoolmaster. One of the four "Arnolds of America" mentioned above, who sacrificed his life in the endeavor to build up a model school, succeeded remarkably in almost everything of his own devising, and reasonably in what he took from his own American place of training; his deliberate attempts to copy Arnold's methods were mostly failures. Arnold was a devoted, one might say bigoted, churchman, who could scarcely see a chance of salvation out of the Church of England; yet he was held in his lifetime a heretic and latitudinarian. He was a loyal son of Winchester School, and cherished to the last some of the most antiquated public-school tyrannies, like flogging and fagging; yet he never won the entire confidence of those who believed in the old English public-school system, and many in England now think that that system has been most successfully adapted

to modern needs by the work of other minds than his, or by his pupils, who have discarded some of his hobbies. He was intensely eager to develop each pupil's individual character and to appeal to the best motives in every boy. Yet he scarcely ever succeeded in understanding younger boys, before the age when they could think about becoming men; and it was left for his third successor, the present Archbishop of Canterbury, to release Rugby boys from much of the iron tyranny of an inflexible system, which Arnold could see no sense in relaxing.

That he loved righteousness and hated iniquity; that he made moral and intellectual training go hand in hand; that he came before his pupils as one of themselves, asking their help in raising the school to what they all longed to have it; that his life, in Rugby and out of Rugby, was one long personal appeal to fight for Christian English manhood in all its truth, purity, energy, and self-devotion, and that these qualities are all worthy of admiration and imitation, modified by the patriotism of every country, is as true now as it was in 1842. But when we come to the specific problems he encountered, and the specific arms he used, a thoughtful teacher must pronounce both to be nearly obsolete. It is a very poor eulogium, and one that Arnold would have rejected for himself and regretted for others, to call any one the Arnold of America; and if, as is very probable, a system of large boarding-schools will be extensively developed in the United States, they must not seek to be Rugbys or Etons, nor even new Andovers or Exeters, but adapted to the needs of their age and their pupils by the efforts of men as patriotic, as fearless, as original, as devoted as Thomas Arnold.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ames, P. W. The Mirror of the Sinful Soul. Published for the Royal Society of Literature. London: Asher & Co.
Browning, Robert. The Pied Piper of Hamelin, and Other Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15c.
Buchan, John. Sir Walter Raleigh. Stanhope Essay, 1897. Oxford: B. H. Blackwell.
Crow, Martha F. Elizabethan Sonnet-Cycles. Idea—Fidessa—Chloris. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Cumberland, Barlow. The Story of the Union Jack. Toronto: William Briggs. $1.50.
Dulles, Dr. C. W. Accidents and Emergencies. Fifth edition, thoroughly revised and enlarged. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co. $1.
Jacobs, W. W. Many Cargoes. 2d ed. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.
King, Dr. C. R. Life and Correspondence of Rufus King. Vol. IV. 1801-1806. Putnams.
Lambert, P. A. Analytic Geometry. Macmillan. $1.50.
Magenat, Jules. French Practical Course. Macmillan. $1.
Mitford, Bertram. The King's Assegai. A Matabili Story. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.
Morfill, Prof. W. R. A Short Grammar of the Bulgarian Language. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.
Pellissier, Georges. Le Mouvement Littéraire au XIXe Siècle. 4ième édition. Paris: Hachette; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Perry, Prof. John. The Calculus for Engineers. Edward Arnold.
Pettingill's Newspaper Directory. 1897. New York: Pettingill & Co.
Poems and Essays from the Writings of Ralph Waldo Emerson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Publishers' Trade List Annual, 1897. The Publishers' Weekly.
Quigley, Dorothy. The Way to Keep Young. E. P. Dutton & Co.
Smith, Rev. J. T. Brother Azarias: The Life Story of an American Monk. New York: W. H. Young & Co.
Skeat, Prof. W. W. Chaucerian and Other Pieces. Being a Supplement to the Complete Works of Geoffrey Chaucer. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Stansbury, C. F. Klondike, the Land of Gold. F. T. Neely.
Thorburn, S. S. His Majesty's Greatest Subject. Appletons. $1.
Vignéras, S. Une Mission Française en Abyssinie. Paris: Colin & Cie.
White, W. H. A Description of the Wordsworth and Coleridge MSS. in the Possession of Mr. T. Norton Longman. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.
Wood, Rev. J. G. Half Hours in Field and Forest. Whittaker. $1.25.

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 2, 1897.

The Week.

Both in Nebraska and in Pennsylvania on Thursday, Republican State conventions jubilated over "dollar wheat," and asserted that it had made silver a dead issue. The Pennsylvania platform distinctly says: "Dollar wheat has sounded the death-knell of the free-coinage heresy." This is highly gratifying, and it also contains an undoubted truth. No man with eyes in his head can question the immense political effect, or the advantage to the cause of sound money, produced by wheat's going up in price while silver is going down. But to admit this and rejoice in it is one thing; it is quite another to say that dollar wheat has made an end of free silver. Suppose wheat goes back to 75 or 60 cents next year, as is at least possible, what becomes of the Pennsylvania argument? The dead heresy will prove a very lively corpse. The real moral of the situation is that advantage should be taken of the highly favorable opportunity, not only to ring death-knells of free coinage, but to so lock and bar its tomb that no political resurrectionists can drag it out again to afflict us. If the Republicans were really heart and soul for the gold standard, they would seize instantly on their strategic chance to imbed it in the law of the land beyond question or repeal. "Dollar wheat" would spur them to activity, not lull them into a fool's paradise of confidence that all will be for the best in the best of possible worlds, so long as the Republicans are in power.

The rise in value of the rupee of India coincidently with the fall of silver bullion is as decided as the simultaneous rise of wheat, and is due to the same general cause, *i. e.*, to the law of supply and demand. Wheat has gone up because supply has fallen off as compared with demand. Rupees have advanced because demand has increased as compared with supply. Since the closing of the Indian mints the number of rupees in existence remains fixed; that is, the number cannot be increased, but may be diminished slightly by loss, by fire, or other accident. So, whenever an increase of demand comes, there will be a rise in the price. When the Indian mints were closed, the market value of the rupee was 15¼d. It declined gradually to 13d., and, after fluctuating within narrow limits, began to rise again. The present quotation of the rupee in English money is 15½d., or a little more than the price at which it sold in 1893, when the mints were closed. In the meanwhile silver has fallen so that the bullion value of the rupee is only 9d. The Government of India has made a saving of $25,000,000 per annum on its remittances to Europe by stopping the "free coinage of silver." If the mints had been kept open, the value of the rupee, in which all taxes are collected, would have been exactly that of the silver bullion contained in it. Guided by this experience it is impossible to suppose that the Indian Government will reopen the mints in order to make a new experiment in bimetallism.

Senator Chandler makes a noteworthy admission in his contrite apology to his constituents for not discovering the discriminating-duty clause on foreign goods entering his country through Canada, when he says: "Having had experience with conference reports which should have warned me to read every word of this report, I have no excuse to offer for not doing so. I hope to be forgiven by my constituents, but I shall never forgive myself." That is to say, he knew his colleagues would bear watching, and should not have taken their word for it, solemnly uttered in the Senate, that in this instance they intended to play fair. It would be very interesting, as well as useful, if Mr. Chandler would cite the experiences which he says should have served as a warning to him. Nothing would help so much to break up the practice as a full revelation of its workings, and Mr. Chandler might find some solace for his grief in warding off from other confiding statesmen like woe in the future. He would do well also to insist, when Congress shall come together again, upon such rigid definition and regulation of the powers of conference committees as will make future tricks of the kind impossible.

Lawyers have been in the habit of joking over statutes "through which a coach and four could be driven," but what kind of definition will they invent for the now famous clause 22 of the Dingley bill? The more it is examined the more extraordinary a piece of legislation does it appear to be. Instead of a coach and four, transcontinental railroads and lines of ocean steamships find plenty of room in the clause, and Congress never knew it! It now appears that one of the questions with which the Attorney-General is wrestling is whether clause 22 does not levy a discriminating duty of 10 per cent. on goods imported in vessels of all countries not expressly exempted by treaties. Exemption has previously been made by "act of Congress," but those words were slipped out of the clause in conference, just as the words about a "contiguous country" were slipped in. Thus it is possible that the clause strikes a blow at English and French shipping as well as at the Canadian Pacific Railroad. German, Austrian, and Swedish steamships would be exempt by treaty; but English and French only as respects goods shipped from English and French ports. A good part of their freight would be subject to the discriminating duty.

Now this new "joker" in the bill was just as much a "legislative trick" as was, according to Senator Chandler, the sly insertion of the "contiguous-country" phrase. Mr. Dingley knew nothing about the imposition which was being practised on himself and on Congress. He was asked specifically about this discriminating duty on foreign shipping, and replied that it was merely "an old provision." Of course, the point is, and this is what is worrying the Attorney-General, that the old provision was materially changed in the dark. Senator Allison was asked what change the clause would make, and declared, "It makes no change." Coaches and four are nothing to this. Who was responsible for this subterranean legislation? The *Sun* calls upon him to come forward that a grateful country may honor him for his stupendous success as a jobber. Others would be glad to have him come forward for other reasons. But whoever he is, he seems to be a wonderfully shy and shrinking person. It looks now as if it would take a congressional investigation to make him come out into the public gaze and get his laurels.

President McKinley's remarks before the Grand Army at Buffalo last week were in excellent taste and temper. He is especially to be congratulated on not having repeated the dangerous suggestion which he made to Congress, that more revenue should be raised so that there should be more money for pensions. There is no doubt that the hopes of the pension-agents are high. They confidently expect to get their long-desired service pension out of this Administration. The talk about pensions having now reached the "top-notch" fills them with disgust. They have seen that top-notch before, ever since Garfield located it at some $120,000,000 below the present mark, and have always found means to push it higher. Are there not 450,000 claims now pending? How can there be a top-notch till those are all granted? And it is not to be supposed that the ability of the pension-agents to produce or invent "claims" is by any means exhausted in the number 450,000. They are good for as many more on demand. However discreet Mr.

McKinley may be, we cannot expect other speakers on the Grand Army platform to be so moderate. The President may have been restrained by the depressing revenue returns under the Dingley bill, thus far producing less than half the necessary expenses of the Government, and distinctly threatening a deficit of $50,000,000 instead of the desired sum "ample for pensions." But no such considerations will affect the claim-agents or a really enthusiastic Grand Army man. If there is not enough money in the Treasury, borrow it. If it was right to issue bonds to put down the rebellion, it cannot be wrong to issue them to still the clamor of the pension-agents.

Dingley deficits are producing an ominous silence in many quarters, nowhere more marked than in the *Tribune*. We all remember its eloquent and horrified accounts of Wilson deficits. With the deficit under the tariff that was going to "change all that," now amounting to more than $14,000,000 for August alone, why such delay in taking the floor to explain? The reason is that the *Tribune* was tongue-tied by an unfortunate admission of its own. When the Dingley bill was pending, it solemnly warned Republicans in Congress that the party could not "afford" to pass a bill which would result in deficient revenue "even for a time." But, alas, the party did it, even glories in it now, asks who cares a hang about deficits anyhow. It is only Wilson deficits that are really bad; Dingley deficits show how truly great and generous the Government is to pay out so much more money to the dear people than it receives from them. As the gifted Grand Army orator observed, under this Administration "the latch-strings are loosened," and almost anybody can get money out of the Treasury. This being so, anxiety about getting money into the Treasury is clearly unnecessary.

Prof. David Starr Jordan's report on the actual conditions of seal life in Bering Sea, and on the probable extinction of the herds if present methods are continued, is that of an acute observer, and therefore worthy of respect. But when he ventures into international law and the discussion of remedies, his opinions are to be taken only for what they are worth. He remarks that our Government made two capital mistakes. One was in asserting that Bering Sea was *mare clausum*. Inasmuch as all authorities and the arbitration tribunal were of the same opinion, it was scarcely necessary, though we admit it was magnanimous, in Prof. Jordan to declare it. Our other mistake was in leaving the regulation of sealing to a tribunal really incompetent to decide what was for "the welfare of the seals." Evidently man exists for the seals, not the seals for man. But Prof. Jordan adds, as a great novelty, that the thing now to do is to assert "property rights in seals on the part of the nations which possess the islands." He means, of course, property rights not merely when the seals are on the islands, but when they are swimming the trackless ocean. This claim, however, as Prof. Jordan appears not to know, was vigorously presented to the Paris tribunal, and was by that body put aside with something like amused contempt.

The mischief of crude and excessive legislation is a matter on which Governor Griggs of New Jersey is qualified to speak, and his address on "Law-making," delivered to the National Bar Association, contains perhaps the most thorough examination of the subject yet made. The complaint that legislators have no special training in law-making is as old as Plato's time, and we may as well assume that this complaint will always be made. The practical question is how to get better results out of such material as we have and are likely to have. The first step to be taken in finding an answer to this question is to define precisely the existing conditions, and this Gov. Griggs does very clearly. Every member of the Legislature, it would seem, feels it his duty to introduce a number of bills, and the whole field of human activity is thus made subject to annual regulation. Most of these bills fail of passage, but multitudes are adopted and become laws if the Governor approves them. Last year Gov. Black of New York disapproved five hundred bills which had passed both houses of the Legislature, and Gov. Griggs made a like dispositon of ninety. He doubts "if a single reasonable complaint of inconvenience or public loss has been heard by reason of the failure of these 590 bills to become laws." The public doubts if many such complaints would have been heard had the rest of the bills, with the exception of repealing statutes, met the same fate. By far the most of them are not of the nature of laws, but are devised to further special interests, and the remainder are largely the work of the "quack doctors of government."

The violent revolution in the system of assessments of property for taxation in Westchester County, N. Y., was immediately occasioned by Judge Keogh's directing the grand jury to indict the assessors for following established customs. One feature of this revolution was the assessment of property held by Justice Keogh, individually and as trustee, at very high figures. These figures are regarded by Justice Keogh as unjust, and he has employed counsel to obtain their reduction, apparently with success. His own personal assessment is much lowered, and that of an estate of which he is trustee is reduced from $900,000 to $125,000. As to this estate, it is said that the assessors did not pretend that their assessment was proper; they made it "to serve as a basis of settlement." We do not question the propriety of these reductions, but we fail to see how justice is attained by adopting a system which compels property-owners to employ lawyers in order to save their property from confiscation under the forms of law. Justice Keogh knows his legal rights, and can afford to employ counsel. His position insures respectful attention to his complaints. But many citizens are not so fortunate. Women will frequently submit to imposition rather than resort to legal remedies. Trustees are sometimes not alert, and not a few citizens are ignorant of their rights. It is not a satisfactory condition of affairs when men have to resort to litigation in order to enjoy their possessions in peace, and we doubt if any one will contend that the prosperity of Westchester County has been advanced by Justice Keogh's proceedings.

The fact of highest importance in connection with the retirement of Mr. Conlin from the head of the police force in this city, and the election of Mr. McCullagh in his place, is that the change destroys completely Commissioner Parker's power for evil. He is henceforth a nonentity in the department. Conlin was his tool, and the two working together were able to block almost entirely the efforts of the reputable members of the Board to put the force on a new and thoroughly efficient basis. They stood in the way of all desirable promotions, because Parker wished to have no promotions made save those which suited his purposes. Conlin's departure leaves Parker powerless, and permits the Board to accomplish during the remaining four months of its existence the work of reconstruction and reformation which Messrs. Roosevelt and Andrews planned in the early months of their service. With the cordial cooperation of Messrs. Moss and Smith, Mr. Andrews will be able to see his long and intelligent labors crowned with success. He will be able to leave the force in a thoroughly reconstructed and well-disciplined condition, and will thus place the department at the close of the Strong administration in the position which it would have taken at the beginning had it not been for the sad mistake of Parker's appointment. The patient firmness and simple, unostentatious devotion to duty of Mr. Andrews have won the day in a prolonged contest with one of the wiliest politicians of his time.

The movement in favor of free trade started in Canada under the leadership of Sir Wilfred Laurier seems likely to have far greater consequences than were

anticipated. In the first place, it put an end to the protectionist dreams of an imperial customs union, under which England should impose duties on the products of all other countries except her own colonies, while her colonies should continue their protective systems. Mr. Reid, the Premier of New South Wales, supported Sir Wilfred Laurier in the positive declaration that the idea of such a union was altogether inadmissible. In the second place, the Canadian Government, finding it impossible to grant reduced duties to England without bringing into play the treaty rights of other countries, has boldly extended these reductions to all countries that have any reasonable claims to them. In the case of Germany and Belgium the period during which the reductions are to be enjoyed is limited by the denunciation of the existing treaties, and the effect of this denunciation has been quite different from what was expected. Apprehensions were expressed that retaliatory measures would be adopted; but nothing appears to be further from the thoughts of the Germans and the Belgians. On the contrary, they seem to have considered the prompt denunciation of the treaties as a sign that England was prepared to adopt retaliatory measures herself, and to have been alarmed at the possibility. They are well aware of the enormous value of the English market, and they have no disposition to adopt a course that might cause them to lose it. The indications are that the temporary advantage gained accidentally in the Canadian market may induce more than one foreign Power to negotiate for permanent tariff reductions.

The British Government is encountering some difficulties in the attempt to conduct public business according to the demands of the labor-unions. Under the influence of the very old fallacy that wages can be raised by act of Parliament, that body was induced in 1891 to pass a "fair-wages resolution" to the effect that in all Government contracts provision should be made for paying such wages "as are generally accepted as current in each trade for competent workmen." But it is true in England, as it is in every other state, that in no trade is there a rate of wages current throughout the country. There are different rates of wages for the same work, each current in a particular region, for the very good reason that the expenses of living and the cost of production are extremely variable factors. The same money wages in this country would have very different purchasing power in different sections, the result being that cost of production is equalized by not paying the same money wages everywhere. The same phenomenon exists in England, the wages of ship-builders in London being higher than those which prevail in the northern counties. Hence, the Admiralty construed the parliamentary resolution to mean, not the rate of wages current everywhere in a trade, for there is no such rate, but the rate prevalent in the particular district where the contractor carried on his operations.

This construction suited neither the labor-unions nor the London ship-builders. What the labor-unions wanted was that the highest rate of wages anywhere paid should be taken as the rate current in each trade. The London ship-builders contended that the Government ought to make them an allowance on account of the higher wages which they were obliged to pay, just as our protectionists insist that Congress shall arrange the tariff so as to compensate American manufacturers for the high price of American labor. One of these ship-builders boldly demanded that the Government should give a bonus of £20,000 for every battle-ship built on the Thames, alleging that workmen could not be obtained for less than the rate now current, which made it impossible for London shipyards to compete with those of the north. Another admitted that men could be obtained for lower wages, but claimed that it was the obvious purpose of Parliament to keep wages up and not compel contractors to drive hard bargains with their laborers. He ingenuously maintained that as London paid nearly one-seventh of the national taxes, its workmen should receive their share of the national contracts, "and not be permanently estopped and handicapped from their legitimate occupation because the rates of wages in London are, and have been for many years, for good reasons, higher than those of the provincial outports." It must be said that this argument is not inconsistent with the theory of the fair-wages resolution, but the Parliamentary committee investigating the subject do not yield to it. On the other hand, they point out that the effect of the resolution is to exclude old soldiers and sailors from employment by Government contractors. The contractors say that they would be glad to give these men work, but that they cannot afford to pay them the wages of "competent" workmen, because they cannot earn such wages. The only result of this well-meant resolution seems, therefore, to have been to drive the old soldiers and sailors out of employment on public works—a result to which the labor-unions appear to be reconciled, but which is on almost every account deplorable.

President Krüger's flat denial that England has suzerain rights over the Transvaal is evidently intended as a challenge to Mr. Chamberlain. That gentleman remarked rather tartly in the House of Commons the other day, when asked why England did not arbitrate her differences with the Transvaal, that no suzerain nation ever arbitrated disputes with a vassal country. Krüger now replies that the recognition of British suzerainty is not made, in precise terms, in the convention of 1884, though it had been in the superseded convention of 1881. He has to admit, of course, that the 1884 agreement restrains the Transvaal from concluding "a treaty or engagement with any state or nation other than the Orange Free State, or with any native tribe to the eastward or westward of the republic, until the same has been approved by her Majesty the Queen." This provision he means to live up to loyally, but it is not suzerainty. Chamberlain declares it is. So the dispute is only a verbal one, after all. Chamberlain says to Krüger, "You have got to live up to your agreements with me, your suzerain." Krüger replies, "I am going to live up to my agreements with you, confound you, but you are no suzerain at all." Still, disputes about words are often the bitterest and most dangerous of all, between men or nations. There is no doubt that Chamberlain will be made "very angry" by Krüger's defiance, as Flora Shaw said he was by one of Rhodes's impudent telegrams.

A curious piece of evidence bearing on the success of the English rule in India is furnished by the popularity of the courts established in that country and especially in Bengal. Litigation increases beyond the power of the existing force of judges to deal with it. Under the *pax Britannica*, disputes can no longer be settled by the sword, and murders and raids and family vendettas are things largely of the past. But the natives have learned that they can carry on their quarrels through litigation, and the agricultural classes are especially pertinacious in asserting their legal rights over land and irrigation privileges. The peasants not only resort to the courts, but they are not satisfied with the decisions of the tribunals of first instance. The number of appeals has increased until it is now about 30 per cent. of the contested cases. There seems to be no way of stopping the initiation of legislation, which is evidently the outcome of the national character, but the Government finds it necessary to decrease the volume of appeals in petty cases in order that the higher courts may be able to give proper attention to really important matters. To allow such appeals, when the lower courts are of good character, tends more to the oppression of poor suitors by rich ones than to secure the rights of the feeble, and reforms are now proposed which shall effect a prompter administration of justice.

SURREPTITIOUS LEGISLATION.

Mr. Bagehot won much fame by pointing out that the British Constitution in its actual working was a very different thing from what it was described to be in the books. We need not look far to find evidence that a similar opportunity of obtaining distinction awaits some American observer. The fields are white for the harvest, and a plain account of how laws are not made and Senators not chosen by the Legislature, but by mysterious individuals and unknown bodies, would fill an interesting volume. But we must add the caution that the American observer will find it necessary to be very expeditious in publishing his results. We are a pushing people, and our political development is going on at a pace that may well make the panting philosopher toil after it in vain.

The discovery that discriminating duties of the most revolutionary character had been introduced into the tariff without the knowledge of the framers of that instrument, ought to open the eyes of the country to the dangers of continuing to legislate after our present manner. We have come to regard our legislatures as bodies that do not originate laws, but, like the Roman Senate in the time of the empire, merely register the edicts of the sovereign, or, as we call him, the Boss. We now see that these sovereigns of ours are not satisfactory legislative bodies. They have too many other things to look out for to be able to attend to the details of legislation. Meanwhile, the Legislature having abdicated as a deliberating body, the door is open for all sorts of laws, pushed by all sorts of influences, to slip into the statute books.

We have seen the results in the case of Congress, but we can find them in abundance in the legislation of the State of New York. Not very long since a vigorous attempt was made to adopt the code prepared by the late David Dudley Field. The legal profession was aroused and the project was defeated. But it now appears that the law has been to a considerable extent quietly codified without any pretence of discussion or of consulting the profession. It may be conceded at once that the law is susceptible of improvement, and that a body of learned jurists with Mr. Field's qualifications might restate it in a more convenient form. But the matter has been undertaken by a commission in the selection of whose members the legal profession had no part. Speaking moderately, we may say that this statutory revision commission has not been composed of very eminent jurists. It was originally a product of Gov. Hill's administration, and Gov. Hill did not dispose of offices without regard to personal or party considerations. The names of the members of this commission were and are unknown to the public, and even to many members of the legal profession. Had they confined themselves to their proper work, the orderly arrangement and classification of the statutes, they might have attained honorable distinction. But the temptation to state the law, not as it is, but as they think it ought to be, has proved irresistible, and as our legislators are, of course, too much absorbed in "politics" to be able to scrutinize the great volumes of revised statutes laid before them, the people find themselves suddenly living under a body of general laws not only formulated in new language, but also containing new principles.

Occasionally the propensity of this commission to make such laws as it saw fit has been rebuked. It got up some laws concerning corporations that were so outrageous as to compel their precipitate repeal by the Legislature, and its revisions have been already extensively revised. But many of its changes are not of a description to arouse public attention, and yet they may be of a revolutionary character and affect vast interests. It was provided in the Revised Statutes, after careful deliberation on the part of the great lawyers who had charge of the work, that any conveyance of real estate by a trustee in contravention of his trust should be void. The purpose of this provision is obvious. Men wish to protect their children and dependent relatives against want. They know that trustees may prove dishonest or incapable; that they may make bad investments, or convert personal property to their own use. But under this statute all danger from these causes could be averted, and numberless estates have been safely kept until the assigned period for their distribution.

For fifty years this law stood unchanged. Then the Legislature, perhaps for good reasons, authorized trustees to raise money by mortgage when the court was satisfied that such a course was necessary for the preservation or improvement of their estates. Soon after, the sale of such estates was authorized upon like conditions. The courts, however, were extremely cautious in the exercise of the power conferred upon them, and unless it was clearly made out that a case of necessity existed they refused all applications. Such conservatism did not please the Revision Commission, and, without warning to the public, they changed the law so as to make it necessary for a trustee only to make out a case showing that it was "for the best interest" of his trust estate that it should be sold in order to convert it into cash. It is easy to see what this might lead to. With the proper affidavits, the right kind of judge, and a lawyer with a "pull," it would not be hard for a trustee to prove a sale of real estate beneficial when there was no one interested to prove the contrary. We do not now question the policy of this legislation. It may be that the creators of trust estates, employing as they generally do the wisest of counsel, are less fitted to decide whether they will have their lands convertible into money than their trustees and beneficiaries. They can create and limit powers of sale if they choose; and if they think it wiser not to do so, some will hold that they ought not to be interfered with. Be this as it may, it hardly admits of question that changes of this momentous nature, affecting the interests of classes peculiarly unable to care for themselves, should be made only after the most prolonged and thorough discussion. We are glad to see that this measure was amended by the last Legislature in some important respects.

This change was of a piece with the treatment of the law of real property by this commission. For over sixty years the Revised Statutes have contained the law on this subject substantially unmodified. Every doubtful point, every ambiguous word, in this body of law has been the subject of litigation and judicial interpretation. The language employed by the revisers may not have been altogether happy, but it had come to have an understood meaning. Like the errors in the authorized translation of the Bible, the dubious phrases of the Revised Statutes had become innocuous, and the result of the labors of the eminent scholars who lately undertook the retranslation of the Scriptures might have served as a warning to those who would overcome established usage.

But there is this difference between the cases. Those who prefer the old version of the Scriptures can continue to use it. Its familiar phrases and their accepted meaning can be cherished by those in whose memory they have become imbedded. But the unfortunate lawyer who knew by heart the precise language expressing all the main principles of our law of real property now finds this knowledge a delusion and a snare. The quicker he can forget it all and begin with the beginners in the profession, the better for him. He must go over the whole field, page by page, section by section, sentence by sentence, even word by word, for the slipping in of an "or" for an "and" may involve a matter of millions. This enormous burden appears to have been imposed in utter wantonness; it is an arbitrary and unprincipled exercise of irresponsible power. No lawyer worthy of his profession would ever consent to change the wording of a thoroughly construed organic statute if it could possibly be avoided; no matter with what skill the change is made, it always involves the substitution of a possibly doubtful meaning for one that is known. But the New York commission has gone through the law apparently on the principle of changing for the sake of change. Whole

pages may be cited where the wording of nearly every sentence has been altered, while it is quite likely that the commissioners would declare that they had no intention of modifying the meaning in the slightest degree. The mischief is done, and of course there is no help for it; but in the name of the orderly administration of the fundamental laws of property we can at least protest.

THE DOWNFALL OF A BOSS.

Senator Wellington is no longer the boss of the Republican party in Maryland. The party has until recently had little need of a boss in that State, which is normally Democratic, and its politicians are comparatively independent. Like the barons of feudal times, they are not disposed to concede absolute power to any superior potentate, and history shows that such power is established only gradually and by slow degrees. The barons apparently maintain their claims, but from time to time an able and ambitious king comes to the throne, and by politic measures enlarges the royal prerogative and transforms nominal fealty into actual submission. This change, as we have said, seems to have usually taken place imperceptibly, and the sovereign who has brought it about has been careful not to arouse opposition by openly proclaiming his purpose. Successful despots have in all ages found it wise to leave the semblance of free institutions to peoples whom they have enslaved, and our most successful political bosses have adopted this policy. Senator Wellington has been overthrown because he rejected it. His dynasty had not been consolidated by time or confirmed by success; nevertheless he acted as if his will was law, and, like many other weak rulers, found it was not.

We cannot say what the result of Senator Wellington's action might have been if he had not undertaken to lay down the principles of boss rule. It is reported that his followers in Baltimore conducted the primary conventions for the nomination of a mayor so unfairly that a majority of the Republican voters withdrew and held primaries by themselves. The candidate nominated by them thus represented majority rule, while the candidate nominated by Senator Wellington's adherents represented "regularity." Under such circumstances much adroitness and diplomacy was plainly necessary if the endorsement of the State convention was to be procured for the regular nominee. The spirit of rebellion and mutiny being aroused, conciliatory language should have been used, and, possibly, some concessions granted. Instead of pursuing this policy, Senator Wellington resorted to an arrogant assertion of irresponsible power, and, in effect, defiantly exclaimed, like Boss Tweed, "What are you going to do about it?"

In his opening address to the convention he used this language: "I claim that it is not only my right, but my duty, occupying the position I do, to exert what influence I have toward the end that fit nominations be made and suitable principles enunciated for the guidance of the Republican party. . . . I have never assumed authority that was not of right the prerogative of the position I hold. Custom has given certain consideration to Senators of the United States. These privileges I shall claim as my right so long as they are granted to others, and there shall be no infringement without my indignant protest." The Senator continued in this strain, openly declaring that he proposed to control appointments to office in Maryland, and that he should give them to his political supporters.

There can be no question that this is a correct account of the principles of boss-rule, although for a boss to state these principles openly is a violation of the highest principle of all, that of secrecy. However this may be, the public is to be congratulated on having the nature of what we call government by the people authoritatively explained to it. It may as well discard text-books of politics used in the schools and adopt Senator Wellington's statement of principles as containing the true explanation of the practical administration of our government. The Senators of every State—not the President of the United States, as laid down in the Constitution—constitute the appointing power. Our constitutional law may be summed up in this statement, and our party law is concisely formulated in the proposition that Senators are to enunciate the principles of the party, to select its nominees, and to give the offices to their political friends.

Some may be disposed to protest that the enunciation of principles has never been recognized as one of the prerogatives of a party boss, and it must be admitted that it is not easy, even with Senator Wellington's aid, to prove the existence of doctrines heretofore esoteric. But the objection is not important, because, when compared with offices, party principles are not important. However it may be with outsiders, active politicians care much more about candidates than about platforms. Platforms consist of abstractions and generalities; candidates stand for the concrete benefits of salaries and fees and contracts. Of course, the enunciation of principles is occasionally very important in attracting independent voters to the support of a particular party, and it may thus require the attention of the boss as affecting the permanency of his power. Beyond this, the enunciation of principles is a matter of indifference to him, and he would probably be willing to have them dispensed with altogether. Indeed, Senator Wellington's case is an illustration of the danger to a boss that lurks in the profession of principles. Had he held his tongue about the principles of boss-rule, and not openly told the Republican politicians that they were his subjects, they might have continued to obey him. But the traditions of freedom are so recent in this country that even politicians resent the public advertisement of their subserviency, and the wise boss must be contented with the practical fidelity of his followers, without compelling them to do him open homage.

"THEORIES" OF PUBLIC EXTRAVAGANCE.

The official volume of "appropriations, new offices, etc.," for the fiscal year of 1897-'98 has been compiled by the clerks of the House and Senate committees on appropriations, and an abstract of its summaries has been given to the press. Its main features are the following:

General appropriation acts	$397,100,384
Deficiency acts	10,557,417
Miscellaneous acts	999,057
Total	$408,656,858
Permanent annual appropriations	120,078,221
Making a total of appropriations of	$528,735,078

"The number of new offices and employments specifically authorized is 410, at an annual compensation of $443,439, and the number omitted 134, at an annual compensation of $157,697, making a net increase of 276 in number and $285,742 in amount. The number of salaries increased is twenty, at an annual cost of $6,814, and the number reduced two, at an annual cost of $400. The total amount of contracts authorized requiring future appropriations by Congress is $2,269,375."

When Chairman Cannon, at the close of the regular session, made the customary statement of appropriations, he put the total at $518,103,458. The discrepancy of $10,000,000 is partly accounted for by miscellaneous appropriations made by the extra session. The rest is amply explained by the hocus-pocus and understatement in which all chairmen of appropriations committees indulge, in order to avoid an appearance of extravagance. But if appropriations of $518,000,000 were, as Mr. Cannon confessed they were, "in excess of the legitimate demands of the public service," we can be in no doubt what adjective to apply to appropriations of $528,000,000. They are grossly extravagant. In view of the embarrassed condition of the Treasury, they are recklessly, almost criminally, extravagant. This is an old story now, but the swelling deficiencies of revenue under the Dingley bill make of it a story which we shall have to hear a great many times over, wearisome as it may become.

How to account for the great increase in public expenditures, especially for such deliberate extravagance as our Congress has been guilty of in recent years, is a puzzle to many public men. The guiltiest Congressmen themselves cannot understand it, they say. Some mysterious power gets hold of them and

makes them lavish of the public funds in spite of the most frugal and virtuous intentions. Economists have studied the phenomenon, and have got up grave theories to account for it. Some of these are referred to in the article on the subject in the *Yale Review* by the Italian writer, Signor Giuseppe Fiamingo. Thus there is the explanation of Jevons and others that increased expenditures result from centralizing the powers of the state, and that this centralization arises from the economy of public works compared with private undertakings. This theory makes extravagance identical with real utility. Of course, the state ought to do its work more economically than an individual, just as a great corporation can reduce its cost of production as compared with a small firm. But does it? The inquiry as to the actual fact at once destroys the fancied utilitarian basis of increasing public expenditures. Such works are notoriously and demonstrably wasteful.

Another theory is that progressive appropriations of public money arise from extending the functions of government. The state is growing more conscious of itself and of its paternal duties. It benevolently undertakes to care for one new class after another of its hitherto neglected children. What all this really amounts to is only a statement of the problem in another form—the thing really requiring explanation is precisely why all these new fields for public outlay have been found and have been made such a drain on national resources. Were not Congresses conscious of being "paternal" before they began voting money in excess of the legitimate demands of the public service? A father is sometimes most paternal in severely cutting off the pocket-money of prodigal children. Paternalism, in this new view of the word, is only another name for spendthrift squandering.

All these shifts to avoid facing the acknowledgment of a decaying parliamentary government and of inexcusable extravagance in public expenditure, Signor Fiamingo dismisses as "pure illusion." These economic abstractions have no counterpart in reality. There is no such thing as a "state," anxiously asking when a new function is proposed to it, "Would it be more advantageous to leave this function to free individual activity, or would the greatest advantage be derived from making it a public service?" The state, in the case supposed, is nothing more nor less than a group of scrambling politicians, eager to obtain and retain power, and perfectly aware that the best way to do it is to secure for themselves and their districts the greatest possible amount of public money on whatever pretext occurs to them. The real place to look for the increasing extravagance of parliaments and congresses is, as Signor Fiamingo truly says, in their "make-up and methods." One glimpse of the real appropriator at work is more illuminating than all the economic theories that can be devised to account for his lavish appropriations.

The average Congressman or member of the Legislature, with his average political career, furnishes a "theory" in his own person which beats the economists out of sight. Extravagance, he can say like Louis XIV., *c'est moi*. At every step in his political advancement, from Alderman to Representative, he has learned that the surest way of getting on is to get every cent possible out of the public treasury for his ward or district. The most certain way to beat a rival for the nomination is to promise to get more public money than he dares to. Every appropriation secured, every public building obtained, or river-and-harbor job put through, means renomination or promotion. This is what is meant by the increasing "pressure from the constituencies" over which Speaker Reed and Chairmen Cannon and Allison are so much disturbed. The real pressure is from candidates for office, who want to get delegates and nominations by means of grants from the Treasury. This is a sufficient working hypothesis to account for nine-tenths of the extravagance in our public expenditures. Economic reasoners need not lose themselves in their own inner consciousness to find an explanation of the mystery. Let them open their eyes and gaze upon the average Congressman, and all will be clear.

THE DECAY OF TOWN GOVERNMENT.

Prof. Norton's speech at the Ashfield dinner on the village hoodlum has attracted wide attention throughout New England; its delivery is really an important event. We have been accustomed for two generations to hear the government of New England towns—that is, town government in the most civilized part of the country—extolled as very nearly perfect. These towns were formerly taken by writers on government to represent democracy and equality in their best form; in fact, the New England town has been steadily pointed to as having proved the case of democracy, because it showed that a pure democracy, made up of farm-owners, nearly equal in station, could produce a state of society and government in which there was little or no crime, hardly any poverty, low taxes, complete safety for life and property, and general contentment. This was at one time a true picture, and that it should have been attributed directly to the town-meeting is not surprising when we reflect that the town was the fundamental political institution, and did provide pretty much all the governmental machinery with which most people came in contact. It was as purely a democratic institution as the representative system has ever produced, for all the town officers, from selectmen to constables, were elected once a year by the votes of the entire community. Down to within twenty-five years, to question the excellence of New England town government would have seemed like questioning democracy itself, and the consequence was that any criticism of or inquiry into the actual condition of these towns and the government they provided was resented as a sort of impertinence. The proper attitude of mind was felt to be that of wonder that such a perfect thing should have been produced by man.

To say that this picture is no longer recognized as true would be a poor description of the change which has taken place. In these same town governments the very same system is found to produce to-day the very opposite results. There is plenty of crime and poverty, tramps infesting a community in which the word itself was once unknown, and village hoodlums, every one of them a potential criminal, preparing themselves for rape and murder by vagabond drinking; the taxes are unequal, and often the cause of great complaint; life and property are most insufficiently protected, and a state of great general dissatisfaction is reflected every day in the local press, and brought deliberately to the attention of the public at large by representative men.

Although the proof is not easy to get, it is generally believed that this state of affairs is closely connected with public corruption—not actual stealing, but that sort of petty pilfering or jobbery which prevails when the desire to peculate is tempered by the knowledge that the fund on which inroads can be made is not very large. It must be remembered, however, that the growing wealth of New England is continually bringing within the reach of the Village Tweed new money, especially in the thinly settled wilder portions of the country, filling up with millionaires and magnates from the city, who add to the taxable wealth of fine houses, stock farms, and other improvements, and who expect to be plundered a little. They sometimes provide a sort of police on their estates in their men-servants, but they take no more part in the government of the town than they do in that of Switzerland. They will all willingly admit, however, that there is apt to be a little "ring" in the town, and that the selectmen are suspected of profiting by contracts let by themselves.

When we ask what is to be done about all this, the answer is not simple, and, no doubt, the evil will only be slowly remedied. That it will be remedied we have no question, for the same reason that we have always believed that municipal government would be purified—because the evil is intolerable, and increasingly so. Plunder and misrule and

disorder and danger can no more prevail in the country than they can in town, unless civilization in the United States is to be extinguished.

The cure must come from the action of those who suffer from the disease, and it must come also through a recognition of the fact that a system of government which would do for such a community as New England was fifty years ago will not do for the same community as it is to-day, with its absentee wealth and its deteriorated suffrage. The "ring" in the village rests upon the same basis as it does in the city—a little rural machine of a few dozen voters who are supported by labor furnished by the town, and in return go to the town-meeting and keep in office the selectmen who furnish them support. They are a mere handful, generally outnumbered by the property-owners, who, however, stay at home and let them do it. These property-owners have the matter in their hands, and the misrule which exists is the measure of their indifference.

For good responsible government in a modern rural community an annual election of every single town officer by all the adult males would commend itself to few who have given any attention to the subject. They would say that for such a purpose the "head men" must have a decently long term of office, and that an elective constabulary is a farcical institution. But these difficulties can be overcome. In Massachusetts, for instance, the statutes already provide that towns may prescribe for their selectmen and assessors a three years' term, and within four years the same State has enabled them to set up a paid and armed police. In the town of Southampton, where a paid policeman was recently removed for enforcing the law, the trouble was not with the law, but with the selectmen, and if their action is ratified by their continuance in office, there is no redress. Behind the local community itself no one can go, unless affairs get so bad that the State should be called in to police the towns, in which case we have not the slightest doubt that it would be called in, for protection to life and property our race will have in some way.

The corruption in these governments can be broken up only in the same way as elsewhere—by resisting it, attacking it, and making those guilty of it pay the penalty. One of the largest property-owners and taxpayers in Lenox is reported to have brought a taxpayer's suit against one of the selectmen of that town, and if the matter has been correctly reported in the newspapers, the suit grows out of the practice of illegal giving by officials of contracts to themselves—a practice which produces corruption and waste as inevitably in Lenox as it does in New York, in a town as it does in a bank. Such a suit sounds the doom of the practice against which it is directed, and what is wanted is more such suits. We hear a great deal nowadays about "civic spirit," which is, no doubt, a good thing, but it is not worth a postage-stamp unless it is based on private spirit and honest indignation at wrong and oppression. There is plenty of machinery in these towns to make their government what it ought to be. What is wanted is action.

A BICYCLE-RIDER IN EUROPE.

GENEVA, August 20, 1897.

I had got myself made a member of the Touring Club of France just before leaving home, and at Havre I was met by the badge of the club and by a plaque of identification to fasten upon the machine. These articles, enamelled in colors, are very pretty, and were rather the admiration of the ship. Plenty of other bicycles were hoisted out of the hold, but it happened that I was the only passenger who was to begin to wheel at once. As a member of the club you do not have to pay any duties on your machine. Two customs officers scrutinized my card of membership closely, the second coming to look at it after the first had finished; he explained apologetically that these cards were sometimes presented nearly in blank. They require to have your photograph in a corner, and to be filled up with the name of the Mayor of your town and various other particulars. They expect our Mayor to be a useful person and mix himself up with all the affairs of life, as he does in a French community. Advice to those hereafter who may be inclined to leave the card in the virgin state in which it comes from the American delegate, Col. Hesseltine of Boston.

The Havre steamer arrives Sunday afternoon, and it was the season of the Pentecost fêtes besides, but I found a *mécanicien*, in the Cours de la République, who went to work in a business-like way to deliver the bicycle from the light wooden crate and the thick smearing of vaseline under protection of which it had crossed the ocean. Interested bystanders pronounced some parts of the machine, as they saw it develop, *chouette* (smart and taking), and others *rigolo* (funny or queer). A very common remark heard about the American wheels, as about many other American products, at present, is that they have *du cachet* (good style, distinction). The description is gratifying, of course; can it be that the tables are really turned? For this is precisely the quality we have always been attributing to things French. I began to notice at once, in fact, as I looked about me at the machines the dealer had in stock, while waiting for my own, that the foreign make of bicycles have a heavier, clumsier cut. Later experience soon led me to see, however, that much is to be said in favor of their greater solidity, as adapted to their peculiar conditions.

I left the dealer five francs and my crate, and started out into the open country. The foreign soil received hospitably the visitant from the other side of the world that rolled with light impact on its surface; even the cobble-paved streets were smooth, and the trolley tracks were sunk flush with the surface. Ten or fifteen miles on a little tour of exploration, and to see that all was working perfectly—it was nothing at all; and what a surprise, what a pleasure, to thread in this easy way even the characteristic crooked alleys of the French villages which I had so often laboriously trod on foot. The next day along the coast for Trouville. Private and local fêtes were on at Honfleur, and it was almost impossible to get aboard the boat crossing the mouth of the Seine to that point. The spirit of the crowd was not at all favorable to the bicycle—"*vélo*," they call it, contraction of velocipede, and the word in popular use—and it received more than one vicious push and even a wrenching at the spokes. Above Vasouy I made my first acquaintance with one of the characteristic French hills. You are confronted with the notice, put up by the benevolent Touring Club: "Cyclists, attention! Rapid descent and dangerous turning." The road on these hills is as winding as the usual French road is mathematically, remorselessly straight; the surface is perfectly hard and even, and you get no assistance in holding back from the friction of any rough places. Suppose, in going down at a fast pace, you come—a very common incident—upon a string-team of draught-horses all spread out over the route, it is not so easy to get out of the scrape.

I had come over without a brake, and was riding, too, a seventy-six gear. I had been told that a brake was not obligatory here, and, indeed, it is not—you are quite at liberty to break your neck if you wish; but the question is, whether you wish. All around Paris, all over France, there are such hills, to say nothing yet of the mountains proper. Lesson number one, then, the very great, really the vital importance of having a brake.

I have journeyed alone usually; the only examples of "tramps" I recollect encountering were a couple I met at the mouth of a sequestered lane, just before Pennedepie Church. They were a sturdy pair, representing *Robert Macaire* and his aid *Jacques Strop* to the life. Macaire had a green patch over one eye and Strop had a crutch. They advanced, one before the other, and began to ask assistance for two unfortunate laborers out of work—mendicancy being forbidden, too, in the French communes. I trust I did not do injustice to two very worthy persons, but I sped on without attending at all to this petition.

Returning to Honfleur, I started for Paris by way of Rouen. Up to this time everything was working smoothly. A good many small flint-stones crackled under my wheels, but I was agreeably reassured; they seemed about as harmless as the cinders or gravel on one of our bicycle-paths. I had the wind with me, and was making great progress. The roads are good and even from side to side, and you do not have to fix your attention too exclusively on your way, but can look about you at the architecture and the landscape. I had made, say, fifty miles in all, when, at but five o'clock in the afternoon, at Pont-Audemer, with three good hours of daylight before me, I found a big nail, from a peasant's shoe, sticking in my main tire, and the tire was leaking from a score of small places besides. Impossible to find anybody in the town who could mend a single-tube tire; they understand nothing but the Dunlop or some French modification of it. The incident gave me an opportunity to make the acquaintance of the local delegate of the Touring Club. He was very polite. He told me about the temper of the

people towards the bicycle, which is improving, now that the postman, the *huissier*, and others begin to use it practically in the way of their work. He found me a jeweller, an ingenious person, who in general could mend anything, and between us we managed to heal the wound caused by the hob-nail from the shoe. But even then the condition of the tire was hopeless. I had to take the train for Paris and purchase a new one. Cost of that day's damages, exclusive of hotel bill, railway fare, and expressage on trunk, already sent on, say, 40 francs. I am bringing back the collapsed tire; whether it was originally defective or whether it was cut to pieces by the flints in the road has not yet been determined. The flints are precisely those used in the firelocks of our forefathers; they have the sharp cutting edges of broken glass or crockery, and the roads of much of France, including Paris, are mended with this pleasant material. Certainly outfitters at home who will let their clients come over with apparatus in a defective condition to this large Europe, where it proves to be so extremely difficult to get parts replaced or repairs made according to our own system, are very conscienceless. On the other hand, as many of them have not travelled abroad, it must be hard for them to realize how very different the state of things in Europe is. With all the talk about American machines abroad, and although you find many of them in the windows of the bicycle-shops that occupy almost the whole length of the Avenue de la Grande Armée, in Paris, up to the entrance to the Bois de Boulogne, the workmen and the salesmen are all French, or English at most, and you get no good, hearty American aid and comfort. The feeling is often that you are being *exploité* (imposed upon) in these establishments, as in many others.

The next accident that happened to me was to break a pedal-pin out at Ville d'Avray. Return by the train and a hunt all over Paris, which resulted, not in replacing simply the broken pin, but in having to buy a new pair of pedals. And again it was a lucky chance to find pedals of the same make, though well known at home; one dealer happened to have just a single pair, which had been sent over to him as a specimen. Later on, in the Riviera, there broke an end of the main axle, the crank-hanger. That was clearly a defect in the machine. There was an agent for the make I ride in London, but not nearer. I could hardly wait, two or three weeks, to get a new axle from him, so I had one forged at Nice; price 12 francs, and two days' delay in my plans. The "clumsiness" of foreign bicycles now began to take on a very different aspect. The tourists I first began to notice, on the northern coast, had thick, substantial, double-tube tires, often corrugated so as not to slip, stout, wide cranks, saddles with heavy springs, substantial brakes, liberal mud-guards, and often gear-cases. They were not pretty to look at, if you will, but they went rolling on through rain and shine. Our own manufacturers would do well to have less *cachet* and a good deal more conscience, or at least more good judgment as to the strength of materials.

I have had many other things to do, and have by no means been travelling on, but only *with*, a bicycle. The modest figure of 700 miles that my cyclometer now registers includes much rolling around the streets of Paris and its environs; through the sequestered shades of the forest of Fontainebleau; Grenoble and its charming adjacent regions; over the pass southward to Nice; from Nice to Menton by the lower road and back by the upper; and now, latest, the charming run around Lake Leman. Chamonix and other Swiss excursions are still in prospect. In addition, I have constantly used the bicycle in practical fashion in the towns where I have stopped, so that there is to its credit in the expense account some saving in cab-fares. It has knocked about a good deal by railway, without being crated (for who could bother taking a clumsy crate with him in such journeying?), but thus far it has met with no serious damage. This is a wonder to me, too; for, although it may be a simple enough matter for the man in the baggage-car to give your bicycle a good, safe place in the beginning, he has to put off and take in a lot of baggage at each new station, and he must have to push it about and rearrange it a great deal. Owing to various conditions I have indicated, I am not at all certain that it would not be better for those to whom expense is an object to hire bicycles on this side of the ocean, instead of bringing over their own. The prices, as I have demanded them, vary from 80 or 100 francs a month on the Avenue de la Grande Armée to 50 francs or less in a more modest part of Paris, and to 40 or possibly less in smaller cities like Grenoble and Geneva. "But you would not get a good one," somebody interposes with vigor. "Softly there," I am inclined to reply; "all bicycles are good; the only difference is that some are better than others." I have come to have plenty of respect for the foreign bicycles; they get over the ground at as great a pace as our own; they are comfortable, and they are safe.

The wheeling excursion I took that offered the best occasion for character-study and human interest was a *Rallie-Papier*, or paper-chase, a run on the principle of fox and hounds, with the Touring Club of France, in the forest of Saint-Germain. The course was fifteen miles, a hard one, too, with many stiff hills in it, and then there was fifteen or twenty miles more to Neauphle-le-Château, where a gay breakfast was taken in the open air. There were more than 200 riders, a considerable number of them women. In the forest many false leads were given, and it was entertaining to see eager groups going and coming swiftly on all four branches of a cross-roads at once. After breakfast there were some amusing games, joisting at rings with canes or umbrellas for lances, and the like. All passed off with great humor, and many of the pet terms invented for the bicycle were heard. The tire is a *pneu* (pneumatic, the "*p*" strongly pronounced); the smart name for the machine itself is a *bécane*, which means something like "nag" or "hobby-horse." If you get a tumble, you *ramasser une pelle*—that is, you "pick up a shovel." The women invariably wear knickerbockers, and, when dismounted, they go about with their hands in their pockets, in a good-fellow sort of way. The costume is not bad on the wheel, but on foot it is rather waddling. The men have some extraordinary jerseys, but in addition to that they adopt, almost like a uniform, trousers and cap of black and white check and black stockings. If they mean to be very elegant, they add white gloves. All mount much lower than we do, so that when the start was given, the contestants were simply bestriding their machines with one foot on the ground. If toe-clips (*fixe-pieds*) are used, they just clear the surface.

What I may call my most dramatic and moving excursion was the dragging a fagot, or clog, down the abrupt mountain descent on the journey to the Grande Chartreuse. I had always wanted to try dragging the fagot. I started with an agreeable companion, Prof. Santis of Grenoble. We took the diligence at 5 o'clock in the morning, and, after five hours' climb, alighted on the Col de Porte, the pass about 4,500 feet high. Thence there is a run of about eight or ten miles down to the Hôtel du Désert, from which point you climb again to the Chartreuse. My companion was a practical mountain-rider, but he, too, had only heard of going down steep inclines with the aid of a clog, and had never personally tried it. As he was a professor of physics, he was just the one, I claimed, to make a careful computation of our weights and all the other conditions, and so adjust the clogs we needed with entire accuracy. We dispensed, however, with these elaborate preparations. A cantonnier, or road-mender, fitted us out with two large dried branches—we tied them on behind the bicycles, and started. The grade is extremely stiff, part of the way as much as ten per cent.; it seemed to me a good deal like going down stairs. The professor of physics was soon gayly lost to sight in front. I essayed to go on more slowly, but my machine carried much more avoirdupois than his, and I was soon aware that I was being run away with, in spite of my dragging pine-branch. In the meantime, I may explain, I had had a brake put on my machine, a light graceful one, acting on the rear wheel. It had the disadvantage that you had to let go one hand to get hold of it, and besides it was not effectual in a pinch like the present. Such mountain roads are built only by a system of sharp zigzags, and if you cannot slack up at one of these sharp turns, you are in danger of going over and landing on the roof of a chalet in the valley, half a mile below, to the astonishment, no doubt, of the inmates. However, I had only the bare intimation of such a romantic fate and escaped the reality; I got off free from harm, within a few feet of the verge. I rejoined my sanguine professor of physics—he added the weight of his pine-branch to mine, got another for himself, and again we started. But the cords with which our clogs were fastened on were only small twine; I could not help being a little nervous, from the reflection that this might snap at a critical moment, and a descent upon the chalets or the church-steeple below still be in store. It was only on long, comparatively straight stretches that I really enjoyed the motion; then it was decidedly exhilarating. The trailing boughs occupied the whole width of the road, and raised a cloud of dust. We must have passed like some witches' ride. My fagot, too, made a great roaring; when I passed along by the cataracts, I was inclined to say to myself: "*Tiens!* there's something that's trying to set up a competition with me."

Arrived at last at the Grande Chartreuse, we fell in with a French bicyclist, who announced that an edict was out against riding with the fagot; he had had it from one of the stage-drivers, and was disconcerted in his

plans thereby! I suspect it was only the invention of the stage-driver himself, who opposed the fagot because it scared his horses and raised such an infernal dust.

WILLIAM HENRY BISHOP.

THE INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF MATHEMATICIANS.

ZURICH, August 13, 1897.

Two or three years have passed since the desire felt by many mathematicians for opportunities of meeting with those of other nationalities, in some way that should be free from the inconvenience and small satisfaction attending a formal round of visits, found expression in the suggestion that an International Congress be held at suitable intervals. The suggestion met with ready approval, and it was decided to act upon it. For the first meeting, Paris presented itself as a suitable place, with its claim as the originator of the idea amply supported by the scientific rank of the French mathematicians; but the year 1900, the year of the Exhibition, offered such opportunities for a congress that it was determined to hold the first in 1897 in Zurich, the most central and international spot available, assigning to Paris the congress of 1900. Accordingly, in May of the present year, a committee of organization, composed mainly of the mathematical faculty of the Federal Polytechnic School and Cantonal University of Zurich, issued a circular of invitation and information, summoning the Congress for the 9th, 10th, and 11th of August. Much of the success of the first meeting must be ascribed to the labors of this committee, which made such ample and well-proportioned provision for carrying out the first article of the constitution, in which the objects are presented as four-fold, viz., (*a*) to promote personal relations between the mathematicians of different lands; (*b*) to give, by means of reports and lectures, a general view of the condition of the various branches of mathematics, and to afford the opportunity of treating certain questions of acknowledged importance; (*c*) to deliberate on the problems and organization of succeeding congresses; (*d*) to undertake questions of bibliography, terminology, etc., where an international agreement is necessary.

The felicitous choice of the place gave the meeting a truly international character. Not enumerating the ladies whose connection with mathematics was simply by marriage, but including the few that attended as mathematicians, the number of participants by the evening of the first day was 200, divided as follows among the different countries: Switzerland 53, Germany 40, France 25, Italy 19, Russia 18, Austria-Hungary 16, United States 7, Sweden 6, Denmark 4, Belgium, England, and Holland 3 each, Greece, Portugal, and Spain 1 each. It must always be expected that the country in which the meeting is held will provide the greatest number of attendants; as to the other numbers given, paying due regard to geography, these may be considered fairly representative, except as to the two English-speaking countries. The ten members from these were kept busy explaining that this inadequate representation was due to the meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, just about to take place at Toronto. This excuse, valid for *one* congress, is now worn threadbare, and it is to be hoped that it will not be necessary to discover an equivalent for the next congress, but that America and England will see to it that their numerical representation at the Paris congress be a truer indication of the strength of their work.

The opening meeting of the Congress was appointed for nine o'clock on the morning of August 9, but, for the sake of promoting friendly intercourse from the first, a social gathering took place in the Tonhalle on the previous evening. All that day, in a gray Swiss rain, mathematicians arrived, to the great interest of the inhabitants of Zurich, who turned out in large numbers to inspect; apparently it was supposed that the "Mathematiker" were nearly, if not quite, identical with the "forest-bred performing lions" whose impending arrival and promised performances were announced by posters all over the town. But after the first day not even the red and white button, the open-sesame to all that the committee had provided, excited any special interest. "Êtes-vous Mathematiker?" inquired the truly international porter at the railway station, and then conducted us to the office of the committee of organization, conveniently established in the station. Here many of the members of the committee attended to the necessary business of distributing programmes, enrolling members, and receiving the members' fee of $5. The evening was devoted to the social gathering, where the groups of different nationalities were gradually broken up and intermingled; the difference in language did not seem to impose any barrier to friendly intercourse, though it was noticeable that French was the most general medium of conversation. It was stated later on, by some of the members of the general committee, that diversity of interest within the general domain of mathematics had been really more difficult to allow for than diversity of language.

At the appointed time on the following morning the Aula of the fine building which is the home of the Polytechnic School, was full to the last seat. Prof. Geiser, in the name of the committee of organization, welcomed the Congress to Zurich, referring to the historical importance of Switzerland in mathematics, due to the Bernouillis, Euler, and Steiner. He welcomed the members of the Congress as devoted to the disinterested pursuit of pure science, and, therefore, living in a spiritual world on which the sun never sets. The first business before the Congress was the nomination of a general committee. With a respectful reminiscence of the tower of Babel, the regulations provide that scientific communications may be made in English, French, German, or Italian, the publication of such communications to be in the language of the author, but that the deliberations and resolutions of the Congress may be published in French and German, each of these languages being therefore represented by a secretary, qualified to act as interpreter when necessary. After the nomination of Prof. Geiser as President, with MM. Franel and Rudio as Secretaries, four honorary secretaries, representative of the four languages, were chosen, viz.: MM. Pierpont (Yale), Borel (Paris), E. von Weber (Munich), Volterra (Turin), and the committee was completed by MM. Brioschi (Milan), Hobson (Cambridge), Klein (Göttingen), Mertens (Vienna), Mittag-Leffler (Stockholm), Picard (Paris), Poincaré (Paris, absent), H. Weber (Strassburg). A report was then presented by Prof. Rudio, in the name of the committee, on the purpose and constitution of the Congress.

In addition to this formal business of organization, two addresses were delivered on mathematical questions. To the great regret of all present, M. Poincaré was detained in Paris by a family bereavement, and consequently was not able himself to deliver his address, "Sur les rapports de l'analyse pure et de la physique mathématique"; it was therefore read by M. Franel. Prof. Hurwitz gave a finely proportioned account of the "Entwickelung der allgemeinen Theorie der analytischen Funktionen in neuerer Zeit," including, however, in the "allgemeine Theorie" all such insignificant trifles as analytical geometry. This concluded the business of the opening session; and for the remainder of the day the Congress devoted itself energetically to the first of its four aims. At one o'clock the members sat down to an elaborate banquet in the Tonhalle, diversified by the usual speech-making, and by such pleasing episodes as the sending of greetings to the veterans Cremona and Hermite, both unable to be present. From this an adjournment was made to a gayly decorated steamer, for the programme of the day included a trip on the lake. Two hours of quiet enjoyment brought us to Rapperswyl, the loveliest spot on the lake, with its old castle on the height above the little town—in the courtyard of the castle the monument to Poland, erected "on the free soil of Switzerland" by a Polish exile; there we strolled about until the time appointed for the return to Zurich. We were to have reached Zurich in the midst of a Venetian fête—a characteristic amusement of the gay little town consisting of a procession of illuminated boats, with the accompaniment of fireworks and illuminations along the shore; but, owing to the threatening weather, this part of the programme was postponed to the following evening, when it was carried out with great success.

Tuesday was devoted to the presentation of papers in the separate sections. These sections, with their officers (President, Vice-President, Secretary) were as follows: I., *Arithmetic and Algebra*, Mertens (Vienna), Peano (Turin), Amberg (Zurich); II., *Analysis and Theory of Functions*, Picard (Paris), Brioschi (Milan), Jaccottet (Lutry); III., *Geometry*, Reye (Strassburg), Segre (Turin), Künzler (Zurich); IV., *Mechanics and Mathematical Physics*, Jung (Milan), Zhukovsky (Moscow), Flatt (Basle); V., *History and Bibliography*, Moritz Cantor (Heidelberg), Laisant (Paris), Schoute (Groningen). Naturally the papers that excited most interest were those presented by the best-known mathematicians; and as the sittings of the different departments, though not absolutely coincident in point of time, yet unavoidably overlapped, many members passed from section to section for the sake of hearing H. Weber ("Uber die Genera in algebraischen Zahlkörpern"), Gordan ("Resultante ternärer Formen"), Brioschi ("Sur une classe d'équations du cinquième degré résolubles algébriquement et la transformation du onzième ordre des fonctions elliptiques"), Picard ("Sur les fonctions de plusieurs variables, et en particulier les fonctions algébriques"), Reye ("Neue Eigenschaften des Strahlenkomplexes zweiten

Grades"), Zeuthen ("Isaac Barrow et la méthode inverse des tangentes"). The limit of half an hour imposed on the papers, and enforced with more or less rigor under different presidents, enabled the sections to complete their labors by a late hour in the afternoon, and on Wednesday morning the Aula was again crowded for the concluding meeting. Letters of greeting were read from Cremona, Hermite, and others. Resolutions were adopted that the International Congress of Mathematicians should meet at intervals of from three to five years, in different countries, and that each congress should name at its closing session the date, place, and society in charge of the next meeting. The formal announcement was then made that the next congress would meet in 1900 in Paris, and that its organization was entrusted to the Mathematical Society of France. Questions concerning general reports on the progress of mathematics, and the formal adoption of some scheme of classification, are as yet hardly ripe for more than inquiry; consequently no binding action was taken with respect to these; it is left to the Paris Congress to adopt some definite procedure, with the help of the information that will then be available. Resolutions were, however, presented looking to the formation of standing committees for the purpose of dealing with these matters. Thus the conclusions arrived at, as befits the interim character of the Congress of Zurich, relate mainly to the organization of the series of congresses, without definitely committing the Congress to any particular line of action.

As at the opening general meeting, the business brought forward alternated with mathematical addresses. M. Peano gave an account of the "Logica Matematica," his Herculean attempt to persuade the mathematical world to adopt a purely symbolic mode of expressing its reasoning. Several printed pages of formulæ, apparently stenographic Russian, were distributed among the audience, but in vain did Prof. Peano appeal by name to distinguished members to attempt to read these formulæ. In amusing contrast to this attempt to divest mathematics of all literary interest was the address by Prof. Klein, the apostle of sweetness and light in mathematics, "Zur Frage des höheren mathematischen Unterrichtes," with which the proceedings in the Polytechnic were brought to a close.

The members then assembled at the station of the Uetliberg Railway, where two special trains were in readiness. Half an hour's steep ascent brought us to the hotel near the top of the mountain, where the concluding banquet was held. The return to Zurich was by any of the ordinary trains, and many of us took advantage of this arrangement to remain on the Uetliberg till 10 P. M., watching the sunlight fade away from the Bernese Oberland, stretched out before us in its mighty magnificence, and then turning to see the moon, nearly full, rise over Mont Glärnisch. This was the final act of the proceedings, for on Thursday the mathematicians were dispersed in all directions, leaving Zurich in a steady rain, which simply emphasized our good fortune in the matter of weather; for with the one exception of a sudden rough cold wind which disarranged the Monday evening plans, and caused the Southerners to sigh for the warmth of their own lands, the three days of the Congress were perfect.

And how about the results? To what extent did the Congress realize its ends?

The members evidently felt that the time was short, and they wasted none of it, but worked diligently at making the acquaintance of one another. Occasional reminiscences of past disagreement, personal and international, there might be; but the most obvious and impressive thing was the general air of good fellowship and cordiality that prevailed among these comparative strangers, brought together simply by community of abstract intellectual interest. Strolling among the groups, one found Brill and Noether submitting to a kodak, Zeuthen illustrating a remark by a curve hastily drawn on the smokestack of the steamer, Brioschi winning the hearts of the younger generation by his chivalrous, courteous comprehension, Segre explaining the present marked geometrical tendency in Italian work. The social results of this international gathering were obvious; the indirect scientific results will probably be more valuable than the direct ones, though less easy to appraise justly. The mathematician is unavoidably comparatively isolated, for in any average university there is not room for two of a kind; and if the part of his science that he loves best be intellectually unfashionable, his solitariness may result in depression and stagnation. To estimate the indirect scientific results it would be necessary to measure the stimulus that each receives.

As to the direct scientific results, it rests with future congresses in the series now inaugurated to organize undertakings that shall place beyond all dispute the utility of such gatherings. So far as the mere communication and publication of memoirs is concerned, the Congress affords opportunities differing very little from those presented by the mathematical periodicals; its special scientific *raison d'être* will be found in the promotion of undertakings whose final success depends on concerted action rather than on individual effort. It will be its province to encourage and supervise the preparation of extensive reports on the general progress of mathematics, exercising due care that these preserve a sufficiently international character, and parcelling out the ground in such a way that the collection of reports may form the material for a general history of the mathematics of the period. With its assistance a much-needed universal agreement may be arrived at in the matter of bibliography and classification, towards which so much has been done by the "Commission Permanente du Répertoire Bibliographique des Sciences Mathématiques," ably seconded by the Mathematical Society of Amsterdam through the medium of its indispensable *Revue Semestrielle des Publications Mathématiques*. This question of classification was discussed with a good deal of warmth and interest, and it will be necessary for the Congress to come to some decision at its next meeting, formally recognizing some scheme of classification and lending its support to some bibliographical undertaking.

The question of giving to the series of detached meetings some permanence of character, some organic continuity, will doubtless be considered in 1900, even if it be impossible so early in the series to formulate any means for attaining this desirable end. But whether the congresses are ultimately detached gatherings, or periodic manifestations of a central permanent organization, they will be linked together in the memories of the members by the new friendships then formed, the old friendships then renewed. S.

Correspondence.

THE NEW FRENCH DOCTORATE OPEN TO AMERICANS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You have, at various times, published notes and correspondence on the movement in France, aided and encouraged by a committee of American educators, to make the universities of France more accessible and attractive to American students. The main point aimed at has now been gained by the establishment of a University Doctorate, open to students of any nation, France included, and granted on conditions not dissimilar to those required in America and Germany. I am not yet advised what other degrees than that of Doctor of Science are included in the arrangement, but any student desiring to avail himself of the advantages now offered may get further information by addressing Mr. Henry Bréal, 70, Rue d'Assas, Paris. Some details are also given in the following letter from M. Michel Bréal, Member of the Institute, and Chairman of the French Committee.—Very respectfully,

S. NEWCOMB.

WASHINGTON.

PARIS, 20 juillet, 1897.

Monsieur et cher Collègue :

J'ai l'honneur de vous faire connaître un premier et important résultat qui a été obtenu. Je vous serai très obligé de le porter à la connaissance de vos collègues du Comité Franco-américain de Washington.

Jusqu'à présent l'obtention du titre de *Docteur* était subordonnée en France à de telles conditions qu'il était bien difficile à des étrangers de l'obtenir. Même beaucoup d'étudiants français en était empêchés, quoique possédant les connaissances et la capacité nécessaires.

Ces conditions étaient de deux sortes: (1) la capacité scientifique; (2) l'obligation de présenter un certain nombre de diplomes (baccalauréat, licence) préalablement obtenus.

Dans sa dernière session, le Conseil Supérieur de l'Instruction Publique a décidé que les universités françaises pourraient créer un *Doctorat purement scientifique*, pour lequel les diplomes de bachelier et de licencié ne seraient pas exigés.

Ce doctorat, au point de vue scientifique, ne devra pas être moins sérieux que l'autre; mais on sera libre d'y laisser présenter des candidats qui n'auront pas fait toutes leurs études en France, ou qui, les ayant faites, n'auront pas jugé utile d'acquérir les diplomes précédemment mentionnés.

Ce doctorat s'appellera *doctorat universitaire*, pour le distinguer par un nom spécial Il ne donnera pas, comme l'autre, le droit d'exercer des fonctions en France. Mais les universités ont intérêt à ce que le niveau scientifique n'en soit pas abaissé. Le Conseil Supérieur de l'Instruction Publique est d'ailleurs chargé de veiller à ce qu'il garde sa valeur. Les étudiants français, comme étrangers, pourront l'acquérir.

Vous voyez, mon cher Collègue, que le principal obstacle que vous me signaliez vient d'être levé. Il ne nous reste maintenant qu'à souhaiter de voir les étudiants américains user de la faculté qui leur est donnée. Je n'ai pas besoin d'ajouter qu'on leur fera bon accueil. Droit, médecine, sciences, lettres, tous nos cours leur sont ouverts

Veuillez agréer, je vous prie, l'assurance de mes sentiments bien dévoués. MICHEL BRÉAL,
Président de la branche française du Comité Franco-américain.

A NEW PARTY AND A NEW NAME.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I cannot at all take the view of Mr. Whitman in your issue of August 19 as to a new name for the much-needed new party. In the first place, it is still practically true that the newly-formed Republican party of '54 took a new name; for though the word Republican had been used more than once in American politics, having been borne, though with declining emphasis, by the Democratic party since 1792, and again adopted as "National Republican" by the protective wing of that party in 1828, to give way, however, in 1833 to the name Whig, yet in 1854 it was forgotten, and so virtually a new name. It is safe to say that not one in fifty of the new generation of voters had ever thought of or known the slavery party as anything but the "Democratic" party, and this in spite of the fact that its posters still bore, above the symbol of the sledge-bearing arm of the workman, the legend, "Democratic-Republican." The fight for years had been between *Whig* and *Democrat*, and when the former proved unequal to the struggle in the cause of liberty, a new movement, *with a new name*, was born, to rally to it the nobler elements of both the old parties.

So to-day we want not only a new party, but a new name for it, as earnest that it *is* a new party. We are done with both the old parties, twin Lucifers in their common infidelity to the trusts confided to them and to the splendor of their sometime record. "A plague on both your houses!" we would cry with the devoted souls of '54. The name *Democratic* has been as much polluted for any present use in the new cause as the name *Republican*. Give us a new name! Shall it be Commonwealth party, or the People's party, or the National party, or shall it be a name struck out by some happy accident or inspiration to recall and signalize the common honor and the common benefit to which both the old parties have grown callous? Time will decide, but give us, we pray, not only a new party, but *a new name* for it.—Respectfully yours, C.

Gouverneur, N. Y., August 27, 1897.

Notes.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s fall announcements include the tenth and concluding part of the late Prof. Child's 'English and Scottish Popular Ballads,' put to press by Prof. G. L. Kittredge; 'Old Virginia, and her Neighbors,' in two volumes, closing with Washington's first appearance in history, by John Fiske, whose 'Critical Period of American History (1783-1789)' is to be reissued with rational illustrations; 'The Westward Movement: The Struggle for the Trans-Alleghany Region, 1763-1797,' by Justin Winsor, fully mapped; 'Colonial Mobile,' an historical study, by Peter J. Hamilton; 'France under Louis XV.,' by James Breck Perkins; a Life of Mrs. Stowe, by Mrs. James T. Fields; 'The Life and Times of Edward Bass, First Bishop of Massachusetts (1726-1803),' by Daniel D. Addison; 'A Correspondence between John Sterling and Ralph Waldo Emerson,' edited by Edward Waldo Emerson; 'Hawthorne's First Diary,' edited by Samuel T. Pickard; 'A Dictionary of American Authors,' by Oscar Fay Adams; 'The Memorial to Robert Gould Shaw: Its Inception, Completion, and Unveiling'; a second series of Victor Hugo's Letters, edited by Paul Meurice; 'Gleanings in Buddha-Fields,' by Lafcadio Hearn; 'Gondola Days,' by F. Hopkinson Smith, with his own illustrations; 'Tuscan Songs,' by Esther Frances Alexander, with 108 photogravure copies of the peculiar illustrations from the pencil of the translator; 'The Ruins and Excavations of Ancient Rome,' by Rodolfo Lanciani; 'An Evolutionist's Theology,' by Lyman Abbott, D.D.; 'Nineteenth-Century Questions,' by the late James Freeman Clarke, D.D.; 'Inequality and Progress,' by George Harris, D.D.; 'The Story of Jesus Christ: An Interpretation,' by Elizabeth Phelps Ward; 'Varia,' by Agnes Repplier; 'Talks on the Study of Literature,' by Prof. Arlo Bates; 'Nature's Diary,' a year-book compiled by Francis H. Allen; 'Birds of Village and Field,' by Florence S. Merriam; Burns's Complete Poetical Works, Cambridge (one-volume) edition; 'Poems Now First Collected,' by Edmund Clarence Stedman; 'The Story of an Untold Love,' by Paul Leicester Ford; 'Aaron in the Wildwoods,' by Joel Chandler Harris; 'King Arthur and the Table Round,' from the French of Chrétien de Troyes, by W. W. Newell; the third supplement (vol. iv.) to 'Poole's Index to Periodical Literature'; together with a popular edition of C. P. Cranch's blank-verse translation of Virgil's 'Aeneid,' illustrated editions of Longfellow's 'Evangeline,' Thoreau's 'Walden,' and Charles Dudley Warner's 'Being a Boy.'

Henry Holt & Co. will bring out 'The Federalist,' edited by Paul Leicester Ford; 'The Italians of To-day,' by René Bazin, translated by William Marchant; 'Journey through France,' by H. Taine, and a new four-volume edition of his 'English Literature,' with portraits; 'An Introduction to American Literature,' by Henry S. Pancoast; 'The Non-Religion of the Future,' from the French of M. Guyau; 'The Evolution of the Idea of God,' by Grant Allen; 'The Evolution of the Aryan,' by Rudolph von Ihering; 'An Outline Introductory to Kant's Critique of the Pure Reason,' by Prof. R. M. Wenley of the University of Michigan; and 'Selections from Matthew Arnold's Prose,' by Lewis E. Gates of Harvard.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. will publish Baron Coubertin's 'Evolution of France under the Third Republic,' translated by Miss Hapgood; the sixth volume of Sybel's 'Founding of the German Empire'; 'Gen. Grant's Letters to a Friend,' edited by Gen. J. G. Wilson; and 'Ballads of Yankee Land,' by William Edward Penney.

A revised and enlarged edition of Nathan Haskell Dole's variorum edition of the 'Rubáiyat of Omar Khayyám,' is in the press of L. C. Page & Co., Boston. Original drawings by E. H. Garrett and other illustrations will form a part of the novelty.

Roberts Bros. will have ready in October 'The Quest of Happiness,' by the late Philip Gilbert Hamerton; and will also soon bring out a translation, by Prof. E. S. Grosvenor of Amherst, of Theodore Xenos's historical novel, 'Androniké, the Heroine of the Greek Revolution.'

The New Amsterdam Book Co. promise '"The Sixties" (1855-1870),' by Gleeson White, with numerous illustrations in etching, etc., after leading English artists of the period; 'The Actor's Art,' a symposium edited by J. A. Hammerton; 'Women Novelists of Queen Victoria's Reign'; 'Papers by Charles Dickens,' now first collected by Frederic G. Kitton; and 'An Irregular Corps in Matabele Land,' by Lieut.-Col. Plumer.

Palmer & Co., Chicago, and E. R. Herrick & Co., New York, issue jointly 'The Old House, and Other Poems and Sketches,' by Grace Duffie Boylan.

'Famous Problems of Elementary Geometry,' from the German of F. Klein by Profs. W. W. Beman and D. E. Smith, is announced by Ginn & Co.

Gen. Edward McCrady of Charleston has completed the first volume of a History of South Carolina, which he will publish if assured a sufficient number of subscriptions. This volume will end with the overthrow of the Proprietors' Rule in 1719.

Without being an enemy to books and their increase, we can but rejoice that the new budget of catalogues, 'The Publishers' Trade-List Annual for 1897,' requires an even smaller space on our shelves than the last which it displaces. We have noticed ere this, with some regret, that the bulkiness of their lists has constrained certain publishers to furnish for this purpose a *select* catalogue, and otherwise to condense. The invaluable Annual now completes its quarter-century.

The University Publishing Co., in their "Standard Literature Series" for schools, have undertaken abridgments of Swift, Scott, Cooper, Bulwer, and other novelists, and have made extracts, for the sake of Little Nell and Paul Dombey, from the works in which these characters occur. Messrs. Appleton have gone further, in the case of Dickens, and have condensed 'The Story of Oliver Twist' for their "Home Reading-Books," which are also designed for schools. We cannot deem this a service to the schools at least, which have enough to do to teach a pure English style, equally removed from colloquy and from slang. And would not a pupil fresh from the gutter, on seeing Cruikshank's designs of thieves and murderers, court scenes and vulgar kitchen scenes, here reproduced, think he had in hand the familiar literature of the slums?

The real interests of education have been considered in Johnson's Life of Pope, edited by Kate Stephens and published in good shape by Harper & Bros., and in the comely selection of 'Poems and Essays from the Writings of Ralph Waldo Emerson' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.).

Mr. Verner Z. Reed's 'Tales of the Sun-Land' (Continental Publishing Co.) is slovenly in style, and is noticeable only for its careful corroboration of the untrue and the absurd. There is room between circumstantial fiction and the pseudo-circumstantial. Mr. Reed's story of "Don" Francisco Casca comes dangerously near the latter; and it is not his only leaning that way. He declares that this wholly absurd tale is proved by "the records left by Vasquez de Coronado," and by a Spanish inscription in the cañon of the Colorado; that it is "a record wrested from that silent . . . desert land." This is overstepping license. Mr. Reed plainly knows as little of the records of "Castenada" (*sic*) as of the expedition and its leader. Nothing could be more unwittingly humorous than the sketch of Coronado—except Mr. Reed's general notions of Arizona geography, and his fundamental ignorance of character among the

Indians and Mexicans he pretends to picture. A few names and terms picked blindfold from some book or some camp-following Ute he unflinchingly naturalizes in every native vocabulary with which he has to do between Colorado and Yucatan; even as he puts Spanish (his version of Spanish) in the mouths of New Mexican tribes before Columbus. It is not so culpable that Mr. Reed knows nothing intrinsic of the Pueblos and their neighbors: he follows in the footsteps of more or less illustrious predecessors. But none who knew so little has matched his craft in seeming to know all. The illustration, by L. Maynard Dixon, is, despite some curious anachronisms, much the most creditable part of the book.

"The Duodecimos," faithful to their name, have preserved the form of their first venture ('Poor Richard's Almanack for 1733'), but have greatly increased the bulk in their second, 'The Poems of Anne Bradstreet' (1612-1672). The editing has been wise in that none of the early faulty editions has been slavishly followed, but the text has been modernized, so that if one now wishes for historical or other reasons to read the verse of the "Tenth Muse," it can be done with ease. The age of Mrs. Bradstreet produced, on this side of the water, nothing from the male sex in the way of poetry to make the Rev. Nathaniel Ward's doubts whether a woman could have written her pieces seem like flattery. Her learning, no doubt, counted for something in this astonishment. Moreover, she was to be the ancestress of the poets Dana and Holmes, and a kinswoman of Prof. Charles Eliot Norton, who furnishes a pious introduction of a very charming kind, and has lent one of the Dudley portraits for reproduction with the others that adorn this volume, including Gov. Bradstreet, Gov. Winthrop, John Cotton, Du Bartas (Mrs. Bradstreet's great model), etc. The book is beautifully manufactured in the prescribed edition of 144 copies.

The late volumes in the series "Pour les jeunes filles" (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.) are a singular contrast in the material offered to young girls. 'M. le Neveu,' by Jean Thierry, is bright and clear, with a determined action, and is written in very pretty French. The fresh young girl, Dilette, is much alive, and would be a healthy acquaintance for any one. We rather begrudge the title of the book to the excellent but dull "M. le Neveu." The other volume, 'Les Trois Filles de Pietor Waldorp,' is slow, uncertain in aim, and heavy and stilted in language. It can easily be put with another work of the same author, Jean Bertheroy, 'Le Double Joug,' which is one of the books to be put quickly in the fire. This, be it understood, is not in the same series—it is for quite a different audience; but how can readers be found for such writing? It has no purpose, and is excessively irritating because of the utter weakness of the characters.

With joy and relief one turns to 'Fédor: Pages de la Vie' (E. Flammarion), knowing that M. Alphonse Daudet will give us an artistic presentation of anything, however slight. And so it is, in spite of the somewhat lugubrious subjects of the collection. Leaving out one or two evidently put in to fill space, his lightness of touch, his charming language, his trained instinct in the selection of just the significant detail, make the sketches well worth reading. In 'Fédor' especially, the light of the happy domestic life and the shadow of former sin and its hideous consequences are pathetically contrasted, but nothing is forced. Such writing is like hearing the story told by a good talker.

Two years have now gone by since M. Massenet has given a new opera to the stage, but not on this account must it be imagined that the prolific composer has been idle. On the other hand, he has been very active, for it is reported that within the brief space he has completed three considerable operatic works, and, indefatigable, is now busy upon a fourth. The three operas already finished, "Sapho," "Cendrillon," "Grisélidis," will appear in succession at the Opéra Comique, where "Sapho" is already in rehearsal and its stage setting and decorations are being carefully prepared. It is anticipated that a striking effect will be produced in one of the scenes by a chorus of bicyclists. The *Débats* sees in this a shocking anachronism, since at the time when M. Daudet's romance was published, only the very high wheel was in use, and there were no women riders. But really such an anachronism as this is need disturb no one's peace. The subject of Daudet's book has been contemporaneous with many centuries, and seems likely enough to survive all the bicycle fashions.

The *American Antiquarian* has removed its seat of publication to Chicago (at No 5327 Madison Avenue).

Ginn & Co. have issued No. 1, for August, of the *Zoölogical Bulletin*, a companion serial to the *Journal of Morphology*, designed for shorter contributions, and with no illustrations beyond text figures. Bibliographical lists will not be attempted. The editors are C. O. Whitman and W. M. Wheeler.

The August number of the *Alumni Bulletin* of the University of Virginia is noticeable for the majority and minority reports of a committee appointed to consider the expediency of substituting for Jefferson's scheme of having the executive officer of the University a member of the Faculty a President in the usual fashion. In connection with this discussion should be read the communication from Prof. Edward S. Joynes in the same number. Of interest also is Mr. W. C. N. Randolph's account of the transfers of Monticello since Jefferson's death. After a varied fate of sale, confiscation during the civil war, and dilapidation, the place has been put in good order by the present owner, Mr. Jefferson M. Levy, who admits visitors without fee.

The *Geographical Journal* for August opens with a suggestive technical paper on suboceanic changes, by John Milne, F.R.S., the well-known authority on seismology. On the greater part of the ocean floor these changes are very slow, but on the steep slopes of submarine plateaus, at the mouths of great rivers, and at the exits of submarine rivers, they are great, sudden, and numerous. In Japan, for instance, which lies close to the edge of the "Tuscarora Deep," between 1885 and 1892 there were recorded 8,331 earthquakes, of which half originated beneath the sea. These are apparently due to slow geological movements, volcanic action, and landslips from overloading or basal crush. An account of explorations in the region west of Lake Nyasa includes a sketch of the history of the Ngoni, its dominant tribe. The desolating influence of slave-raiding here was shown in the discovery in an uninhabited district of numerous disused iron-smelting furnaces. The Astronomer Royal for Scotland, Prof. R. Copeland, contributes a revised map of Franz-Josef Land, with accompanying notes. An examination of the recent Russian census tables, by P. Kropotkin, shows that the centre of gravity of the population of European Russia has been shifted within the last fifty years southward. That is, the Baltic is losing more and more of its importance to Russia, and the Black and Caspian Seas are gaining in proportion. All the large cities, with the exception of St. Petersburg and Riga, are situated to the south of Moscow, and the Prince mentions nine towns, of from 91,000 to 170,000 inhabitants, which fifty years ago were "quite insignificant spots." They are either centres of a considerable trade or of some important branch of industry.

The article of greatest general interest in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, No. 6, is by the editor, Dr. Supan, on the Nansen expedition. After referring to some of its scientific results, he adds that it solved two other problems, that of an "eisfest" ship and of a "polarfest" man. That is, the *Fram* had demonstrated that the best shape and build to resist ice-pressure had been devised, and the equipment of her crew had been equally successful in enabling them to endure without injury the hardships of a polar region. Of these the monotony was probably hardest to bear, and Dr. Supan, calling attention to the signs of growing weariness and impatience shown in the leader's narrative and the captain's diary, suggests that the limit of their endurance had been nearly reached. If they had been out a fourth year, it is not impossible that their "Spannkraft," or power of resistance, would have completely broken down. This is an important consideration in view of Dr. Nansen's proposition for another expedition starting from Bering Straits, which should last five years. Other articles are the conclusion of Prof. Schuchardt's account of the South Caucasians, chiefly Georgians, who speak the Karthli language, and a note accompanying three colored maps showing the rainfall of northern Central America, a complement and correction in some places of Prof. M. W. Harrington's work on the Central American rainfall.

In the death of Frederick D. Stone, librarian of the Historical Society of Pennsylvania, the Society has experienced a severe loss. Mr. Stone was one of those able, modest, and hard-working students of American history who accumulate for the use of others, and his genial kindness led him to offer freely his great knowledge of history and biography, general and local, to all who sought information. Under his direction the Society's library has become one of the best historical libraries in the country, if not the best, and his many services will long be remembered by those who have had occasion to use the collections in his keeping. His broad policy has built up a great depository of manuscript and printed material of exceeding richness, and in beginning a systematic copying of the English records in London he has laid a lasting foundation for the study of history in the United States. Mr. Stone published little, but his laborious and painstaking 'Pennsylvania and the Federal Constitution' will stand as proof of his ability in compilation. His endeavor to make the Society's library a centre of research by generously giving access to its stores to any

one who could show an honest intention, has furnished a notable example of liberality of management which would alone suffice to cause him to be held in grateful remembrance.

— The second volume (new series) of the 'Register of the Members of St. Mary Magdalen College, Oxford' (Henry Frowde), contains an account of the Fellows admitted between 1522 and 1575. We are still but inadequately acquainted with the changes in academic life which accompanied the Reformation; and the editor, Mr. Macray, has done well to enrich the present volume with an interesting selection of extracts from the bursary account books and other college records. These enable us, among other things, to trace the rise and development of the Long Vacation; to observe some of the more visible results of the abolition of compulsory clerical celibacy, such as the construction in 1562 of a seat for the President's wife in the chapel near the chancel; and to realize the difficulties which the authorities found in enforcing any sort of decent uniformity among the Fellows in dress and behavior during the early years of Elizabeth. Among the scraps of curious information with which the volume abounds may be noticed the charitable practice of bestowing putrid fish and flesh upon prisoners; the establishment in 1535 of a Greek lectureship, so as to abolish "sophistry, Duns, and such-like stuff"; the regulation in 1555 that Fellows should not cut their hair after the manner of courtiers, nor wear beards; the command (addressed to a couple of Fellows who had shaved their heads in 1559, in derision of the tonsure) that they should wear night-caps until their hair had grown again; and the manumission of serfs, attached to various manors, as late as 1563. It must be confessed that the Fellows of this period were hardly a distinguished lot; perhaps the only man among them whose name is known to the present generation was Fox, the martyrologist. The complaints laid before the Visiter in 1584 (pp. 100-118) are worth comparing with the evidence given upon the visitation of the monasteries before the Dissolution. They show either that celibate clerics living a collegiate life had not improved in sexual morality, or else that they were just as uncharitably suspicious of one another.

—It is hard to say whether the translator of Aristotle's scientific writings ought to be primarily a Hellenist or a Scientist. Mr. W. Ogle, M.A., M.D., F.R.C.P., sometime fellow of Corpus Christi College, Oxford, and translator of Aristotle 'On the Parts of Animals,' appears to be a very fair Grecian. His scientific knowledge has enabled him to make an extremely interesting book of his new translation of the minor Aristotelian treatises on Youth and Old Age, Life and Death, and Respiration (Longmans). He deals with his somewhat corrupt text in a light-hearted way, interpolating, emending, transposing, expanding, and elucidating with more regard for the convenience of the modern reader and his own conception of what the meaning ought to be than for the requirements of strict philological method. Some of his interpolations and transpositions are obviously due to a misunderstanding of Aristotle's peculiar style and method of exposition. But they rarely destroy the general sense. In 477 b 12, καθ' αὐτὰ τὴν ἐπίσκεψιν εἴληφεν means: "I have discussed the subject elsewhere," not, "[Empedocles] made unsupported assertions." Especially interesting is the Introduction, which, after a lucid account of the Aristotelian and other early theories of respiration, traces down to our day the history of the gradual discovery of the true functions of the heart and lungs and the part played by the oxidization of the blood in the vital economy. The Aristotelian doctrine that respiration is a refrigeration which preserves the vital heat from flaming itself away, died hard. Savants were found to defend it even after it was known that animals can live in an atmosphere possessing a temperature higher than that of the blood, and after Boyle had shown experimentally that the death of an animal confined in a limited amount of unrenewed air is not delayed by chilling the air. The lesson of this interesting chapter from the history of science is identical with the text from which Pasteur once preached to the "literary fellows" of the French Academy—the fundamental distinction between experiment and mere observation. Every distinct advance in the understanding of the subject was brought about by the appeal to some Baconian "experiment of the crossways." Speculation and mere observation were alike impotent.

— The Civil Court at Paris, before which the Goncourt will case was tried, announced its decision on August 8. This sustains the will of M. Edmond de Goncourt in every particular, rather against the expectation of the lawyers. The judges seem to have been moved more by the principle of giving great weight to the known wishes of a testator—"potius ut valeant quam ut pereant," as they quote—than by legal technicalities. The wishes of no testator could possibly be more clear than those of M. Edmond de Goncourt were; and in view of this fact the court did not hesitate to pass over the objections that were made as to the uncertain date of the will and as to the vagueness of some of its provisions. As soon as the decision was made known the newspaper reporters naturally flocked at once about M. Alphonse Daudet, who had not very much information to give them. He did not, he said, wish to be more prominent in the new Academy than any other member. It was his intention to propose that the Academy should have no President nor head of any sort. As soon as it could be conveniently managed, he meant to propose a meeting of his colleagues, probably at some rustic cabaret, where they could breakfast together and talk matters over in the most informal fashion, "les coudes sur la table." At this first reunion will probably be elected the two members whom the Academy still lacks to make up the number of ten that Goncourt prescribed. As to who these will be, Daudet had, of course, nothing to say. The names of Rodenbach, of Paul Alexis, of Descaves, had been mentioned, and others besides, but the choice lay with the Academy, and not with him. Their first care would be the foundation of the Goncourt prize for the best book of each year, written in prose. The 5,000 francs for this is of the nature of a first charge upon the estate. No writer who is a candidate for any prize of the French Academy will be permitted to compete for this. As to the question of the *traitements* coming to the Academicians, that is a question which will be considered later. It is Daudet's hope that the reunions of the Académie Goncourt may come to be known as the "Goncourt dinners," for he does not like the word "Academy"—"c'est bien gros, bien officiel, bien solennel." The amount of the Goncourt bequest, all sales made, is reckoned to be somewhat more than 1,300,000 francs. The Academicians designated by Goncourt himself are Alphonse Daudet, Léon Hennique, Huysmans, the two brothers J. H. Rosny, Gustave Geffroy, Paul Margueritte, and Octave Mirbeau.

—The ascent of Mount St. Elias, which was accomplished by Prince Louis of Savoy and his associates on the 31st of July last, apart from its simple success, is remarkable for the methodical and convincing manner in which it was executed, and fully demonstrates the special adaptability of the Swiss and Italian mountaineers for this class of work. That a mountain rising the better part of half a mile above the summit of Mont Blanc, and in a region where the snow-line descends to within 2,000 to 3,000 feet of the sea-level, or even lower, should have been ascended in a first effort, is evidence of surprising advances that have been made of late years in mountaineering craft. Although by no means rising to the height of the Karakoram Himalayas (Pioneer Peak, some 23,000 feet), whose conquest was the brilliant achievement of Mr. (now Sir) William Conway, or of Aconcagua, which was scaled for the first time in January of the present year by the Swiss guide (also Conway's associate) Zurbriggen, or even of the Ibi Gamin, upwards of 22,000 feet, the ascent of which was made by the Schlagintweit brothers nearly a half century ago, Mt. St. Elias has in its prodigiously extended snow-mantle, and in the hazardous approach to it over the backs of gigantic and greatly rifted glaciers, certain elements associated with it which have been thought to render the mountain one of the most difficult to climb of any on the surface of the earth. But few attempts in this direction have heretofore been made; that of July, 1891, when Prof. Israel Russell reached an elevation, perhaps somewhat indefinitely determined, of 14,000 feet, being the most noteworthy. The American expedition of the present year, under command of Mr. Henry G. Bryant, Vice-President of the Geographical Society of Philadelphia, which preceded the party of Prince Louis by some two weeks, appears not to have reached an elevation exceeding 10,000 feet.

—The two facts of special significance to which the dispatches announcing Prince Louis's success call attention are: the determination of the mountain's altitude, and the demonstration that it is not of volcanic origin, but simply a mass of elevated and partially upturned sedimentary strata, largely fossiliferous in character. The altitude, as computed by the mercurial barometer, is 18,060 feet, a result surprisingly in accord with the determination, by angle measurement, of Prof. Russell, who obtained "18,100, plus or minus a probable error of 100 feet." Earlier measurements of the mountain ranged from less than 13,000 feet (La Pérouse, in 1786) to approximately 19,500 feet (Dall, 1874). It is probably safe to accept the present measurement, which places St. Elias—barring a possible excess in favor of the neighboring Mount Logan—as the second mountain in point of elevation on the North American continent, the place of honor belonging to the Citlaltepetl, the

Star Mountain—better known as the Peak of Orizaba—of Mexico, to which the determinations of Heilprin (1890, aneroid), Scovell (1891, triangulation), and Kaska (1897, mercurial barometer) give 18,2(3)00 feet. The non-volcanic nature of Mount St. Elias had already virtually been determined by Prof. Russell, but it will be a satisfaction to geologists to know that Prince Louis's studies of the mountain for the 4,000 feet left untouched by Russell confirm this investigator's general conclusions.

— Families in search of the best opportunities for art-study for daughters, or women seeking such opportunities for themselves, are no longer rare; and as intelligent and reliable information is often difficult to obtain, we call attention to two pertinent articles in the July and August numbers of *Wege und Ziele* (Stuttgart: Schelosky), a new monthly edited by Agnes Willms-Wildermuth, a daughter of Ottilie Wildermuth. The articles signed "Corvina" are by Fräulein Raabe, daughter of the well-known novelist Wilhelm Raabe ("Corvinus"), who has herself for some years been pursuing art-studies at Munich. She writes of the facilities open to women in that city from the standpoint of a professional artist, for those who feel capable of becoming such. First of all, she warns against illusions. Nobody can become an artist in two or three years; seven or eight years of earnest study and hard work are required, at least half of which is to be given to drawing, the rest to painting. Then she emphasizes the matter of health, which we prefer to do in the words of Becker-Gundahl, who, the other day, told an American girl among his pupils: "The talent is there; the perseverance is there, too; but it takes the constitution of a bear." Miss Raabe also discusses at some length the financial question, and the best ways of living at Munich; but for all these details we must refer the reader to the articles mentioned. Of the various ways of obtaining instruction, also, we have space to name only the one combining the most advantages, viz., the school of the Künstlerinnenverein (89 Türkenstrasse, opposite the Academy). At this institution the students receive two or three weekly "corrections" from the best teachers, besides profiting by those given to their fellow-students, at an expense much less than that incurred in private studios. About two hundred women have joined the various classes this year. The state gives its aid to the new school to the modest amount of 20,000 marks a year—one-tenth of the annual grant to the Academy for men. The work of students exhibited last spring won the praise even of critics who confessedly had to overcome their prejudice against students' exhibitions, and especially against female students.

EVELYN BARING, LORD CROMER.

Lord Cromer: A Biography. By H. D. Traill. Illustrated. Edward Arnold. 8vo, pp. 350.

Lord Cromer, the distinguished representative of English power in Egypt, is still living and in the prime of life. His biography, therefore, reminds us of the "campaign lives" of our aspirants to office; yet with a difference. We are used to cheap editions for universal circulation, badly printed, on poor paper, and the matter apt to be as cheap as the price. This is a fine octavo, beautifully printed on heavy paper, with portraits and scenes in photogravure and half-tone. It is plain that the appeal is to a select class of readers. This is no effort to introduce an unknown man to general popular favor. It is an analysis of the career of a man who has made his mark in a long course of years, spent mostly in subordinate though important public service. If it has a political motive (and it is not unfair to suppose it has), we must regard it as intended to show that the man who has won distinction enough in great administrative and diplomatic functions to satisfy ordinary ambition, is pointed out by natural selection for still more responsible posts, possibly a place in the cabinet or a viceroyalty.

The book is addressed, on this supposition, to the most thoughtful reading class of his countrymen, and to those, the world over, who are interested in the highest problems of statesmanship. It hints that one who from his youth has devoted himself to the public service, has in that service proved his fitness for the highest confidence of his party friends and the greatest responsibilities a statesman can be called to. The ambition is an honorable one, and the personal history which the book reveals is a good illustration of some of the advantages of a trained and permanent civil service.

Hitherto, Lord Cromer's work has been non-partisan. The rules and customs of the English Government have demanded this. He has served Liberal administrations and Conservative ones; his private political opinions being no barrier to equally faithful subordination to Gladstone or to Salisbury. This book, however, is plainly meant for the eye of the Conservative Unionists, now in power. It tells them that, if Lord Cromer passes from non-partisan diplomatic work into party leadership, it will be as a Conservative. It labors to show that his own opinions have never been in full accord with those of Liberal statesmen, and emphasizes such differences as could be found when hereditary connections and personal action both marked him as a Liberal in the suite of his cousin Lord Northbrook in India. From our side of the ocean, this looks like the weak point in the book. The schism in the Liberal ranks over Home Rule makes a new starting-point in British politics, and we doubt if any member of such a coalition as is now in power gains anything by abating a jot of the liberalism he professed when following Gladstone.

The Barings were types of the business class which has been the strength of English liberalism. As bankers and promoters of great enterprises, they long led in that commercial activity which has been the soul of British prosperity and the pride of the progressive statesmen of the Empire. Prominence in the commercial world and in finance carried the first Lord Ashburton into the House of Peers, where, in the next generation, two more of the descendants of the first Sir Francis appeared with the titles of Northbrook and Revelstoke, and in 1892 Lord Cromer made the fourth of his family who reached the peerage. Evelyn Baring seemed, in his youth, to have chosen a line of life at the antipodes of that for which the family was noted. He prepared for military service, and entered the army as an artillerist. After fifteen years of uneventful army life, he accepted the position of private secretary to his kinsman Lord Northbrook, Viceroy of India, and with the transfer to the civil service what may seem a hereditary tendency revived, for he gave himself up to the study of financial administration, in which he first won distinction.

In 1876 he was made English Commissioner of the Egyptian debt, when an international control by European nations sought to bring system and solvency into Egyptian finance, bankrupted by the recklessness of Ismail Pasha. Here his clear business sense, his firmness, probity, and thrift soon proved his capacity and led logically to his future career. In 1880 he was promoted to the position of Finance Minister in India, where his reputation grew; and when, in 1883, English occupation of Egypt followed the downfall of Arabi Pasha, he was knighted and appointed Consul-General at Cairo, with the rank of Minister Plenipotentiary in the diplomatic service. Since that day his importance has grown with the growth of English power in the Nile valley, for he has been in a peculiar sense the organ of England's tightening grasp on the country, and of the exercise of its real government in the name of the obedient Khedive.

Sir Evelyn Baring's return to Egypt was practically coincident with the destruction of General Hicks and his army by the fanatical hordes of the new Mahdi. It was a startling crisis. Whether the disaster was due to the worthlessness of the Egyptian army or to the reckless courage of the Mahdi's followers, or (as the event proved) to both, the Liberal Government of England had to face a most perplexing problem. It had disavowed the purpose of extending the Empire, and was committed to the withdrawal from Egypt as soon as order and safe government could be solidly restored. Its leaders had condemned the Khedive's occupation of the Sudan, both upon principle and on policy. A power which could hardly stand alone was in no condition to make conquests fifteen hundred miles away, or to administer the conquered country. The English ministry was bound to consider the question as one to be solved on the basis of the Khedive's policy and power, assuming that he would soon be restored to the complete government of his dominions. It was not at all the question what would be British policy if Egypt and the Sudan had been dependencies like India.

In the presence of European jealousies and the probability that war would follow any attempt to extend the temporary occupation into annexation, there was no radical difference between English parties. Their disputes were on matters of detail. As soon as it was known that Hicks and his army were destroyed, Baring called together Gens. Stephenson, Wood, and Baker, the most competent military advisers within reach, and took their opinion. It was unanimous that Egypt had not the force to hold the Sudan, and that it was necessary to withdraw the garrisons and fall back from Khartum upon Egypt proper. In this opinion Baring explicitly concurred, and it was also adopted as the policy of the English Government. When, then, Lord Cromer's biographer seeks to create the impression that he was only acquiescing in the resolve of his Government "to wash their hands of the Sudan," an impartial reader will feel that it shows more partisanship than candor. Baring had given it as his "own opinion" that it was "wiser" to "withdraw to whatever point on the Nile they can be sure of

defending." This policy may fairly be said to have been accepted *nem. con.* Remaining questions would be simply of time and method.

When Gen. Gordon was appointed and sent to Khartum, it was to carry out this policy; and he seems to have been confident that he could do it, gaining time by his personal influence in the Sudan and with the Mahdi himself, "who is nephew to my old guide in Darfur, who was a very good fellow." On reaching Khartum, however, the gravity of the situation dawned rapidly on Gordon. He found that instead of a small storm centre of fanaticism, a strange religious epidemic was sweeping the whole Mohammedan population into a wild crusade, if we may apply a Christian term to this upheaval of African Islam. But instead of seeing that this only made it more imperative to organize everything rapidly for his retreat, his combative ardor took flame, and he began to cry out that the "Mahdi must be smashed up," and that evacuation would be an "indelible disgrace." Instead of doing the duty of a military subordinate to make a success of a plan arranged with his own approval, he assumed the functions of the ministry and planned to hold Khartum and force the Government to sustain him there. His genius, his heroism, and his tragic end cannot change this fact.

In the essentials of all this, Baring was wholly in accord with his Government, and the Government was right: right not only from the point of view statesmen then occupied, but right when all the knowledge after the fact is weighed. For Europe, for Egypt, for the Sudan itself, it was better that that wild region should be left for a dozen years to "stew in its own juice." It was better to let the Mahdi's power ripen and decay. It was wiser and better use of the time to make Egypt solvent and thrifty; to reorganize its army so that it be fit to meet the fierce hordes of which the fellaheen were afraid in 1883; to watch carefully the progress of European influences in other parts of the dark continent, and to resume a vigorous policy when the time was ripe. The event has equally justified Baring's original opinion that it was wiser to withdraw in '84, and Gen. Kitchener's recent advance to Dongola, also approved by Lord Cromer. It seems from this distance, therefore, the mere wantonness of partisanship for the biographer to rail at the Gladstone ministry, and to say that, to it, "no advice about Egypt commended or could commend itself unless in some form or other it spelt 'scuttle.'" The history, reasonably read, would make Lord Cromer a statesman whose clear judgment and wise forecast were powerful in both parts of a great policy. The biographer, to make him out a Conservative partisan, rakes the subordinate and immaterial details to prove that he was not in harmony with what the event has shown to be sound and wise.

The truth is, that the real strength of England's position is found in the general confidence of Europe that the occupation of Egypt was really an unwelcome necessity, and that its liberal statesmen were honestly anxious to terminate it as soon as it could be safely done. It was this that made the obstructiveness and jealousy of France seem unreasonable, and disjointed French schemes to create embarrassment. It was better than any craftily planned opportunism, for it has been followed by all the advantages of such plans while it had the merit of being sincere. To have put large bodies of English troops into Egypt in '84 would have been understood to mean conquest and annexation, and would have stimulated the antagonism of every rival Power in the world. As matters actually went, there was abroad a half-amused satisfaction at seeing the British Government wrestling with what seemed likely to prove an insoluble problem. Lord Cromer's best claim to statesmanship is that, being heartily in accord with his Government, he strongly grasped the conditions of the problem, laid the foundation of success in fostering, not exploiting, the resources of the country; in honest thrift in financial expenditure; in thorough and steady elevation of the efficiency of the army; and in absolute firmness in the principle that these reforms must be real, and not superficial shams.

The Mahdi's career and that of his successor proved more important than was expected, and it was not till Slatin Bey made his escape and told the wonderful story of his captivity that we could fully understand what had happened. He has taught us how the cloud like a man's hand grew till it became a tempest. The rumors of a great revival were received in Darfur first with languid curiosity, then with deep but vague interest. The hopes that were excited were such as appealed to the strongest sentiments of Mohammedans with their traditions of sweeping conquests over the Christian dogs. Spies sent for information caught the contagion and came back zealots for the Mahdi. The virus spread everywhere; the soldiers were infected, and even before it was known that Khartum had fallen, there was no authority which could stand against the popular wave. There had been months when Slatin Bey might have taken part in a concentric retreat out of Darfur upon Dongola; but promptness in the evacuation had been a necessary condition of success. After the fall of Khartum and the death of Gordon, there was nothing for it but to recognize the truth that a new and powerful empire had been born at the head-waters of the Nile, and, though it might be short-lived, it would be madness to attack it without first regenerating Egypt.

The task was no small one and demanded all the practical sense, steady judgment, inflexible will, and unflinching courage which have given the English race its power over less civilized nations. To have been a brilliant type of these national qualities, and to have been fully up to the demands of his great task, is very high praise for Lord Cromer, but it seems to be deserved. His dominant will has often seemed tyrannical to the Khedive and his native ministers, but this was one of the necessities of the situation. The principle was correctly stated by Lord Granville at the start, "that in important questions where the administration and safety of Egypt are at stake, it is indispensable that her Majesty's Government should, so long as the provisional occupation of the country by English troops continues, be assured that the advice which, after full consideration of the views of the Egyptian Government they may feel it their duty to tender to the Khedive, should be followed." This is only the diplomatic form of saying that responsibility for safety implies dictation of the means. It was the misfortune of the Khedive and his Egyptian advisers that they must accept subordination. It was the embarrassing part of Lord Cromer's duty that he had to be the mouthpiece and the right arm of his Government in a dictation which could not fail at times to be chafing. That no worse charge than "brusqueness" has been made against him, is pretty good evidence of the good temper and consideration with which he has performed his task.

The results for the Egyptian people have been such as every generous mind must glory in. If Ismail, Tewfik, and Abbas have passed from the list of rulers of men into that of nominal dignitaries only, the history of three generations and the wrongs of the fellaheen show that only justice has been done. It will be a sad day for Egypt if power shall return to her old rulers before the reforms so well begun shall be rooted so deep that no Khedive can undo them. What more telling proof of this could be imagined than that the son of a prominent supporter of Arabi Pasha, the man who wrecked a great career in what he thought a patriotic effort to throw off the foreign dominion, should now be among the most emphatic witnesses to the good England has wrought for the Egyptian people?

Friends of good government everywhere will readily admit that Lord Cromer has well earned his advancement in his country's service, and that he may fairly aspire to still higher and more responsible duties, if indeed such can be found. They may wish that his biographer had not sought to narrow into party lines a career that might otherwise seem to be "meant for mankind"; but this is only a minor blemish in the lesson we may learn of the true methods by which a practical and business-like civil service educates men for a great career.

FARNELL'S CULTS OF THE GREEK STATES.

The Cults of the Greek States. By L. R. Farnell. Longmans.

The gods of Greece are, for literature and art, self-renewing ideal types, remaining, "in midst of other woe," to teach the lesson, "Beauty is truth, truth beauty." To the scientific student of origins they are among the most perplexing of problems. What is the relation of the Diana of the Louvre to the mysterious goddess, half-fish, half-woman, whose image, fastened by a chain, was worshipped at Phigalia in a temple surrounded by cypresses and opened only once in a year? Why were young Athenian girls required to don imitation bearskins and dance fantastic rounds in honor of the "queen and huntress chaste and fair" of the Hippolytus? How shall we associate the face of the Ludovisi Hera with her who hid herself from Zeus in a pet on Mount Cithæron, and was brought back in a fit of jealous rage by his mock marriage with a wooden puppet? How did the cone-shaped column of Apollo Aguieus become the Apollo Belvedere? What have the "Zeus Shoo-fly" (ἀπόμυιος) of Olympia and the Arcadian Zeus of the wolf clan and the cannibal rite —what have these grotesque or hideous imaginations to do with the Zeus of the choruses of the "Agamemnon" and the "Antigone"? We are all familiar with the answers to these problems devised by ingenious men: The Greek gods are the colored refraction of the white ray of an original monotheistic tradition. They are the pro-

ducts of a disease of language—*numina* born of *nomina*—a misunderstanding of highly figurative talk about the weather. They are allegorical embodiments of early philosophical speculations. They are the ghosts of dead ancestors haunting the dreams of prehistoric man. They are mere survivals of primitive animism, fetishism, totemism, or plant worship.

The vigorous and rigorous application of any one of these theories to the interpretation of all the phenomena is a delightful pastime for ingenious and erudite minds; but in time we weary of the game. Pallas Athene may conceivably have been the queen of the air, the lightning bursting through the storm-cloud, the dawn leaping from the forehead of the sky, or the ideal reflection of Athenian life and character. She is not demonstrably any one of them. Our minds are baffled by a science which proves to be a kind of Baconian cryptogram for expressing everything through everything. The horse is the familiar of Agni because he is swift and fire is swift. He goes with Aphrodite because he is the corn spirit and she is the genius of vegetation, and accompanies Neptune because waves are horses of the sea. Aphrodite is Venus Marina because of "a social necessity of early maritime commerce in the Mediterranean"; or, if you prefer, because she is the sun, and sunset and sunrise are of peculiar beauty on Greek waters. Deference to the erudition of our teachers makes us accept a certain amount of this logic with docility; but, sooner or later, we are driven to open revolt, it may be by some such argument as Roscher's proof that Hera must be the moon because she is called "large-eyed," and Æschylus and Pindar speak of the moon as the "eye of night."

To this mood Mr. Farnell's sober and scholarly volumes on the cults of the Greek States will be very welcome. The title indicates a method rather than a limitation. The author rightly deems it essential to distinguish between the "embroidery" of the poets and the religious epithets and conceptions actually attested for the public worship of the Greeks. But he has neglected nothing in the literary record of serious significance for the illustration of Greek religion, and his chapters on Zeus, Hera, Athena, Artemis, and Aphrodite are virtually monographs that in completeness and accuracy will bear comparison with the best chapters in Welcker or Preller, or the fullest articles in Roscher's Lexicon. What distinguishes his method from theirs is that, instead of assuming in his first paragraph a root or fundamental conception of a god to be followed through all the ramifications of tradition, he begins with a plain statement of the earliest discoverable traces of the cult in Greece. When, as usually happens, the evidence does not justify dogmatic affirmation as to etymologies and origins, Mr. Farnell makes this plain by destructive criticism of the more prominent German theories, and then passes on to enumerate, as nearly as may be in historic sequence, the chief local cults and trace their development. Finally, the religious and ideal significance of the deity as revealed in the literature is brought out. Especially interesting here are the last twenty pages of the chapter on Zeus, dealing with the conceptions of Nemesis and Fate, and the tendency of the religion of Zeus towards monotheism. In each case separate chapters, excellently illustrated by beautiful plates, are devoted first to the surviving cult monuments, and, second, to the chief ideal types of the divinity in Greek art. Last, but by no means least, the author gives us for each god a full systematic citation of the Greek sources, extending in the case of Zeus to some forty pages of Greek text.

Detailed criticism of this mass of material is beyond our scope. Mr. Farnell has faithfully studied the German authorities; but he writes in a spirit of reaction against philological and meteorological mythology. The authors whom he quotes with most respect are Robertson Smith, Frazer, Mannhardt, and Andrew Lang. He rarely resorts to etymology or nature symbolism in the explanation of a myth; solar mythology must relinquish Zeus, he tells us. We have no right to say that the name Demeter means Mother Earth. The Titanomachy has no meaning as a myth of thunder and lightning; it is more probably a vague reminiscence of the conflict of religions in the Greek world. The sacred marriage of Zeus and Hera never symbolized the bridal of the earth and sky. The dark ægis which Athena wore and which Zeus brandished over the perjured Trojans, is not the storm-cloud, but the hide of the theanthropic goat. These are hard sayings. It is doubtless true, as a matter of method, that the study of cults, survivals, folk lore, and the psychology of primitive man will carry us further in the interpretation of mythology than the direct application of our sophisticated nature symbolism. But such a generality avails little in particular cases. Each one of the competing theories represents doubtless a *vera causa*, but none may be safely used as a *passepartout*. And when we recall that Mr. Frazer succeeded in convincing himself that Zeus (the Shining) is not the bright sky, but a tree god, the bright fire having originally come from the friction of wood; and when Mr. Farnell, after showing that Aphrodite is a divinity of vegetation because Adonis is the boar and the boar is the corn spirit, meets the objection that the horse also is sacred to Aphrodite by the rejoinder that "the horse is one of the most common embodiments of the corn spirit"—we begin to suspect that, when the trick is once known, the corn spirit may prove as easy to work as the dawn or the twilight.

In the uncertainty of the etymologies of proper names the problem of the comparative mythologist is what that of the comparative philologist would become were it not for the guidance of exact phonetic law. He is required to determine the actual historical association of ideas among many conflicting possible or plausible associations. The plurality of causes and the defectiveness of the record forbid dogmatism in the majority of instances. The early imagination may have had intuitions of identities and analogies in nature, for which we have lost the feeling, and the "lively Grecian in a land of hills" may have personified such apprehensions in deities whose attributes seem disparate and unrelated to our duller sense until an artist, such as Mr. Pater shows himself in his Study of Dionysus, restores us to imaginative sympathy with the creators of the myth.

But, again, the incongruous attribute or rite may be due to contamination with other deities, brought about by migration, commerce, or conquest; it may be a reflection of the developing life of the worshippers, or of the struggle for existence of competing religions; it may be a survival, a popular etymology, or an accidental accretion from the general stock of savage folk lore. The ideal of science would be to take a developed divinity with all his epithets, attributes, ritual, legends, and associated religious sentiment, and show in what precise intuition or wild fancy of the primitive mind he took his origin, and by what definite process of development all these accretions attached to the original germ. Possibly some future scholar endowed with the *ondoyant* and *divers* genius of a Pater or a Renan will be able to construct for us a credible history of how the thing might have come to be, that shall retain its typical value independently of the validity of the special hypotheses employed as scaffolding. In default of such a work of genius, we must heartily commend the good sense and restraint of Mr. Farnell, despite the "dryness and coldness of tone" to which he deprecatingly refers in his preface. His book will doubtless exercise a steadying and sobering effect on English scholarship. Mr. Pater would hardly have affirmed so confidently that mythological science tells us that Nike is the victory of the dawn over the darkness, had he been permitted to read Mr. Farnell's lucid account of the relations between Nike and Athena. But so ceaseless is the intellectual activity of our day that a book has hardly left the press before it in turn is antiquated in some regards; and Mr. Farnell himself would have qualified his assertion that Nike is a mere emanation of Athena, if he had waited to study Usener's epoch-making treatment of transparent divinities, or Sondergötter, in the 'Griechische Götternamen.'

Mr. Farnell will have ample opportunity to review the whole question in his promised chapter on Abstract Divinities. We do not see how he can expect to finish his work in one more volume with Apollo Dionysus, Ares, Hephaistos, Hestia, Demeter, and a host of minor deities yet to be treated. But we wish him all success, and hope soon to congratulate him on the completion of what bids fair to be the standard English authority on his subject.

The Romance of Isabel Lady Burton: The Story of her Life, told in part by Herself, and in part by W. H. Wilkins. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Not long after Lady Burton had finished her Life of her husband, she set to work with her usual energy on her autobiography. This was hardly more than begun at the time of her death, so the task had to be completed, with the help of her papers, by another hand, at less length, but perhaps quite as well. Shortly before it was done Miss Stisted's 'The True Life of Capt. Sir Richard Burton' (reviewed in these columns) appeared with its severe criticisms of certain of her actions. Her biographer took up the challenge and in the main answers the charges satisfactorily. At any rate, the public has now not only the well-known story of one of the most extraordinary men of his age, but also two views of his private life, of his relations with his wife, and of the causes of his many disappointments. Still, with this evidence before us, it is not easy to come to definite conclusions on several points.

Isabel Lady Burton, *née* Arundell of War-

dour, was born on March 20, 1831. Her family belonged to the old and exclusive Catholic nobility of England; and to the end of her days we find, among her strongest traits, pride of birth, which, together with her pride in her husband, gave her an exalted idea of her position that she was prone to assert, and a fervent Catholicism never for an instant affected by the free-thinking of the man she worshipped and for whose conversion she unceasingly prayed. Her childhood was uneventful, albeit filled with dreams of an adventurous life that were probably not stranger than those of many another young girl who has afterwards led a humdrum existence. However, the tale of her courtship, engagement, and marriage is romantic enough, even if we make allowance for a little heightening of color in the narration. We may, too, readily admit that she set her cap for Burton, as Miss Stisted declares, without judging that she did anything uncommon or blameworthy. She merely fell in love first, as was natural, considering her age, his attainments and reputation (which made him like the hero of her dreams), and an accidental prophecy of a gypsy of a sort to excite a girl's imagination; but she does not seem to have put herself too much forward. Hardly were they married when he had to accept a consulship at Fernando Po, where no white woman could live, so that the couple were not together for any length of time until he was transferred to Santos in Brazil. Here they began their curious system of housekeeping, whose most striking characteristic was its continual interruptions, owing to their incurable love of wandering.

Burton was restlessness itself, a born traveller and explorer, who was ever happiest when undertaking some difficult expedition, his iron constitution enabling him to endure climates and fatigues that would have killed most men. His wife also must have had great vitality, spirit of adventure, courage, energy, and determination, besides blind devotion to the slightest wish of her lord and master. In many ways she suited him as few women could have done, sharing his tastes, and falling in uncomplainingly with his strange ways (Heaven knows what would have happened to their children if they had had any), and even, we can see, doing violence to her own nature. He could not have had a more untiringly faithful companion, and her business ability helped to make possible their lavish style of living. On the other hand, without repeating the accusation that she was stupid, we cannot help feeling that in certain respects she was obtuse, that a certain narrow and straight-mindedness in her make-up prevented her from wholly understanding her brilliant, wayward husband. If, as an author, she not infrequently makes her readers smile or rasps on their nerves, she must more than once have been a grievous trial to such a sensitive man as Burton, till he learned to bear it with his usual philosophy. We suspect that the last quality she possessed was tact, and we are forced to condemn severely her want of taste, as shown in certain passages which her biographer would have done well to omit, though a failing of this kind can hardly have troubled the translator of the 'Arabian Nights.' With all her unselfish devotion Lady Burton cannot have been of a retiring disposition; few people less so. We cannot agree that in her Life of her husband she "studiously avoided putting herself forward." The book gives rather the opposite impression.

The busiest and happiest period in the career of this strange pair was the two years in Damascus, where all their characteristics stand out clearly on a congenial background. Miss Stisted accuses Lady (then Mrs.) Burton of being the chief cause of her husband's recall. Mrs. Wilkins answers victoriously in a whole chapter, in which, though she does not entirely clear her of unwise conduct in regard to the Shazli Christian converts, she proves conclusively that Burton, however well suited to live in the East, was not fitted to have any sort of diplomatic appointment there—an opinion that seems to have been firmly held by the British Foreign Office (which had suspected as much before) from this time on, whichever party was in power, in spite of kindly personal feelings, at least on the part of Lord Salisbury. Burton was far from being a "safe" man, so for eighteen years he was quietly housed in Trieste, where he could not easily get into trouble, and where he was given and took an astonishing amount of leave of absence.

We will not enter into the details of the death-bed controversy, but merely say that we acquit Lady Burton of any but the best motives in having administered extreme unction to her husband, pagan though he had always been. She was, perhaps, fanatical and mistaken; very possibly he was already dead, but she believed that he still lived, that she had his authorization, and that she was saving his eternal soul. Even if we disagree with her, it is difficult to judge her harshly. So, too, in her burning of the 'Scented Garden.' Not only the translation itself, but Burton's commentary, was undoubtedly nasty, to use a plain adjective. It could do no good to any one except to his wife, to whom it would bring money. Without going into his character and motives, or into the thorny question of what is permissible in literature or in semi-scientific writing, we cannot but admire the courage of the woman who, at a great pecuniary sacrifice to herself, and at a sacrifice of her obedience to her dead husband's wishes that were hardly less than a religion to her, burned this, his latest work, because she thought it would injure his good fame. It is precisely this heroism in her nature that forces us to overlook her obvious deficiencies.

In conclusion, we note that, though Lady Burton's loose style is at times irritating, and though she gives the most trivial events the prominence of important ones, she holds our attention. Mrs. Wilkins, also, has, on the whole, done her share with judgment and success, so that we have a book which is interesting for more than one reason. Some of the illustrations are neither beautiful nor appropriate.

Sequel to 'Our Liberal Movement.' By Joseph Henry Allen, late Lecturer on Ecclesiastical History. Boston: Roberts Brothers. Pp. 157.

It is true, as Dr. Johnson said, that "few people who have lived with a man know what to remark about him," but Dr. Allen is one of the few who are gifted with such knowledge. It is almost entirely of men whom he has known that he writes in this small volume, and he writes of them with the rarest sympathy and discrimination. He has an eye for character, for individuality, and if sometimes we miss foibles and limitations, or wish that a hint of them given here and there had been more expanded, it is not that he was blind to any of these things, but that he prefers to recognize and exhibit what was most significant and what constituted the value of this one or that for his generation and his friends. Some of the sketches, like those of Dr. Thomas Hill and Frederick Newman Knapp, are the more interesting and valuable because dealing with men too little appreciated in proportion to their worth. In fact, one of the most attractive features of Dr. Allen's mind is the very tender feeling that he has for men of native force and genius who, from some defect in their quality or some untoward circumstance, are disqualified from doing what they seem to promise at the start.

The first chapter in Dr. Allen's book reproduces an address before the Harvard Divinity School in 1896. Delightful to those who heard it in the little chapel where Emerson gave his famous address of 1838, it is hardly less so to read, especially for those who, reading leisurely, blend their own recollections of Andrews Norton, Henry Ware, jr., Convers Francis, John G. Palfrey, and others with Dr. Allen's. It is a sign of how fast we go that Dr. Noyes was threatened in 1834 with indictment for blasphemy for questioning the New Testament fulfilment of the Old Testament prophecies. That the School was not in those times wholly reactionary is shown by the fact that Dr. Noyes was made a professor in the School close on the heels of that event. And Mr. Norton, notwithstanding his attack on Emerson's "Address," as "The Latest Form of Infidelity," published in 1844 a "Note on the Old Testament" which was the thin edge of the wedge of what we call the Higher Criticism at the century's end. We miss in Dr. Allen's account of Dr. Noyes the personal note which is elsewhere so prominent; and, possibly, its absence means that when Dr. Allen was in the School, Dr. Noyes was not that object of personal affection which he became later on.

In a second chapter Dr. Allen attempts to indicate the nature and extent of the German influence upon Unitarian thought. The stress at the German end is upon Schleiermacher and Paulus and Baur; at this end on Parker, Hedge, Clarke, Furness, and (too slightly) Ripley. The limitations of this excellent chapter are an inadequate appreciation of the second-hand German influence of Coleridge and Carlyle, and the direct influence of Strauss, whose criticism of supernaturalist and naturalistic interpretations was quite independent of his mythical theory, the essence of which, however, is the life and soul of a great deal of the best criticism of the present time. It is, perhaps worth remarking that Dr. Furness, whose naturalism made him seem a Paulus whom the gods had made poetical, disavowed any debt to Paulus whatsoever.

"Forty Years Later" is an admirable comparison between the liberal movement as it was in Dr. Allen's youth and it is in his hale and invincible old age. His chapter upon Dr. Hedge is the most expansive of all the sketches in the book. He succeeded Dr. Hedge as minister of the Bangor parish, and was his intimate companion in the closing decades of his life. Philosophically they

were far apart—Dr. Hedge a metaphysician, Dr. Allen scientific and positivist; and, by the way, one of the few Americans who enjoyed a personal acquaintance with Auguste Comte. But Dr. Allen could not have been more appreciative of his friends if they had been chips from the same metaphysical block.

In chapter v. we have "Some Younger Memories" of a dozen men more or less loosely affiliated with the Unitarian body. Among them are James Freeman Clarke, William G. Eliot of St. Louis, Thomas Starr King, Samuel Longfellow, O. B. Frothingham. Of all these and the others, Dr. Allen writes as he knew them, plucking out the heart of what was most essential in their characters and aims. One name conspicuously absent is that of Samuel Johnson, a man equally remarkable for his philosophical ability and for his moral passion in the anti-slavery conflict. It is only because Johnson was not one of Dr. Allen's familiar friends that he is wanting in the list. The *Nation's* older readers especially will be gratified by the simple and affecting tribute to Dr. Allen's brother, the late Prof. William Francis Allen of the University of Wisconsin.

Any complete list of Unitarian worthies would include Dr. Allen's own name, and not the least pleasant feature of his book is its casual reflection of his own character and life. He is so fond of reminiscence and so apt at characterization that he should have given us a book four times as big as this, full of his recollections of the men whom he has known and the systems of great hope and promise that have had their day and ceased to be.

A Treatise on Rocks, Rock-Weathering, and Soils. By George P. Merrill. Macmillan. 1897. Pp. xx-411. Ill.

Prof. Merrill, already well known through his 'Stones for Building and Decoration,' and various monographs issued by the United States Geological Survey, has done a real service in preparing a work whose chief aim is to review fully and concisely the agents of rock-weathering, a subject which until now has been treated only in a fragmentary manner. By way of introduction—for the work is written as much for the general reader as for the scientist—a brief account of rocks offers the most logical presentation of the leading facts in lithology which has yet been published. Microscopic petrography has led to such a fine discrimination, and has encouraged so much variety in nomenclature and classification, that a host of students can sympathize with that facetious Western mining engineer who recently published the following rule for identifying rocks: "Ascertain the two or three predominant minerals in your specimen; select from the lithologies all those names of rocks containing the minerals found; put these in a hat; shake them up, and draw one." The tendency has been steadily towards classification on the basis of chemical composition, but the matter of origin and structure has persistently embarrassed our lithological taxonomists. Prof. Merrill has gone one step farther. His major divisions are necessarily genetic, yielding igneous, aqueous æolian, and metamorphic rocks. The principle of origins controls the subdivisions of the aqueous into chemical, sedimentary, and organogenous groups, while structure forms the basis of division among the metamorphic. The igneous rocks, however, are classified absolutely upon a chemical basis, and thus we have the resemblances between granites, liparites, and quartz-porphyries not only distinctly recognized, but made the bond of union into a single group, called the Granite-Liparite Group, representing the extreme types of the plutonic and effusive rocks of like composition. In the same manner the Syenite-Trachyte, Diorite-Andesite, Gabbro-Basalt, and other groups are derived. The simplicity and beauty of this classification as compared with the old systems are obvious. Attention should also be called to Prof. Merrill's brief little list of only thirty original rock-forming minerals (or fifty-one, including the varieties of the feldspars, amphiboles, etc.), and of twenty-two secondary minerals, all of which the student should be taught to recognize under whatsoever conditions they may be met with.

The term *weathering* is used in this work in its more limited sense, as restricted to "processes involving the destruction of the rock mass as a geological body," while Prof. Merrill prefers "to designate the purely mineralogical, deeper-seated changes as *alteration*, which may or may not be due wholly to hydrometamorphism." This limitation of the treatise is unfortunate. By reason of it one misses a completeness in the discussion, for it is not easy to draw a line, save in a few cases, between the regions where these two classes of changes are separately in progress, and there are such close interrelations between the superficially acting forces and those in the zones of the vadose circulation (which might popularly be termed "fountain water") and the deeper-seated plutonic circulation, that it is hardly proper to draw the line sharply between their effects. The weakness of such an attempt is shown by constant recurrence throughout the book to the processes of mineral alteration which are involved in weathering, and Prof. Merrill is particularly emphatic in his statement (p. 388) that—

"The ultimate product of weathering of rocks of any but the purely siliceous type is a more or less ferruginous clay, which may be contaminated or admixed with coarser foreign particles. It is the extent of decomposition, more than its lithological derivation, that determines both the chemical composition and physical characteristics of any soil."

We cannot but wish that the author had taken under consideration the whole broad question of the destructive agencies which are changing the rock ribs of mother earth. It is not enough to say that one results in secondary formations, the other in destruction, degradation. The results of superficial weathering and erosion are, after all, but secondary products, the accidental circumstance of transportation making but little difference in this view. Furthermore, the deeper-seated changes, and the relations these may bear to superficial conditions, are of great economic as well as geologic importance. It is to be hoped that Prof. Merrill will make good the deficiency in this book by giving us its natural counterpart.

The subject-matter in his discussion of weathering is familiar to all close students of geological phenomena. The advantage here is that a vast fund of information is epitomized and rendered conveniently accessible. A classification, in tabular form, of corroso-erosive agencies would, however, have been valuable as a chart from which the general reader might get his bearings occasionally amid the sea of facts. This is not saying that there is any lack of orderly arrangement, for it would seem that classification is one of the author's strong points. He deserves congratulation also for the introduction of a new term which is useful and will doubtless be readily accepted by geologists. For the "most superficial and unconsolidated portion of the earth's crust," various names have been suggested, such as geest, saprolite, etc., but none seems to cover the case so well as Prof. Merrill's "regolith," from ῥῆγος, a blanket, and λίθος, a stone. From this he proceeds to discuss the sedentary and transported regolithic deposits, with their proper varieties, classified on a genetic basis.

The author's style is pleasant and easy. The book is typographically very neat and elegant. The plates and figures are abundant, and truly elucidate the text. It is to be regretted that the proof-reading has not been executed with scrupulous accuracy, and that the index is deficient in the number of references and in correctness. But these errors are not so important as seriously to impair the value of this work, which should be in the hands of every person interested in lithology, geology, or physical geography.

Social England. By H. D. Traill. Vol. VI. Putnams.

This sixth and last volume of the coöperative history edited by Mr. Traill, covering the period from the battle of Waterloo to the general election of 1885, is characterized by the same merits and defects as its predecessors. There is the same abundance of instructive papers on—to quote the title-page—"the progress of the people in religion, laws, learning, arts, industry, commerce, science, literature, and manners"; they are of every variety of workmanship, from the sober and stodgy collection of facts to the brilliant essay; they proceed both from the recognized authority on his own subject and from the handy man-of-all-work. Among those most interesting to the general reader may be mentioned the editor's own essays on literature (marred somewhat by the repetition of pet phrases, such as "root of the matter" and "flux and reflux"), and those of Mr. Hughes on painting, of Canon Bonney on geology, of Mr. Prothero on agriculture, of Mr. Farrer on railroads, of Prof. Montague on legal procedure, of Miss Morris on decorative art, and of Miss Bateson on costume and social usage. The amount of distinctly inferior hack work is much less in this than in some of the previous volumes; a special effort has been made to secure an adequate treatment of physical science; and the few concluding pages on the colonies (probably an afterthought, but an excellent one) are well conceived and to the point.

On the other hand, there is the same want of proportion. Perhaps we are apt to assign too much influence to ecclesiastical organization and formulated theology in social life; yet, from any point of view, one would find it hard to justify an apportionment of space which gives almost as much room to Pottery as to the Church. And, to descend to details, we are justified in feeling cross with

an editor who can give only eight words to Clough, and yet allow a contributor to occupy valuable space with the statement that a certain Cambridge scholar, of by no means the first order of importance, "won the recognition of an honorary degree at Edinburgh"! The absence of unity, of architectonic arrangement, of guiding principles in the selection and display of facts, is even more glaringly apparent now that the undertaking has reached its conclusion. Each chapter begins with a brief sketch of political history. In what relation is it supposed to stand to the "social" progress next set forth? We are left to make it out for ourselves. The last two chapters are decorated with the titles, "The Rule of the Middle Class, 1846-1865" and "The Succession of the Democracy, 1865-1885"; no attempt is made to justify these epithets. There are separate sections on "The Social Economy"; but these sometimes repeat what other writers have said before, and sometimes restrict themselves to a part of the field.

The book is essentially a publisher's book, manufactured to sell, appealing to the prevalent interest in everything "social," but without any steady or consistent conception of its own scope and purpose. Such a work may be of great use in the popularization of knowledge, and may contain pages here and there that will be valuable even to the competent student of particular subjects, and yet the whole book will be unsatisfactory and chaotic.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Claretie, Jules. The Crime of the Boulevard. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.

Copinger, Prof. W. A. The Bible and its Transmission: Being an Historical and Bibliographical View of the Hebrew and Greek Texts, and the Greek, Latin, and other Versions of the Bible (both MS. and Printed) prior to the Reformation. London: Henry Sotheran & Co.; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

Dawson, M. M. Principles of Insurance Legislation. New York: Humboldt Library.

Ebers, Georg. Barbara Blomberg: A Historical Romance. 2 vols. Appletons.

Horton, George. Aphrôessa: a Legend of Argolis, and Other Poems. London: T. Fisher Unwin.

Johnston, Sir H. H. British Central Africa. Edward Arnold. $10.

Macarthur, Henry. Realism and Romance, and Other Essays. Edinburgh: R. W. Hunter.

Macray, W. D. A Register of the Members of St. Mary Magdalen College, Oxford. Vol II. London and New York: Henry Frowde.

Millais, John Guille. British Deer and their Horns. London: Henry Sotheran & Co.; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

Peabody, Josephine P. Old Greek Stories Told Anew. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15c.

Quigley, Dorothy. Success is for You. E. P. Dutton & Co.

Skene, A. J. C. True to Themselves. F. T. Neely. 50c.

Van Bergen, R. The Story of Japan. American Book Co. $1.

Williams, R. P. Elements of Chemistry. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.25.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 9, 1897.

The Week.

The National Democrats of Pennsylvania have not proved equal to their opportunity. Their State committee held a meeting at Philadelphia on Thursday, and decided, by a vote of 17 to 10, not to nominate a ticket for the November election. They denounced in vigorous terms the platform adopted by the Bryanized Democracy at their recent State convention, and "deplored its action in again fastening upon the Democratic organization the exploded heresies of Populism, cheap money, and repudiation"—action "especially unwise and unpatriotic at this time, in that it thrusts into the State campaign an issue that should have no place in this contest." But this excellent preamble was followed by the illogical conclusion that it would be "inexpedient" for the Sound-Money Democrats to nominate a ticket of their own, because "the issues in Pennsylvania this fall are local and not national, and offer no fit occasion for the discussion of questions of federal policy." Theoretically, of course, the issues are local in a State election, but the Bryanite Democracy have "thrust into the State campaign" a national issue, and have reaffirmed the Chicago platform as their chief article of faith. No Sound-Money Democrat can vote the Bryan ticket or the Quay ticket, and it is an equally short-sighted and cowardly policy which refuses to nominate candidates worthy of support.

A welcome contrast with this disappointing action on the part of the National Democrats of Pennsylvania is the course adopted by their brethren in Iowa. They have not only nominated a full ticket of first-class candidates, but they have already started a vigorous campaign for it. Headquarters have been opened at Des Moines, and the whole State will be organized with a view to getting out a large vote. Judge Cliggitt, who heads the ticket as candidate for Governor, delivered his first speech at Davenport on Wednesday week, and he will be supported on the stump not only by some of the best political orators in the State, but also by ex-Congressman Bynum of Indiana, chairman of the National Democratic committee, ex-Congressman Patterson of Tennessee, and, it is hoped, in at least one speech, by ex-Secretary Carlisle. This is the sort of spirit that is needed in our politics, and the action of these Sound-Money Democrats of Iowa renders the more pitiable the weakness of the Pennsylvanians.

Although the recent State convention of the Virginia Democrats apparently indicated that Bryanism had swept everything before it in the party, there is evidence of a strong undercurrent of opposition. Gov. O'Ferrall, who refused to support Bryan last year, declares his belief that there are 40,000 Democrats in Virginia who stood with him in this attitude, and says that he is informed that in the recent convention there were many delegates who were anxious to leave out of the platform the national issues which divided the party in the Presidential campaign, but the leaders, "crazed with temporary power," would not consent. For his own part, he announces that he will not support the platform adopted at Roanoke a few weeks ago, nor will he support Bryan in 1900, if nominated on a platform which reaffirms the Chicago declarations of 1896. It requires courage for a Democrat to take such a stand as this in Virginia, but such leadership is inspiring and must rally followers.

Chairman Dingley's newspaper, the Lewiston *Journal*, offers an entirely new explanation of the discriminating duty on foreign goods transported to this country by Canadian railroads—the clause which Speaker Reed says "slipped in." Mr. Dingley's paper says that in the first place certain words were stricken out of the bill by the Senate, and the change thus made imposed a surtax of 10 per cent. on all foreign goods brought into the United States by the ships of foreign countries, unless those countries have treaties with us which would be infringed thereby. After this was done, the Lewiston *Journal* says:

> "The other amendment, it now seems, was adopted by the conferees simply to prevent an evasion of the section by the landing of foreign merchandise in Canada by vessels not entitled to equal privileges in our ports, then shipping it to the United States. It was not intended or understood to affect the bonding privilege under which foreign merchandise can be continuously shipped and forwarded through Canada."

It is somewhat astonishing that this simple explanation should have been so long delayed, and that it should be at variance with all the others that have been offered by the persons most nearly concerned. It is strange, too, that Senator Chandler did not run against it in the course of his investigations. Strangest of all is the story current in Wall Street, during the past month, that the Canadian Pacific Railroad people got wind of this clause before it was put into the bill, and made strenuous efforts at Washington to defeat it, but were unable to do so. If, as the Lewiston *Journal* says, there had been no purpose to abolish the bonding privilege as to goods carried through Canada, it would have been easy to change the wording of the clause so as to preserve that privilege and yet accomplish what Mr. Dingley's paper says was the real object. That real object, by the way, was itself a swindle, being an attempt to reverse the commercial policy of the United States in an important particular surreptitiously, without the knowledge of the country or of Congress itself.

We learn from the office of the Collector of the Port of New York that, in practice, works of art, the production of American artists residing abroad, are free of duty on importation into this country. A misunderstanding has arisen from what the Collector's office admits is the "faulty punctuation" of paragraph 703 of the Dingley bill. That paragraph was apparently intended to be an exact reproduction of paragraph 686 of the Wilson bill; but the introduction of a comma made the phrase "imported expressly for presentation" apply to all the works of art mentioned, instead of simply to "pictorial paintings on glass." Nevertheless, the department has ruled that the same construction is to be put upon the Dingley clause as upon the corresponding Wilson clause. The result is that the "productions of American artists are still admitted free of duty when accompanied by a properly authenticated certificate in conformity with regulations prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury." We take the more pleasure in exposing the erroneous reading of the law, inasmuch as the official interpretation diminishes by so much the iniquity of the Dingley tax on art.

A few days ago, the Treasury published its estimate of the amount and kinds of money circulating in the United States September 1. This estimate showed a heavy increase over this month in 1896—an increase of no less than $126,500,000. But of this increase, $56,000,000 was in gold brought from foreign countries in settlement of last year's heavy exports, and $47,000,000 was in United States notes paid out by reason of the Treasury deficit. Moreover, the total circulation, with all the increase of the year, made poor comparison with other previous years. The Treasury's estimate for the above date reckoned $1,665,680,098 for the aggregate circulating medium; on February 1, 1894, the total amounted to $1,739,783,511. Yet every one remembers what sort of trade activity accompanied the enormous money supply of 1894. The simple truth of the matter is that our heavy trade, during the current year, has supplied through the normal channels

of exchange its own requisite circulating medium. If the supply were now deficient, we should witness enormous receipts of gold from Europe, such as the $175,000,000 net importations of 1879, 1880, and 1881. On the other hand, the large supply in 1894, instead of stimulating trade, suppressed and paralyzed it; the avenues of circulation were choked; there was an overflow, of course, and the overflow involved a net shipment of $108,000,000 of gold to Europe in the next two years. There is no more perfect demonstration in commercial history of the fact that abundant money supply cannot create prosperity, but that, on the contrary, prosperity commands sufficient circulating medium from the world's reserves.

The notice given by the Secretary of State for India that the sale of bills of exchange on Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras will be suspended for not less than ten weeks, is not calculated to make Senator Wolcott's smile more cheerful. The action taken is, perhaps, sufficiently explained by the fact that "war, pestilence, and famine" have exhausted the Indian treasury, so that it has nothing to draw against. Nevertheless, the suspension of the issue of bills will tend to raise the rate of exchange and to increase the value of the rupee, which may not improbably attain to "parity," that is, 16d. This would establish the gold standard temporarily if not permanently. The prospect of opening the Indian mints to the free coinage of silver is, at all events, not improved by the present action of the Government. Something was to be done for silver in October; so much our silver embassy had secured. But ten weeks carries us beyond October, and the price of silver is falling every day. If anything is to be done for it, 'twere well 'twere done quickly. The task of reëstablishing bimetallism is far more difficult than it has ever been before.

Although the Gallingers of the Senate and the Grosvenors of the House continue to rail against the merit system and to threaten its overthrow, it is clear enough that they will get precious little support. The reply of Gallinger's colleague to a question as to the attitude of the Republican party toward civil-service reform shows the hopelessness of any attempt to undo what has been done. Mr. Chandler says that "of course a civil-service system is a part of the principles of the party," and "should be loyally supported by all Republicans," but that there is a question as to what is a "fair and just" system. For his own part, he believes in the existing system as regards all clerical employees, but would not extend it downward to the lowest workman or upward so far as to include many high officials now covered by it; but he admits that "much controversy might arise over these reservations," and he is too busy discussing other questions to bother over this one. The New Hampshire Senator has here given away the whole case of the spoilsmen. Congress could never formulate a law specifying what employees should be in the classified service and what out of it; and, in the absence of such action by the legislative department, the question must be settled by the executive—as it has been. What Arthur and Cleveland and Harrison and Cleveland again and McKinley have thus done by executive order will stand.

The Populists have been making a "howl" against injunctions, and demanding that the practice of granting them shall be stopped. But the Kansas members of that party have found that recourse to an injunction was the only means of speedily ending what they considered an abuse, and they have consequently applied for one without exhibiting the slightest sense of shame. The railroads recently changed their rates for transporting cattle, putting out a new tariff which charged by the pound instead of by the carload, with the result of making the shippers pay considerably more than before. The change was made just when shipments were becoming heaviest, and the effect of the new schedule in a short time would be great. The Railroad Commissioners undid the work of the railroads, or assumed to do so, for it is a disputed point whether the board has the power to make rates. The railroads proposed to fight the issue out in the courts, and in the meanwhile charge the higher tariff. If the Populists had lived up to their principles on the subject of injunctions, weeks would have passed before the matter would have been settled, or a special session of the Legislature might have needed to be called. But they summarily abandoned their old position, applied to a county judge for an injunction, which was granted, and are now "pointing with pride" to the service which they have rendered the people by repudiating their own platform.

Another Legislature has passed an act which proves to be null and void, and which any reasonably intelligent lawmaker ought to have found out must be such. The last body which assembled at the capital of Iowa passed a bill that imposed a tax upon the premium income of European insurance companies greater than the tax imposed upon the premium income of American companies. The obvious duty of the committee to which this proposition was referred was to make an investigation, and discover whether or not there are any agreements between the United States and European nations which would render an attempt at such discrimination nugatory. Inquiry would have shown that there are treaties which have precisely this effect, but apparently none of the Iowa legislators took the trouble to look the matter up. The result is that the Minister of Switzerland at Washington has called the attention of the Secretary of State to the fact that the Iowa statute would operate to the disadvantage of Swiss insurance companies doing business in that State, and that such discrimination is forbidden by an article of the Treaty of 1850 between the United States and Switzerland, which provides that "no higher impost, under whatever name, shall be exacted from the citizens of one of the two countries residing or established in the other country in which they reside, nor any contribution whatever to which the latter shall not be liable." Secretary Sherman in turn calls the attention of the Governor of Iowa to this provision, and the legislators are thus notified of the failure of their scheme.

The usual attempt on the part of the State Tax Commissioners to make the city of New York pay a greater share of the State taxes than the city assessments justify, has this year been resisted with rather unusual spirit. Mr. Heermance, one of the State Tax Commissioners, announced that the people "up the State" did not think that New York was taxed enough, and he proposed to "equalize" things by raising the valuations here. The city Tax Commissioners, however, showed pretty clearly that valuations here ought not to be raised. It was formerly the tradition that real property here was to be assessed at two-thirds of its market value. Recently, however, assessments have been raised and taxes increased, while much property has during the hard times been less productive of rent than formerly. It is probable that real estate is now assessed more nearly at its actual value, measured by its revenue-producing power, than ever before. Very competent experts were produced who testified emphatically that Mr. Heermance's claim that New York city assessments were too low was untrue. Against this evidence Mr. Heermance had nothing to offer except current reports and general impressions. What should be established to prove his claim is that country assessments are higher than those of the city. As President Barker of the city Tax Commission says, the contrary is notoriously true. The truth is, that it is excessively difficult to assess property fairly, and even more so to equalize unfair assessments on the scale undertaken by the State Tax Commission. The best solution of the difficulty would seem to be to levy State taxes on municipal incomes. It is possible to ascertain very nearly the revenue of every town and city, and a State tax proportioned to

this revenue would be as equitable as any tax can be.

The most noteworthy feature of the outbreak of yellow fever at Ocean Springs, Miss., one of the summer resorts on the Gulf Coast, is the slight disturbance of the public mind which such an announcement now causes, compared with the wild dismay that was produced by news of this sort until comparatively recent times. The measures which are nowadays taken to prevent the spread of the disease, under a quarantine system which is more efficient than ever before, reduce to a minimum the danger of its cutting a wide swath, and, in connection with the advance of medical science in treating the epidemic, render impossible such frightful experiences as the country had a century ago. The story of the yellow fever epidemic of 1793 in Philadelphia, then the political and commercial metropolis of the nation, seems almost incredible. The disease appeared about the middle of August, and soon half of all the houses were deserted, while a full fifth of the 20,000 inhabitants who remained, mostly because of their poverty, died, whole families being swept away. Banks, business houses, and even churches closed their doors, and "the grass grew waist-high in the streets."

The report of the legal adviser of the Spanish Government in this country on the subject of our relations with Cuba should be studied by all members of Congress. According to this report, our laws are sufficient to enable our Government to come up to the full measure of international duty which it required of Great Britain. That seems a rather uncomfortable reminder of the *Alabama* affair. The report continues to the effect that the recognition of Cuban belligerency would materially increase our responsibility for the damage that might result from any filibustering expeditions originating here. It is added that, while citizens of the United States may sell munitions of war to whomsoever they please, any attempt to transport such goods to the Cuban insurgents constitutes an illegal military enterprise which it is the duty of our Government to suppress. There is nothing in this report which members of Congress ought not to know already, and the sincere sympathizers with the Cuban insurgents should inform the public just what lawful steps they are prepared to take. They cannot properly ask their fellow-citizens to support measures which will greatly increase our responsibilities without helping the Cuban cause a particle.

The news from Hawaii indicates that the annexation faction is much perturbed. Minister Hatch brought information from the United States which caused the Government to call at once an extra session of the Senate. It is supposed that this extra session is called for the purpose of ratifying the treaty of annexation, and it certainly looks as if no time should be lost. There are reports of a grand anti-annexation mass-meeting of natives, to be held on the arrival of Senators Morgan and Quay, and such a demonstration might be extremely awkward. The Americans numbering only 3 or 4 per cent. of the population, they would find it embarrassing to insist on annexation in fact of the declared opposition of the mass of the population. These miserable natives are to be marshalled by the "money-power," personified in Claus Spreckels, to the number of fifteen or twenty thousand, to protest publicly against annexation, and to send a monster petition to the United States. The degraded creatures will allow themselves to be used in this way because they will look on the mass-meeting as a "picnic," and for the further reason that they do not want to be annexed. But if the treaty is once ratified by the Senate of Hawaii, the protest of the natives could be disregarded. They could be told that their Government had made an irrevocable decision, and that there was nothing to do but submit. Yet we should be pleased to have the projected mass-meeting take place, even after the annexationists have ratified their treaty. Mr. Spreckels's motives may not be altruistic, but his "picnic" would be on many accounts an impressive event.

The great strike of the workmen in Lord Penrhyn's quarries in Wales has ended. How it has ended is something about which different assertions have been made. According to the Radical journals the men have won a complete victory. According to other, and apparently more accurate authorities, Lord Penrhyn has carried his point. At all events, the evidence now at hand, in the shape of the agreement of settlement, shows that the terms are almost identical with those offered by Lord Penrhyn last May and then refused by the quarrymen. They stood out, not for the right to combine, which was not denied them, but for the principle that a permanent body should be chosen to represent the workmen, and that the claims of individuals should be presented or not, according to the decision of this body. This principle Lord Penrhyn, acting, in our view, in the interest of the liberty of his men, refused to acknowledge, and he has made no change in his position. He is willing, as he was before, to have the managers of the works receive deputations representing the whole body of workmen, or deputations representing any class of them, or aggrieved individuals, and to allow appeals to himself from the decisions of the managers. These conditions were rejected by the men last May, but the conditions now accepted by them are different only in trifling details. What concession they have now obtained they might have obtained in May, or, for that matter, in September of last year, when the strike began.

The real question was the same as that raised in this country when the Knights of Labor first took the field. The Welsh strikers contended that Lord Penrhyn must treat them, not as individual men, but as a body politic speaking only through its constituted government. It is very well known that industrial operations cannot be successfully carried on where this system prevails. If the employer is responsible for the business, he must be free to discharge such employees as he finds incompetent or untrustworthy. Lord Penrhyn did not refuse to listen to complaints or to hear appeals, but he would not consent that a general committee of workmen should have the sole power to determine what his relations with his workmen should be. It is true that such a committee formerly existed, but when the present Lord Penrhyn undertook the management of the quarries he curbed its pretensions, and it was their renewal that brought on the strike. The present settlement appears to be perfectly reasonable. The men can combine as they please, and complain if they choose through the officers of their combinations. But men who prefer not to submit to the tyranny of trade unions are guaranteed protection, and need not depend upon the good graces of an arbitrary standing committee for the maintenance of their rights.

Russia may have meant her use of the word "alliance," at the meeting of Czar and President, to be taken in a Platonic and Pickwickian sense, but evidently France does not. The populace flamed with enthusiasm, with visions of revenge on Germany, the instant the telegraph announced that the sacred word "alliance" had been articulated; and the enthusiasm seems to have carried away the Prime Minister. Unless very sure of his position and certain of Russian approval, M. Méline has been guilty of a blazing indiscretion in the despatch he sent to residents of Lorraine, congratulating them on their glowing patriotism. Whatever their sentiments, they are in fact German subjects, and for the Prime Minister of France to encourage them in what is, practically and legally, a treasonable demonstration, is a serious business. Out of France, no one is likely to believe that the Czar, who gives frequent evidence of possessing a level head, committed himself to the support of France in a war expressly for the recovery of her lost provinces.

BETTER RAILROAD PROSPECTS.

It is twenty-five years and more since a number of Western States, in obedience to the popular demand, which came to be called the Granger movement, undertook to regulate, fix, and limit by statute the charges of railroad companies for the transportation of freight and passengers. Without attempting to rehearse a legal controversy long ago settled, it is enough to recall the fact that the right of the States to assume this function was stoutly contested by the railroads, as in violation of their chartered property rights, guaranteed under State or federal Constitution, that the battle was lost, and that a railroad era of unparalleled disaster opened.

All railroad managers and all owners of railway property foresaw trouble, for the decision of the Supreme Court in the case of Munn vs. Illinois was virtually an announcement that legislative bodies in whom no one had much confidence would have a controlling voice in determining what this form of property should yield to its owners; and though, as time went on, qualifications were introduced into this doctrine which robbed it of some of its terrors, the mere spectacle of roads constantly in litigation over the right to their earnings was not calculated to make people hopeful of the future, especially as the introduction of the new system was accompanied by loud denunciation of the owners of railway shares and bonds as extortioners and monopolists, who might be thankful if the public allowed them to get any income from their property at all.

But many other causes contributed to the depression. To say nothing of the frightful conflagrations which wrecked Boston and Chicago, or of the panic of 1873, or the currency troubles, we were then at the beginning of a period of continued and increasing agricultural depression that was to send down the prices of the great products on which the prosperity of the transportation system depends, and make the income derived from the service lower and lower. To cap the climax, so little were the conditions which the country was to be called upon to face understood that new railroad construction began in 1879 with great fury, new unproductive areas being continually added to existing properties, already overburdened with debt. The "boom" which came after the resumption of specie payments in that year, and when the effects of the panic of 1873 had died away, revived for a time the hopes of investors, but the temptation to expand the railway system resulted in gigantic speculation, and a depression set in which carried railway earnings down to a point hitherto undreamed of, and made investors wonder whether the time would not come when railway stocks would be absolutely worthless. Their alarm was heightened, too, by the increasing complexities of railway receiverships, foreclosures, and reorganizations—once, in the days of single short lines, simple enough, but now, in a period of "systems," leases, guarantees, debentures, and superimposed strata of mortgages, fairly baffling to the comprehension of the wayfaring man, who has a not unnatural suspicion of management under which there are steady declines, no gains, and occasionally a total loss. This era in the development of railway property came to a climax in the panic of 1893; the subsequent collapse, which reached its lowest point during the last Presidential campaign, left owners of railway property in a situation in which there seemed to be really little to fear or to hope.

When we consider that twenty-five years ago American railway stocks were considered all over the world as almost certain wealth, and that even fifteen years ago first-mortgage railway bonds considered perfectly secure, and yielding 6 per cent., were constantly to be had at par, the change to which, a few months since, we were trying to accustom ourselves, was certainly overwhelming, especially when we consider that it affected some eleven thousand millions of property, most of it owned by people dependent on the income for their support. And the case seemed to be really without remedy, for the only cure ever suggested to the unhappy investor under such circumstances is to sell out and invest in "bond and mortgage," a form of investment in which there is never any increase of capital, and always a decline in interest after a certain number of years.

And yet it is easy enough to see now that the end was near at hand and certain to come very soon. Railroad expansion had stopped, the agricultural depression had shown clear signs of coming to an end, the reorganizations were over, the effects of the panic of 1893 had worn off, and the long line of decisions, beginning with Munn vs. Illinois, had produced a theory of public railroad regulation under which the limits of State interference were seriously restricted; more than all, the constant decline in the rate of interest had reached a point at which it had become possible for railroads to reduce materially their fixed charges once for all, and in this work they were busily engaged.

It is now pretty generally admitted that the railway metamorphosis which has been such a weary and heart-breaking process, has brought a new day for the investor. There does not seem to be any doubt that, in the fulness of time, the era brought in by the Granger laws has ended and a new epoch begun. One reason for thinking so is that, with a total change in the conditions affecting the whole railway world, a repetition of what we have gone through is practically inconceivable. Assuming that other things remain as now, it requires neither a prophet nor the son of a prophet to see that it would be rather surprising if railway property did not regain once more something of its old status, and that the day might come again when it would be considered, as it was for so many years, a specially valuable form of investment.

In one respect it has an advantage which, twenty-five years ago, it would have seemed madness to hope for. Its management has become practically public. This great good the Granger movement did help to produce. There is no longer any secrecy left such as once surrounded railway property and earnings and accounts, and rendered possible the gigantic frauds of a generation since. Railroad accounts are not yet what bank accounts are, but they convey at least sufficient information to put the prudent man on his guard. A generation ago railroad dishonesty was a by-word. If this is not true to-day, it is mainly to the new system of publicity that we owe the change. As for ourselves, optimistic it may be, but we firmly believe that we stand on the threshold of a new railway period, full of wonders to be accomplished as great as any that have yet been seen, of returns on capital once more decent, and of prosperity far more secure than ever before, because based upon the lasting foundations of veracity, publicity, and low fixed charges.

MR. LOW'S CANDIDACY.

The experiment which is to be made in this city during the next two months is in many respects without a parallel in the political history of the country. It is something of far greater importance than even the election of a government for a new city of three millions of people, momentous as that alone would be. Mr. Low, in the brief statement in which he accepted the Citizens' Union nomination, said that he regarded the petition of over 100,000 voters as so imperative a mandate from the people that, as a patriot, he could not refuse to obey it unless he was prepared to discourage, even in local matters, all spontaneous movement by the people outside the limitations of party. He added that what had moved the people to this unprecedented expression was a desire to have the new city begin its career under officials who would make the welfare of the city, not the welfare of any party, their first concern. He thus touched upon the two aspects of his candidacy which constitute its great significance. He will stand more exclusively on the platform of non-partisan city government than any mayoralty candidate the city has ever had heretofore, and he will stand as a candidate of the people, rather than of the nominating machinery of any poli-

tical party. In fact, the people have been so earnest in their desire for good government that they have taken the nominating power away from the political parties and exercised it themselves.

The politicians have been very slow to realize the new order of things. They could not imagine the nomination of an anti-Tammany candidate on any other plan than the familiar one of agreement among all the opposing political forces. They were willing that the reformers should start the movement, and give it its moral tone, but were astonished and enraged when, for the first time in the history of the city, their offer to come in and take possession of it was denied. They resorted in vain to all the old methods of carrying their point —ridicule, abuse, threats. The reformers laid the matter, for the first time, before the people, and got a verdict of approval so overwhelming as to amount to a repudiation of the regular nominating machinery. The spontaneous and eager response showed unmistakably, in fact, that the Citizens' Union was the natural outcome of a great popular disgust with existing political methods, and of a general popular conviction that the regular nominating machinery could not be trusted to select for public office the kind of men the people desired. While starting out with the object of obtaining honest municipal government, the Citizens' Union, by its wise and courageous course, has raised a no less momentous issue in the preservation or destruction of the boss nominating system.

What Mr. Low will stand for concerns not New York city alone. If the demonstration can be made in New York that a majority of the voters will improve an opportunity to elect a man simply because he is an expert in government and is pledged to devote his abilities and energies to the welfare of the city, and not to the welfare of any party, there is not a city in the land which will not be encouraged to follow the example set by New York. If it shall be shown that the regular party nominating machinery can be defied, and that the people will themselves exercise the right of nominating, then boss government everywhere is doomed. The boss must exercise this power absolutely, or his reign will come to an end. If he cannot in person name all the candidates, his system will break down. Nothing has been more instructive or more amusing in the controversy between the Citizens' Union and the Platt Republican machine than the claims of the latter to a sort of divine right to nominate. Awful things were to happen if this right were to be denied. The election of the best Mayor was a trifling thing compared with the impairment of it. To deny it as supreme was to so humiliate and outrage its possessors as to justify them in turning the city over to Tammany Hall or any other gang of looters. One of its defenders went so far as to say that "the Republican party cannot afford in the city of New York or elsewhere at any time to become the prey of highwaymen," the allusion being to the proposal that the Republican organization should acquiesce in Mr. Low's nomination on the petition of 127,000 citizens. For the people to assert their right to nominate a candidate was "flat burglary as ever was committed," in the eyes of this political Dogberry.

Nevertheless, from this time forward the only question before the Republican politicians will be: "Are you in favor of Tammany rule or non-partisan rule?" There is no possible middle ground. The method of Mr. Low's nomination, combined with his personal character and expert fitness for the office, makes it impossible for the Republican machine to refuse to support him on any other ground than that it is not in favor of the honest government of the city. If it opposes Mr. Low and puts a "straight ticket" in the field, it will array itself openly on the side of Tammany. As the *Tribune*, speaking for Republicans, said with courage and force on Thursday last, whoever advises or demands a policy that ends in the election of a Tammany Democrat "will be held not only an enemy to honest municipal government, but the worst of enemies to the Republican party." On the other hand, it is conceded on all sides that Mr. Low's candidacy has compelled the selection of the best man attainable as his Democratic opponent. It has also raised the qualifications considered necessary for all candidates for subordinate positions on the tickets of both parties. Even the most reckless political managers realize that the people are going to be exacting in their demands this year. Contrast this situation with what would have been the case had the two regular party machines been left alone to select the opposing tickets. Instead of the best material attainable, we should have had on both sides just as poor material as could be submitted to the people without danger of revolt. Whatever the result in November, the city will have a better government than would have been possible of attainment had not the Citizens' Union been formed. Instead of being shut up to a choice between sets of more or less unfit candidates, the voters will have an opportunity to elect the best or the next best, as shall suit their pleasure.

PARDONS AND LYNCH LAW.

The judicial department of the government in many States is justly criticised for its dilatory and lax administration of the laws against crimes, and the courts are held in part to blame for the prevalence of lynching in those States. In some cases the legislative branch is responsible for neglect to make necessary changes in the laws to secure greater promptness of action and less regard for technicalities by the courts. The executive department has also its burden of shame to bear for lessening popular confidence in the regular administration of justice by its disposition to remit penalties rightly imposed by the courts.

In commenting upon the action of President McKinley in pardoning, a few weeks ago, the cashier of the Ellsworth (Me.) National Bank, who was sentenced to ten years' imprisonment, before he had served four years, the Lewiston *Journal* expressed the opinion that "the courts do not forget their function of punishing for the protection of the properties and lives of the people, but their work is now nullified to a large extent by executive volition." As regards the federal judiciary, this remark is true in the broadest sense. A case is almost never reported where a United States court lends favor to mere technicalities as a bar to punishment, or fails to impose a severe sentence upon conviction. State courts are more open to criticism in both respects, particularly the former, and yet some of the most flagrant decisions on technical grounds in favor of criminals who had been justly convicted appear to be demanded by laws which the courts cannot disregard, however unfair the judges may consider them. On the other hand, a President may largely undo the work of the courts by an unjust use of the pardoning power, as when Mr. McKinley, a few weeks ago, released almost simultaneously three bank defaulters, in New York, Maine, and Arkansas, who had served but a small part of the time for which they had been sentenced.

The pardon of the Chicago anarchists by Gov. Altgeld of Illinois four years ago was only the first and most flagrant in a long series of acts by that Executive which encouraged the criminal classes and disheartened the law-abiding. Too many other Governors err in the same way. Gov. Jones of Arkansas was inaugurated on the 18th of January last, and during the first seven months of his administration he issued 175 pardons—an average of one a day, leaving Sundays out of the account. Gov. Bradley of Kentucky has a still worse record. He assumed office on the 10th of December, 1895, and by the end of June, 1897—a period of one year, eight months, and twenty-one days—he had pardoned or commuted the sentences of 675 convicts. Three murderers, who the courts decreed should be executed, had their sentences commuted to life imprisonment; 32 murderers who had been sentenced for life, were released after serving an average of only eight years apiece; and 64 who had "killed their men" and been convicted of manslaughter, were set free. Among these last,

one sentenced for twenty years served only nine; one for twenty-one, but four; one for seventeen, only three. The average sentence of the 64 had been eight years, but they were released after serving on the average only three years.

In some States the securing of pardons has become a regular business, which lawyers make a profitable specialty. At the capital of Kansas, for example, are lawyers who watch the prison records, and whenever a man with property of his own or with wealthy friends is convicted, they at once set about negotiating his release for a given fee, finding the task usually easy after the excitement attending the criminal's trial has died away. Petitions are circulated, the judge and jury who convicted him and the attorney who prosecuted him are enlisted, and public sentiment is manufactured in his favor. Touching pleas from the wife, sister, or daughter are addressed to the Board of Pardons, and if a favorable recommendation is secured from that body, the assault is renewed upon the Governor, who is very apt to yield if he is a tender-hearted man, like the last Executive, Gov. Morrill.

But while the blame rests in the last analysis upon the Governor who surrenders when he ought to resist, the responsibility is shared by others. An inspection of the records of the Kansas Board of Pardons shows that, in a large majority of the applications presented, the judge and jury who tried the prisoner unite in asking for commutation or full pardon. Dozens of district judges are now sitting in Kansas who have documents on file in the Pardon Board office which are nothing less than a confession of their own unfairness and incapacity, while it is a common thing to find a paper signed by all the jurymen in which they declare that they erred in finding the prisoner guilty.

The general public is no less remiss in its duty to stand by the courts. A journal published at the capital of Mississippi says that a great many of the country papers which find their way to its office "contain petitions for the pardon of Tom, Dick, or Harry—some white, others colored—who have been sent to the State prison for this, that, and the other offence, murder, burglary, forgery, etc." An Iowa newspaper a few weeks ago told how a citizen of that State went to the executive office to make complaint because a certain criminal had been let out of prison; and when the Governor sent for the papers in the case, he found the signature of his caller to the petition for the man's release.

There is not a particle of doubt that the frequency of pardon is one of the causes of lynch law. People see that, even if the courts convict a criminal, the Governor is liable to release him in a little while, and this added risk of his escaping all but a slight punishment strengthens the disposition to visit swift and terrible vengeance upon a villain who falls into the hands of a mob. The soft-hearted Executive who has yielded to appeals for mercy which was not deserved, has by that act weakened the assurance which should be enjoyed by every man suspected of crime that he shall have a fair trial. There must be a toning up of public sentiment in this matter from top to bottom. Presidents and Governors must be held to stricter account; judges, prosecuting attorneys, and jurors must be made to feel that it is their duty to stand by their work, instead of trying to undermine it. Above all, the individual citizen must realize that he has a duty in this matter, and that it is a grave offence for him to ask clemency for a man justly convicted and sentenced.

ARCHITECTS' COMPETITIONS.

Every great reform has in it the seed of others. It expresses a principle which is soon discovered to have manifold applications. The fact that the reform is accomplished shows that the public has been awakened to its importance, and, being once aroused, the public observes that other reforms may be consistently demanded. Something like this process is now going on in the case of the construction of great public buildings. Formerly the construction of these buildings was often committed to such architects as had most political influence. As in other appointments to office under our government, favor, not fitness, determined success. But as the principle of fitness has gradually been recognized in selecting most of the public servants, it has become apparent that the selection of architects must be made on different principles from those which have heretofore prevailed.

Two circumstances have tended to produce this conviction. The first is the fact that the private work of our architects has so greatly improved in beauty since 1876 as to make our public buildings generally conspicuous by their ugliness. The people are indifferent to the fact that these buildings involve "jobs," but they now cry out if the results are æsthetically bad. Very few people can tell why one building is beautiful and another ugly, but it is undeniable that people whose eyes have become accustomed to resting on beautiful buildings are unpleasantly affected when they turn to bad ones. In this way there comes to be a certain education of the public taste, and a public opinion is gradually created in favor of better public architecture. Many of our politicians also have seen the great works in the older countries, and are not unwilling to have it appear that we can outdo foreigners in architecture as well as in other things.

A second circumstance affecting the result is the increased prevalence of the notion that public officers are trustees. When such officers now attempt to distribute patronage arbitrarily, they encounter violent opposition. If they choose inferior architects, these architects do not gain but lose standing in their profession. The pressure thus becomes very strong on the authorities having the construction of a public building in charge to select a competent architect, and these authorities, as has been found to be the case under the civil-service reform acts, are frequently glad to be relieved from party "pulls" and importunities by resorting to a competition of architects. The most recent illustration of this tendency is the decision of Secretary Gage to obtain a supervising architect of the Treasury by competitive examination. He does not himself attempt to judge of the merits of the competitors—that is committed to a board of architects eminent in their profession; and should they agree in their decision, it is probable that it will be final. The scheme seems to be as nearly perfect in its theory as anything that is at present practicable.

In the matter of selecting the architect for a particular building, the most scientific plan that has fallen under our observation is that devised by Prof. Laird of the University of Pennsylvania in connection with the construction of the new State buildings at Harrisburg. The Legislature, as was necessary, appointed a commission to have the general oversight of the business, consisting of the Governor, the Treasurer, the Auditor-General, the President of the Senate, and the Speaker of the House of Representatives. This Commission selected of their own notion six architects, and invited them to prepare plans, agreeing to pay them as compensation $1,000 each. They also invited "all American architects of good standing" to submit plans, promising them that all drawings presented by them should be fairly considered. They then constituted a board of experts, as Secretary Gage has done, consisting of Prof. Laird, as the professional adviser of the Commission, and two architects in active practice, each of whom must have had the responsible direction, as principal, of work of importance at least equal to that of the proposed building. One of these two experts was to be nominated by a majority of the six architects invited to compete, and the other was to be chosen by him and the professional adviser. The decision of a majority of the board of experts so constituted was to be final. All the plans, including those of the six chosen architects, were to be submitted without the disclosure of the names of their authors, and very great precautions were taken to secure freedom from personal influence in all the details of the competition. It is,

of course, conceivable that a dishonorable man might become a member of the board, and that a dishonest architect might let it be known which plan was his; but this is only to say that human nature is imperfect. So far as fairness can be promoted by intelligent regulations, it is attained by these.

Out of all the designs submitted, the board of experts was to select eight, giving them rank in the order of their merit. From these eight the commission was then to select one, designating it as their first choice, and the author of this plan was to be appointed their architect. Two other designs were to be specially honored, in accordance with the rank assigned them by the experts. If the commission should consider that by reason of youth or inexperience, or for any other reason, their architect was not a suitable person to be put in charge of the work, he was to associate with him some acceptable architect. There were many other details of importance provided for in Prof. Laird's plan, but these which we have stated are the essential ones, and we should not be surprised if they became eventually the standard requirements in such competitions. In this particular case the requirements of the Commission were apparently greater than could be secured for $550,000, the sum appropriated by the Legislature, and it is apprehended that the whole competition may fail on this account. While this would be a regrettable incident, it would involve no reflection on the merits of the competitive scheme.

In a competition of this kind the conditions are such as to be reasonably satisfactory to architects of eminence, and reasonably fair to ambitious men who have their reputations to make. Some of the former class will probably be included in the list of those compensated for their plans; any of the latter class may enter the competition on the same terms as the former, with the exception that they receive no compensation unless they are successful. Were the public officers disposed to favor their friends by nominating them for the competition, they could indeed insure them compensation, but it would be out of their power to award them the prize except with the concurrence of the board of experts. It is conceivable that a commission composed of corrupt politicians might appoint a corrupt professional adviser and select a list of corrupt architects, and that a corrupt board of experts might thus be constituted. Of course if corruption prevails to such an extent, all measures of precaution are futile. But, bad as things are, they are probably not so bad as that, and no scheme has yet been devised so well adapted as Prof. Laird's to make political influence unavailing, to attract architects of distinction, and to give a fighting chance to men of ability by whom distinction has yet to be won.

GLIMPSES OF SOUTHERN OREGON.—I.

MARSHFIELD, August, 1897.

The State of Oregon is divided topographically and climatologically by the Cascade Mountains, which extend a little to the west of the middle of the State, from Mount Hood on the north to Mount Pitt on the south. Eastward from these are more or less arid plains of sand, and scattered volcanic elevations from which the sand is derived. Extremely fertile where water can be had, this part of Oregon offers few attractions elsewhere. The parching winds which sometimes cook the fruit on the trees of Californian orchards, owe their heat and dryness to a passage over this area.

Parallel with the Cascades along the seacoast lies the lower belt of the Coast Range of Oregon. Between the two is the Willamette valley, the garden of the State. Toward the southern boundary the two ranges converge and are practically united by the Klamath Mountains, an ancient island of crystalline rocks which stretches in an easterly and westerly direction from the northern end of the Sierras to the sea. These include the Siskiyous, Rogue River Mountains, and other subordinate ranges, and separate, topographically, northern California from southern Oregon. The moisture-laden winds from the Pacific drop their rain abundantly upon the coast, and are responsible for the deep blue patch familiar to students of meteorology, which indicates on maps of rainfall, near the mouth of the Columbia, the most rainy district of the United States. To the eastward of the Coast Range sufficient moisture passes to supply in generous measure the harvests of the Willamette valley, but the Cascades intercept nearly all that is left. As one travels southward from Portland on the railway, the valley narrows and is divided by wooded spurs from the ranges on either side and from the south. Beyond Eugene, where the State University is situated, the road winds gently between wooded hills with picturesque glimpses of narrow lateral valleys, nearly all of which are occupied by farms and orchards. In the vicinity of Comstock the road leaves the Willamette drainage and enters that of the Umpqua, which cuts directly through the Coast Range to the Pacific.

Here is a region which less than half a century ago was an unbroken wilderness, whose annals offer to the historian nothing striking or romantic, and which the uncommercial traveller knows only as a given area on the map. Owing to its broken topography of hill and dale, abruptly alternating, it can never become a densely populated region, but the fertility of the narrow strips along the streams has attracted settlers, and there is hardly a tillable area of a few acres but has its cabin. The necessarily elongated farms separate the dwellings rather widely. The towns are few and small. The farmers of this region share with those of California the convenience of a dry harvest. July, August, and September are usually rainless. The sun pours down its rays with ardency; the lips dry and crack, the dry air does away with visible perspiration, and, in spite of the noon temperatures hovering in the vicinity of 90 to 100 degrees F., the heat is stimulating rather than oppressive. Dust, of course, is ever present. The roads are usually poor, formed, on the hillsides, of the surface soil, with an occasional sprinkling of rounded river-gravel, which does not pack. The rocks are mostly friable sandstones and shales, or an exceedingly refractory diabase, and do not afford good road-metal. A further explanation of the wretched highways is afforded by the fact that the farmer gets all his heavy hauling done just after harvest, while the roads are still sunbaked, and in the rainy season, when they are mostly quagmires, he has nothing to haul; or, if he has, betakes himself to a broad-runnered wooden sledge, which slides over the mud almost as easily as if it were snow. As the day wanes, a haze overspreads the sky, the remnant of the coast fogs brought by the persistent trade-wind. After nightfall the air becomes cool, and, with one's window up, a refreshing sleep may be enjoyed under two heavy blankets. The rainy season, by all accounts, is trying to those unused to isolation and intellectual torpor. For reasons above indicated there can be but a minimum of moving about on the country roads and little sociality. Those in more easy circumstances go to the towns; the others exist until the seed-time comes.

The conditions foster lethargy of mind. The village papers have mostly "patent outsides" and a vacuous interior. At the stationer's, in one of the larger towns, I was informed that they did not take in a single weekly illustrated paper or any monthly magazine. Those who wished such things got them from the train boy of the daily local. In two weeks I did not see him sell anything except a few daily papers, when, following the usage, I went to get a paper for myself. The schoolhouses, scattered at intervals along the hill-roads, were small, untidy, and unpainted. I heard from residents repeated criticism of the poor work done by the State Normal Schools, which were said to graduate immature, incompetent, and untrained teachers, each provided with a diploma which exempted the bearer from further examinations. On the other hand, the extremely meagre pay given to the district-school-teachers could hardly attract competent persons to the work. It is probable, also, that politics plays some part in appointments. However, the criticism heard is a more favorable symptom than content with an unsatisfactory state of affairs would be. The higher educators are not indifferent to the lack of culture, and earnest efforts in the direction of "university extension" are being made.

The mental torpor referred to is quite a different thing from stupidity. In conversation with the people I found no lack of intelligence, and was surprised to discover how generally sound views on the currency and other analogous topics were entertained. The women, as usual, were more alert in such matters than the men, and, even under disadvantageous circumstances, showed praiseworthy strivings for thrift, neatness, and other than domestic interests. The physique of both sexes seemed good, and attractive faces were not rare. There was apparently some tendency to pallor, and a physician of long experience in the region assured me that, though the country is exceptionally healthful, the people lacked physical tone and succumbed with astonishing ease to relatively slight attacks of disease. Searching for some explanation of this singular fact, I learned that the settlers, though more

or less mixed with European stock, are derived mainly from immigrants from Missouri, Tennessee, and Virginia, where malarial conditions may have undermined the constitutions of the progenitors of the present population. Much weight must be allowed, I am convinced, to the unhygienic cuisine which is nearly universal, and always comprises an excess of fatty, sweet, and acid constituents, badly cooked and hurriedly consumed. There is no doubt that this part of the country is sadly in need of missionaries capable of teaching better domestic economy and methods of thrift.

The products of the region are the staples, wheat, hops, prunes, and beef cattle; while timber, staves, and poultry contribute a not unimportant share. The high price of wheat has recently greatly encouraged the farmers, and will bring much money into the valleys. In general, I was informed, the farms are free from encumbrance, and the people have been, in spite of the hard times, fairly prosperous. The transportation of the region is wholly in the hands of a single railway and the rates are high. The coast may be reached by several stage lines, one of which starts west from Roseburg for the Coos Bay country, while another, over a better road, crosses the mountains by a moderate divide, and descends the valley of the Umpqua. The ride by the latter is picturesque and interesting, and, with a comfortable coach (which is not provided), might be recommended to tourists. As it is, however, the hotels in most cases are far from meeting the most elementary requirements of cleanliness and good food, while the stages are merely rough covered wagons, with hard seats and insufficient springs. The omnipresent dust is a factor not to be ignored.

After crossing the coast range, where the road winds slowly upward between forests of tall and stately fir, the traveller descends into a valley much like that from which he came, but diversified by the meanderings of the river over wide beds of nearly level rock, with deep pools here and there, very suggestive of trout. At Scottsburg one welcomes the transfer from the dusty stage to a neat and well-appointed little stern-wheel steamer, by which one reaches the bay at the river mouth. The passage to Gardiner requires three or four hours and is charming. The cañon of the Umpqua is narrow and deep, but the steeps on either hand are densely wooded, and the rich green of the firs, diversified by the lighter tints of cottonwood and willow, softens the ruggedness effectively. In a region more easily reached this stream would be the haunt of artists and tourists. Though its beauties are hardly on a scale to attain grandeur, they fully compass the picturesque. I have rarely seen such a succession of "paintable" bits of scenery as those brought out by the curves and reaches of the lower Umpqua. I was told, also, that the river offered a fair reward to the fisherman, with numerous good camping-places, abundance of wood for the campfire, and clear, cold water everywhere to be had from rills and springs. Certainly one seldom sees a region more attractive to the camper and canoeist, and it seems provoking that it should not be more accessible.

By evening one reaches the pretty village of Gardiner, supported by two large sawmills, neat, thrifty, and attractive. Backed by steep wooded hills, it looks out upon the Umpqua estuary, a lovely bay, whose borders are dotted here and there with the traps of salmon fishers and the cabins and garden-patches of the sturdy loggers. It must be confessed that the presence of a clean and comfortable inn, where I partook of my first well-cooked meal in southern Oregon, takes nothing from the agreeable memories with which my stay at Gardiner is associated.

W. H. D.

THE GIFT OF CHANTILLY.

PARIS, August 26, 1897.

The Institute of France entered into possession of the château and of the forest of Chantilly immediately after the death of the Duke d'Aumale. Nothing is changed in appearance in the beautiful domain, in the château and its surroundings; but, as the poet says, "the mind is its own place," and the wanderer cannot help feeling that much is changed and that the living spirit of Chantilly is departed.

The terms of the donation made by the Prince are worth remembering:

"Wishing to preserve for France the domain of Chantilly in its integrity, with its woods, its lawns, its waters, its buildings and all that they contain—trophies, pictures, books, works of art, all that *ensemble* which forms a compiete and varied monument of French art in all its branches and of the history of my country at its glorious periods—I have resolved to confide it to an illustrious body which has done me the honor to call me to its ranks on various grounds, and which, without avoiding the inevitable transformation of society, does not feel the spirit of faction and can escape too rapid changes, keeping its independence in the midst of our political fluctuations.

"In consequence, I leave to the Institute of France, which will dispose of it on the conditions hereinafter mentioned, the domain of Chantilly as it may exist at the time of my death, with the library and the other artistic or historical collections which I have formed in it."

Without going into the details of the donation, I will only say that the Institute has, in obedience to the will of the Prince, appointed from its own ranks three *conservateurs*, M. Mézières of the French Academy, M. Léopold Delisle, the Director of our National Library, and M. Gruyer of the Academy of Fine Arts, author of a magnificent work on the pictures of Chantilly. M. Delisle is chiefly affected to the library, and M. Gruyer, who was once a curator in the Louvre, to the pictures and works of art.

The château, according to the positive instructions of the Prince, will remain uninhabited. It is to be a mere museum, which will be public two days of the week, as soon as the necessary changes and dispositions are made. The three curators will have lodgings in a pavilion which is at some little distance from the château, and is called the Pavillon d'Enghien. They are not bound to reside always in these lodgings, which are merely their *pied-à-terre* when they make their visits; in the same pavilion there is a fourth apartment, which is the residence of a permanent assistant curator, appointed by the Institute, who is to be not a member of the Institute, but a mere agent. The gift of Chantilly to the French Institute was made with the binding condition that "the Institute should preserve the character of the whole of the domain, and especially that it should make no change in the exterior or interior architecture of the château, the pavilions of Enghien and of Sylvia, the *jeu de paume*, and the three small chapels, . . . and that it should equally maintain the character and the destination of the parks, gardens, canals, rivers, as well as the general distribution of the forests, ponds, and fountains." It is clear that the dominant idea of the Prince was the preservation of Chantilly as a whole, and it is to be hoped that this wish will be well adhered to.

The collections of Chantilly, formed by the Montmorencys and the Condés, were confiscated at the time of the Revolution; they were given back to the Duke de Bourbon, first in 1814, afterwards in 1815. They were chiefly composed then of manuscripts and of written documents, forming 1,260 volumes, well bound. The printed books had been dispersed. The Duke d'Aumale, when he became possessor of Chantilly, felt the necessity of forming a library. He soon found a good occasion to acquire very important books. Frank Hall Standish had left England for France, and, when he died, he bequeathed his collections to King Louis Philippe. At the death of the King, the Duke d'Aumale bought from the heirs the Standish collection of books, composed of 3,504 volumes; many of them were incunabula and books printed on vellum, bought by Standish in France, in Spain, and in Italy (the best part of the library of Count Gaetano Malzi had been acquired by Standish). Having become possessor of the Standish collection, the Duke increased his library by making well-chosen acquisitions at nearly all the important public sales which took place in France and in England after 1850. In 1861 Potier published a 'Catalogue of the Manuscripts and Printed Books composing the Library of M. Armand Cigongne, Member of the Society of Bibliophiles, preceded by a Bibliographical Notice by M. Leroux de Lincy.' M. Cigongne was a stockbroker on the Paris Exchange, and had formed, with an exquisite and almost unerring taste, a collection consisting almost exclusively of French books, poems, dramatic works, novels; he had searched with great care for artistic bindings bearing the arms of illustrious persons. M. Cigongne was one of the first bibliophiles who put a high value not only on a book, but on what we now call its condition—a word which applies to every detail, even to the breadth of a margin. His library was not sold in detail; the Duke d'Aumale offered a large price for the whole, and was fortunate enough to have his offer accepted. It has been my good fortune to be able to examine, one by one, the books of M. Cigongne, and I have often wondered how a man of business, engaged in the laborious life of the Exchange, could have found the time to make such a collection.

After the acquisition of this collection, the library at Twickenham became a rival of the most famous private collections. It was enriched during the decade by various acquisitions made at public sales. After the war of 1870, when the Duke returned to Chantilly, the architect who built the new château found place in it for a library, which resembled almost in every detail the library of Twickenham, with its two stories, its iron balcony between them, its iron doors. The Duke continued to make constant additions to his library. He bought some very valuable manuscripts—the Psalm-book of Ingeburge, the Danish wife of King Philippe Auguste, the Breviary of Jeanne d'Évreux, some volumes of the Hamilton collection, the

famous miniatures of Jean Fouquet, which had been cut out of the Prayer-book. He bought from an anonymous amateur, through a bookseller, the Horæ of Louise Adélaïde d'Orléans, Abbesse de Chelles; a manuscript written by the famous Jarry; a splendid copy of Pindar, with a binding executed for King Henri II.; the 'Lunettes des Princes' (Jehan Meschinot, 1539), a copy bound for Charles the Fifth; the works of Ronsard (Paris: Buon, 1587), bound for Marguerite de Valois, who had her charming books covered with daisies in various stages of development. I cite these few books to give an idea of the character of the works which have found their way to Chantilly.

Besides this library, embracing exclusively the works entered in the catalogues under the denomination of "livres rares et curieux," there is at Chantilly a second library, which is what we call a "bibliothèque de travail," composed of books of reference, great historical and literary collections. This library, destined for common use, is in a large room, formerly the theatre in the times of the Condés: the books are arranged in what were once the boxes, and there are tables in the pit and on the old stage. A curious peculiarity of this theatre is the fact that there was no other scenery than that of the park, which was visible through a large window. This rural scenery was very suitable for the plays which were represented; princesses liked to appear as shepherdesses, and princes as shepherds. The library of "rare and curious" books will not be accessible without special permission; it would be very unwise to place its treasures in common hands.

Anne of Montmorency, who became Marshal and Constable of France, was not very learned, but he was a patron of letters and art, and many of the Chantilly manuscripts were acquired by him. He procured some manuscripts of Jean du Mas, Seigneur de l'Isle, an ardent bibliophile, who had obtained, it is not known how, some fine manuscripts which had belonged to Jacques d'Armagnac, Duke de Nemours, who was beheaded in 1477. Sixty of the manuscripts of the Duke de Nemours are now in our National Library. Montmorency had some manuscripts made for himself, and received several as presents. The Duke d'Aumale himself wrote notices of the manuscripts at Chantilly, and made researches into their origin. Many interesting details will be found in the complete catalogues which are in preparation. In all, there are 1,450 manuscripts in the collection.

After the manuscripts, we must cite the first productions of the art of printing, the books printed in Mainz, in Strasbourg, the celebrated editions of Mentelin, of Sweynheim and Pannartz, the first editions of Cologne, Augsburg, Milan, Venice, Nuremberg, Foligno, Ulm, Verona, Bologna, Ferrara, Florence, Naples, Brescia, Mantua, Padua, Lyons, Utrecht, Louvain, Lübeck, Rostock, Toulouse, Geneva, etc. The Duke d'Aumale had a great predilection for books printed on vellum, and collected a great many; among others, he took special care to collect the books of Hours *(Heures)*, and in various dioceses (Rome, Bayeux, Besançon, Chartres, Langres, Metz, Nevers, Rouen, etc.), as well as the old "Coutumes," which were the foundation of our present "Code Civil." The printed books actually catalogued form a total of about 8,000 articles. This number may not seem very large, but it does not include the books which are merely books of reference and for common use.

The visits to Chantilly will not begin till a year after the Duke's death; in the interval, everything will be prepared in the château and in all the collections, in conformity with his will. The library is already in perfect order, and M. Léopold Delisle will not have much to do except the supervision of the catalogues, which were not quite completed.

TOKENS OF WOE.

VIRGINIA, August, 1897.

The story of Joseph and Potiphar's wife recurs in Greek mythology ('Iliad,' vi. 168 ff.). Anteia, the Queen of Proetus, made a false charge against Bellerophon, whom accordingly Proetus dispatched to the King of Lycia, Anteia's father, "and gave him *Tokens of Woe, graving in a folded tablet many deadly things*, and bade him show these to Anteia's father, that he might be slain." From the Homeric account it seems clear that, upon his arrival in Lycia, Bellerophon announced to the King that he was the bearer of a *token* from Proetus. But etiquette forbade the King to ask to see that *token* until the guest had been entertained for nine days, at the end of which the King "asked to see what *token* Bellerophon bore from his son-in-law, even Proetus. Now when he had received of him Proetus's *evil token*, first he bade him slay Chimæra, the unconquerable," etc.

Students of the history of the alphabet and of writing have often asked the question, "Wherein consisted these *Tokens of Woe?*" but the question has never been answered to the complete satisfaction of scholars, for the history of the invention of the alphabet is not yet fully written. The subject is elusive and intricate, because it has to deal with comparative palæography. Until twenty-three years ago the existence of a pre-Phœnician script was scarcely suspected by scholars, notwithstanding the fact that in 1859 De Rougé had announced that the Phœnicians did not *originate* their alphabet, but had adapted to their purposes the most ancient Egyptian hieratic script. De Rougé lost the manuscript of his work, and never rewrote it. But after his death his son discovered the rough outline of the father's work and published it in 1874. The theory of De Rougé is generally accepted, and his structure is built upon such solid ground that it will probably never be overthrown or even shaken.

The tradition that, when the Homeric poems were composed, the alphabet had not yet reached Greece is probably correct. The fact that Homer makes no mention of the alphabet has been used as proof that he was ignorant of it. But, however that may be, if Homer does not mention the alphabet specifically, he does mention ideograms or phonograms of some kind or other. And here I must explain, in the thoughts if not the words of another, what is meant by ideograms or phonograms. All primitive writing was ideographic—*i. e.*, the writing itself depicted ideas. The symbols used by such alphabets are therefore called ideograms. There are two kinds of ideograms: (1) pictures, or actual representations of objects—such pictorial writing was used by our American Indians; (2) pictorial symbols used to express abstract ideas, such as the Roman numerals, the signs of the zodiac, etc. As mankind advances in intellectuality, ideographic alphabets are supplanted by phonetic alphabets, in which the symbols are called phonograms, because they express or stand for *sounds*, and not for *ideas* or *things*. They are, however, merely conventionalized ideograms, which usually have suffered abrasion to such an extent that their origin becomes more or less obscured. Now phonograms are of three kinds: (1) verbal signs, which stand for entire words, such as $, £ s. d., lbs., cwt., etc.; (2) syllabic signs, which stand for the articulations of which words are composed; (3) alphabetic signs, or letters, which represent the elementary sounds into which the syllable can be resolved. It is phonograms of this last-named kind which we use to-day. But if we trace the history of any of our letters back far enough, we shall find that they resolve themselves into the conventionalized picture of some object, and that most of them retain features which they have derived from the primitive picture from which they are descended.

Now what kind of ideograms or phonograms were graven upon that folded tablet of which Homer speaks? The question has been asked often, and discussions of it may be found in every elaborate commentary on Homer. In these discussions many arguments are used to prove that Homer could not have had a *letter* in mind; could not, properly speaking, have had *writing* in mind; but, after everything has been said upon the subject that can be said, it remains quite evident to all, except to the wilfully blind, that something *was* written, or scratched, or painted on that folded tablet. The words of Homer presuppose some kind of writing—certainly not *the* art of writing as we understand it, or as the Phœnicians and Greeks understood it, but surely *an* art of writing. It were interesting to discover what kind of writing this was, wherein this system of symbols consisted that was capable of expressing emotion by means of *Tokens of Woe*, and, by inference, *Tokens of Gladness*.

Some years ago Sayce, in a little book on the Hittites, attempted to prove that the Phœnicians got their first notions of linear phonetic alphabetic signs, not from the oldest hieratic script of the Egyptians, but from the ideograms of the Hittites. His thesis is that Cappadocia was the original home of the Hittites—a contention which he attempts to make clear from many of the ideograms in the Hittite characters, *e. g.*, from what he calls their ideogram for country, consisting of two or three cones that are similar to the cones in the volcanic formation in the Udj-Essar-Urgub region of Cappadocia; and from certain peculiarities of their costume as seen in Hittite rock-sculpture and other works of art, *e. g.*, the tip-tilted boots, that are so much like the Greek *zarouchia* of to-day. Sayce argues further that the Hittite empire and civilization spread from Cappadocia southwards to Syria, where so powerful an empire was created that it could successfully resist Egypt, then mighty. From Cappadocia again the Hittites extended their empire to the western seaboard of Asia Minor, until it included almost if not all the vast peninsula, and fronted upon Assyria and Egypt in the east and south. In all this broad empire one and the same system of ideographic writing prevailed, and that system of writing must have been known to the

peoples who jostled elbows with the Phœnicians.

There are two possible theories as to how the knowledge of the Hittite symbols reached Greece. According to one, the Phœnicians adapted it to their purposes by making it linear and phonetic, and then passed it on to the Greeks, thus justifying the Greek traditions about the Phœnician origin of the Greek alphabet, for the Greeks knew nothing about a *pre*-Phœnician alphabet. But this is not the theory which Sayce advocates. On the contrary, he inclines to the opinion that the Greeks got the Hittite ideographic characters from the Phrygians of the Smyrna region, who had modified it, perhaps, and reduced it to a linear script. This script was further modified, simplified, and beautified by the Greeks, who made it wholly linear and phonetic. When it had been perfected by the Greeks, who improved upon everything which they touched, the modified or Greek alphabet was adopted by the Phrygians, who made abundant use of it, *e. g.*, on the rock tombs of the city of Midas.

Sayce's theory has been twice refuted with German elaborateness by Schlottmann and Hinrichs. At the time of the appearance of Sayce's book I was unwilling to admit the Hittite origin of the Phœnician alphabet, but still the theory had great fascination for me, because I had just returned from long journeys in Asia—journeys that had extended over several years, and had made it possible for me to gaze with my own eyes upon almost all the art remains of the Hittite civilization from Carchemish to the region of Smyrna. But the links in the chain that would connect Greece with the Hittite empire seemed to be wanting, although, of course, there was the Phrygian Pelops, who was destined to influence Mycenæan civilization so powerfully. But, while rejecting the Hittite origin of the Phœnician or of the Greek alphabet, another thought had been ever-present with me as I studied the Hittite remains that are scattered up and down the length and breadth of the Turkish empire in Asia. The thought was, Have we not here Homer's *Tokens of Woe?* I could not prove it to my satisfaction, and for two reasons. In the first place, Greece was remote, and Hittite influence upon Greece, even through the mediation of the Phrygians, seemed small and weak. This point, though, seemed of minor importance, because the *Tokens of Woe* must have come to Proetus in Tiryns from Lycia at the time when he married the daughter of the King of Lycia. Then, next in order, Hittite influence in Lycia would have to be assumed, for it cannot be proved, methinks. Of course, there is plenty of Asiatic influence to be seen in Lycian art, but it is of later date than the hoary Hittite empire. In fact, the Hittite remains that are nearest to Lycia are in Isauro-Pisidia, at El-Flatun Puñar and at Fassiller, where I discovered a colossal Hittite stele with sculpture in high relief, and a Hittite seal, which the curious may find depicted in Perrot's 'History of Art.' Accordingly, Hittite influence in Lycia cannot be proved, nor can it be proved that we must recognize the *Tokens of Woe* in the Hittite ideograms. This thought, therefore, took a back seat, awaiting further developments and more exact information.

Now at a time when men had no suspicion of the wide territory covered by what we call the Mycenæan civilization; at a time when certain stone seals were still called *Inselsteine*, Schliemann had discovered in Troy many strange and novel patterns impressed upon terracotta whorls, seals, vases, and other objects. One characteristic of these patterns was noteworthy: there was an absence in them of Egyptian, and almost equally of Assyrian, influence, with no trace of Phœnician characters. Even then some scholars held that these "patterns of Hissarlik were not mere ornaments or symbols, but had a meaning and were true signs," *i. e.*, phonograms. Then came Mycenæ with its flood of light, which grows more intense with each succeeding year. In 1894 Mr. A. J. Evans published in the *Journal of Hellenic Studies* an article entitled "Primitive Pictographs and a Pre-Phœnician Script from Crete and the Peloponnese" (reprinted the next year in book form). In this article Mr. Evans differentiates two classes of seal-stones: (1) such as belong to a very ancient period (the third millennium B. C.) and bear ideograms engraved upon their facets, and (2) such as belong to a younger period and bear phonograms and even a linear script engraved upon their facets. These stones, to describe them as nearly as possible in Mr. Evans's own words, are (1) three-sided or prism-shaped with a string-hole, (2) four-sided equilateral, or columnar, (3) four-sided with two larger facets, (4) seal-stones with a single facet. Upon their facets they bear a striking series of pictograms, some even presenting characters that are remarkably alphabetic. Evans believes that these are not mere idle figures carved at random, but must have a definite meaning and are in fact a form of script. He points out that there is method and intention in the choice and arrangement of the symbols, and that even a boustrophedon arrangement is quite evident on some of them. They are therefore not meaningless ornaments. Certain of these symbols recur frequently, such as the human eye, the bent leg, the bent arm, etc. The choice of symbols is evidently restricted by some practical consideration, and while some objects are of frequent occurrence, others equally obvious are conspicuous by their absence. Abbreviated symbols are made use of, such as the head for the whole animal. Gesture-language in graphic form appears, an invaluable resource of early pictography for the expression of ideas and emotions, such as crossed hands (denoting ten), the open hand (a palm measure), the bent leg (marching, or approaching), a man standing alone with arms held downwards (perhaps denoting ownership), an arm holding a curved instrument (forcible action, such as was called for by the *Tokens of Woe* which Bellerophon bore to the King of Lycia), and many others.

These symbols occur almost exclusively in groups of from two to seven. The most frequent, however, are groups of two or three, a fact which seems to indicate that the symbols thus appearing had a syllabic character. Certain fixed principles are traceable in the arrangement of the symbols in the several groups. Thus, the human eye usually appears at the beginning or end of a line. In the three cases in which the bent leg makes its appearance, it is in immediate contiguity with a symbol that seems to stand for a door or a gate. When the columnar seal-stones are rolled out on the principle of a Babylonian cylinder, we notice that in several cases a boustrophedon arrangement has been adopted, as I have already stated. Among these symbols we find many relating to the human body and its parts; we also find houses and household utensils, marine subjects, animals and birds, vegetable forms, heavenly bodies, geographical symbols, geometrical figures, besides a number of uncertain symbols.

These symbols were not copied from nor influenced by either Asia or Egypt, but, where a parallelism appears, it is the parallelism of an independent system drawn from a common source. About sixteen symbols approach Egyptian and sixteen Hittite forms, but still the proportion of affinities points to Asia, when we consider that the choice of comparisons in the case of the Egyptian hieroglyphs is very much larger than is that of the Hittite. Moreover, the promiscuous way in which the signs are disposed suggests the Hittite monuments. Besides, the columnar arrangement of the sides of the seals recalls the sculptured stones of Hamath. And again, the boustrophedon arrangement is found both on these seal-stones and on the Hittite monuments. But we have not to do in either case with a mere servile imitation of foreign symbols; there is only a collateral relationship, and both the Cretan and the Hittite symbols grew up out of the still more primitive pictographic elements. The more primitive elements which were the parent stock of the symbols we are discussing, Mr. Evans finds in the Cretan and Peloponnesian seal-stones of the first period, *i. e.*, of the third millennium, B. C. As to the Hittite symbols, that is a question which need not delay us further on this occasion. On the contrary, let us gather up Mr. Evans's chief points: he has proved the existence of primitive Aegean pictograms akin to the Hittite symbols; from these pictograms there arose on the one hand a linear syllabic script that extended to continental Greece and to Syria, and on the other hand a Cypriote syllabary. Now Mr. Evans's thesis is to prove that the theory which derives the Phœnician alphabet from the most ancient form of the hieratic script of Egypt must give place to his new theory, which derives the Phœnician alphabet from an Aegean or Mycenæan prototype. He sustains his thesis with marvellous learning, and he makes out a most plausible and fascinating case, but he does not prove his point; De Rougé's structure is erected on the solid rock and refuses to be shaken. Of Evans's magnificent paper we are forced to ask:

"Warum in die Weite schweifen?
Denn das Gute liegt so nah."

This Aegean script of the third millennium before our era, what is it? What is it, indeed, but the Tokens of Woe of Homer, tokens that had to give place to the more practical Phœnician letters which Herodotus and general Greek tradition say were brought to Greece by the Phœnician merchants of the Syrian seaboard? My belief (I have seen the question mooted only once, and that was by Salomon Reinach in the *Chroniques d'Orient*) that we have the Tokens of Woe at last is not based on mere assumption or conjecture. It seems to be warranted by the character of the symbols themselves, which are capable of expressing emotion of various kinds and degrees, *e. g.*, the bent arm holding a scimitarlike weapon was amply sufficient to indicate to the King of Lycia what his worthy son-in-law expected of him in the matter of Bellerophon. It seems warranted by the fact that this

system of symbols covered a wide territory, and was indeed in use throughout the whole world that was in any way affected by Greek influence. It seems to be warranted by the fact that it was in universal use, not merely among the rich and princely, but among all classes, even the lowliest. For some of the stones are the seals of dealers in or producers of milk, cheese, and butter, as can be seen at a glance. It was, therefore, in use even among shepherds. The suggestion, then, that we have found the Tokens of Woe at last is perhaps something more than a plausible theory.

J. R. S. Sterrett.

Correspondence.

THE LOGIC OF IT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I beg leave to call your attention to the fact that an important American industry appears to have been seriously injured by the action of Col. Waring in removing the mud and snow from the streets of the city of New York. In *McClure's Magazine* for September (page 921), Col. Waring says, in his article on "The Cleaning of a Great City":

"I have been told by the President of the United States Rubber Company that this snow removal, together with the abolition of mud from the streets at all seasons, has cost that company $100,000 per year by reason of the decreased demand for rubber boots and shoes. What this means to the poorer people of the city, as compared with their previous suffering, need not be said."

So that the Colonel not only inflicts this damage on the rubber industry, but actually exults in the act!

Ought not some steps to be taken by a paternal government to redress this foul wrong to the Rubber Company, and also, to bring the Colonel to a sense of the enormity of his conduct? Was not the wearing-apparel clause in the Dingley tariff enacted in order to drive customers to the shops of New York shopkeepers? And are not dealers in India-rubber shoes as much entitled to protection as dealers in fair-weather clothing? Is the question of protection or no protection to the American clothing-dealer to depend on the weather in which his wares are worn—to be determined by the test of rain or shine?

The Colonel speaks of the "poorer people of the city" and their "previous sufferings." What wretched free-trade sophistry! What difference does it make whether the poorer people suffer or not? The first business of the American Government is to build up American industries; and (let me add, sir) that should be the business of every official in the United States, as far as his power extends. At the very least, if he injures an American industry, he should not be allowed to boast of it with impunity. Such an act must (to every true American heart) be proof of even greater wickedness than that of the iniquitous Bayard.

When the Rubber Company received the $100,000 of which Col. Waring has now deprived them, they were able to pay, and presumably did pay, more wages than they pay now. Col. Waring, therefore, has probably inflicted a serious injury on many innocent dealers in India-rubber shoes and their employees—exactly such an injury in fact, as was complained of by the Merchants' and Manufacturers' Board of Trade when they asked for the enactment of the wearing-apparel clause in the Dingley tariff limiting the value of personal effects entitled to exemption to the sum of $100.

I do not find any fault with Col. Waring's conduct in cleaning the streets of New York. What I maintain is, that, according to the protectionist theory, the saving to the poor people by reason of the decreased demand for rubber boots and shoes is no benefit to the community. The essential feature of protectionism is that it is a benefit to the State that its citizens should be forced, by means of tariff laws, to pay higher prices for certain articles than they would pay if trade were free. The reason assigned for this proposition is that the excessive prices thus wrung from the consumers are used to build up industries that would not otherwise exist, and that as laborers are employed in these industries whose wages might be reduced or destroyed if the protective tariff should be repealed, it must, therefore, be an injury to the community to repeal the tariff. Now, it is evident that in the case of the New York street-cleaning the incompetency or dishonesty of Col. Waring's predecessors exactly corresponded to a protective tariff as far as the India-rubber industry is concerned, because the people of the city were forced, by the mismanagement of the Street-Cleaning Department, to increase their purchases of India-rubber shoes, just as they might have been by a protective tariff.

The splendid results of Col. Waring's good management exactly correspond to a repeal of a protective tariff. They have, it is true, diminished the profits of a certain industry—and presumably the wages of its employees—but, on the other hand, they have saved to the people of New York, no doubt, a much greater sum. And—what is really the root of the whole matter—the people's money is their own, and they ought not to be forced, either by a protective tariff, by official misconduct, or in any other way, to part with it against their will and without compensation, whether for the purpose of building up an industry or not. At the present day a far greater tax, and of the same kind, is paid all over the United States on almost every article of clothing and on many articles of general consumption. May we not hope that some day another Waring in a still higher office will complete the work that Grover Cleveland began ten years ago?

Daniel Holsman.

505 Chestnut St., Philadelphia,
September 3, 1 97.

PRESIDENT ANDREWS ON VERGIL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: When has the head of a reputable university made a more astonishing statement than that made by President E. B. Andrews, in the current *Cosmopolitan*? He says: "Large parts of classical literature reek with filth; and much of Vergil and Horace that is used in the class-room, editors and teachers misinterpret to make it decent." All lovers of Horace, and all who understand his spirit, will resent the imputation, even as against this gay philosopher; but in the case of Vergil, what an astonishing accusation President Andrews has made. I had supposed that Vergil was beyond the reach of any such assault. If testimony is needed, what could be more conclusive than the testimony of two so critical and pure-minded men as Dante and Tennyson? Dante's attitude toward Vergil is that of a reverent pupil toward an adored master. He is proud to call him "my master and my author." Tennyson testifies the same feeling in the lines:

"I salute thee, Mantovano, I that loved thee since my day began;
Wielder of the stateliest measure ever moulded by the lips of man."

I believe it was a Brooklyn school-committeeman who discovered that Longfellow was indecent, and that even that inoffensive jingle, "Excelsior," contains the objectionable lines:

"Stay, stay, the maiden said, and rest
Thy weary head upon this breast."

To parochial-minded men of this class all literature must be objectionable; but it is amazing to find such views held by the President of Brown University. If we discard Vergil as indecent, surely we must also discard Shakspere and the English Bible and nine-tenths of the standard literature of the world. Cannot the enemies of classical study find valid arguments without resorting to wild, whirling words which disclose either an astonishing ignorance or a lamentable recklessness? To call Vergil "indecent" is "prurient prudery" gone mad.

Arthur Mark Cummings.

Boston, Mass., September 4, 1897.

CERVANTES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The name of Cervantes is not a common one in Spain, and the probability is that those who bear it are kinsmen. Those interested in the cult of the author of 'Don Quixote' may possibly, therefore, find assistance in tracing his genealogy from the occurrence of two persons bearing that patronymic among the officials of the Inquisition in the sixteenth century. A cedula of Ferdinand of Aragon, bearing date August 16, 1514, recites that he had been informed that the Licentiate Cervantes, advocate of the fisc in the Inquisition of Cordoba, had abandoned the office and taken another, whereupon he had appointed the Licentiate Francisco de Oro to fill the vacancy. He now learns that Cervantes had only obtained leave of absence, had furnished a substitute, and had now returned to duty; wherefore, he restores him to the position and orders his accustomed salary to be paid (*Archivo General de Simancas, Consejo de Inquisición, Libro III., fol. 387*).

Another Cervantes, the Licentiate Gaspar, was inquisitor of Saragossa in 1560, at which date he was sent by Inquisitor-General Valdés to inspect the Inquisition of Barcelona (*ibidem, Espedientes de Visitas de Barcelona, Legajo 15, fol. 28*).

It may be mentioned that officials of the Inquisition were not necessarily clerics vowed to celibacy.

H. C. L.

Philadelphia, August 30, 1897.

Notes.

'The Life of Tennyson,' by his son, in two volumes, has the post of honor on Macmillan's October list; and close upon it in interest will be the 'Letters of Elizabeth Barrett Browning,' in two volumes, with its

glimpses of Paris during the *Coup d'Etat* and of Italy in times of stress. Other announcements are 'The Story of Gladstone's Life,' by Justin McCarthy; 'The Household of the Lafayettes,' by Edith Sichel; Brandes's 'William Shakspere'; a ninth volume supplementary to Wheatley's edition of Pepys's Diary; 'Biblical Quotations from Old English Prose Writers [pre-Wicliffite],' by Prof. Albert S. Cook of Yale; Krüger's 'History of Early Christian Literature in the First Three Centuries'; 'Pausanias's Description of Greece,' translated with a commentary by J. G. Frazer, in six volumes; 'Sketches from Old Virginia,' by A. G. Bradley; 'The Old Santa Fé Trail,' by Col. Henry Inman; and a 'Political Primer of New York State and City,' by Miss Fielde.

Besides the amplified 'Impressions of South Africa,' by James Bryce, the Century Co. will publish 'Forty-six Years in the Army,' by Gen. John M. Schofield, and 'An Artist's Letters from Japan,' by John La Farge.

From Dodd, Mead & Co. we are to have the 'Polychrome Bible,' a wholly new version of the Old Testament, with its composite structure shown in colored printing, under the editorship of Prof. Paul Haupt of Johns Hopkins; a 'History of the Literature of the Victorian Era,' by Clement K. Shorter; 'Pictures from the Life of Nelson,' by W. Clark Russell; 'Constitutional Studies,' by James Schouler, who now betakes himself to the sixth and concluding volume, embracing the civil war, of his 'History of the United States'; 'Colonization in the United States,' by Prof. Barnett Smith; 'The New England Primer,' edited by Paul Leicester Ford; a new work on the Brontës, by Angus Mackay; translations of A. Lavignac's 'Voyage Artistique à Bayreuth' and of Camille Bellaigue's 'Portraits of Musicians'; 'Stories of Famous Operas,' by Miss Guerber; 'Romance of the Irish Stage,' by Fitzgerald Molloy, and 'Dariel,' a romance of Surrey, by R. D. Blackmore.

Tennyson's 'In Memoriam,' illustrated by Harry Fenn, and furnished with a preface by Dr. Henry Van Dyke, is to be handsomely produced for the holidays by Fords, Howard & Hulbert.

Roberts Bros. will shortly issue Renan's 'Antichrist,' translated and edited by Joseph Henry Allen, and 'In Indian Tents,' stories told by the Indians of the Penobscot, Passamaquoddy, and Micmac tribes to Abby L. Alger.

D. C. Heath & Co. have in press the Second Part of 'Faust,' edited by Prof. Calvin Thomas of Columbia University.

A new Boston firm, of the class which is exercising a wholesome influence on taste in book manufacture, Richard G. Badger & Co., announces 'The Right Side of the Car,' a story by John Uri Lloyd, author of 'Etidorhpa.'

L. C. Page & Co. have nearly ready a new illustrated edition of William Kirby's 'Golden Dog,' a romance of Quebec.

Herbert S. Stone & Co., Chicago, will publish 'What Maisie Knew,' by Henry James; 'Phyllis in Bohemia,' by L. H. Bickford and Richard Stillman Powell; 'For the Love of Tonita, and Other Tales of the Mesas,' by Charles Fleming Embree; and 'Literary Statesmen, and Others,' essays by Norman Hapgood.

William Doxey, San Francisco, will issue 'Idle Hours in a Library,' by William Henry Hudson; 'The Wild Flowers of California: Their Names, Haunts, and Habits,' by Mary Elizabeth Parsons, illustrated by Margaret Warriner Buck; and 'The Sonnets from the *Trophées* of José de Hérédia,' translated by Edward Robeson Taylor.

If a sufficient number of guinea subscriptions can be obtained, the Clarendon Press, Oxford, will undertake an imperial quarto containing a facsimile of the original MS. of the Epistles to Timothy, Titus, and Philemon in Welsh, with a comparison of parallel versions and other enrichments. It will show the formation of a Welsh theological terminology and the development of a prose literary standard.

Hachette has published another volume in its series of monographs of Great French Writers, the author honored this time being the delightful, the subtle, the inimitable Marivaux. Coming so soon after the admirable work on Beaumarchais, the present one suffers by comparison. M. Gaston Deschamps, to whom has fallen the task of telling us about the delicate playwright and the novelist who inspired Richardson, has not been as happy as M. Hallays, and has failed to produce one of those books which come to mind as often as the name of the subject is mentioned. Not that the biography is a failure or the critical estimate a mistaken one; merely that there is not here that magic of style which in Hallays's 'Beaumarchais' made the man live again for us. That M. Deschamps has peculiar qualifications which pointed him out as the writer *par excellence* to take up Marivaux, every one must admit; but has he made the most of his subject? It is not enough to sympathize with Marivaux to the extent of disliking Molière and preferring the *soubrettes* of the eighteenth-century writer to the *domestiques* of the monarch of the comic stage. The book is easy reading for the most part, but is not striking in any respect, and it cannot be said that M. Deschamps has added to our knowledge of Marivaux or contributed to endear him more to us. Marivaux cannot be imitated, even by Musset, who merely surpasses him; hence it is impossible to speak the Marivaux tongue in writing about him, and no doubt this is the secret of our slight feeling of disappointment with M. Deschamps's work.

In the August number of the Bulletin of the New York Public Library is begun publication of 237 copy-press letters of Washington's acquired by the Lenox Library in 1895. They are on thin paper, partly reinforced in pencil, and sometimes illegible.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for August contributes to Jubilee literature an interesting review of explorations within British territory during the last sixty years. Each continent is taken up in turn, and, after a brief description of what had been accomplished in 1837, an account is given of the principal expeditions and their results. It is noteworthy that the greater part of the knowledge acquired of southern Central Asia is due to native Indian explorers. There is also a short notice, with a map, of the Mississippi flood of last April, by Henry Gannett of the United States Geological Survey. The region flooded had a population of nearly 400,000, and contained "fully 2,000,000 acres of cultivated land, mainly devoted to cotton and maize," and which produced a crop last year of 370,000 bales of cotton and more than 11,000,000 bushels of maize, valued at about $16,400,000. Extracts are given from recent Canadian official reports in regard to gold in the Yukon district.

Petermann's Mitteilungen, number seven, opens with an account of the remarkable crater lakes of the Eifel in Rhenish Prussia, together with tables and charts of depth and temperature. This is followed by the conclusion of Dr. Supan's summary of the scientific results of the Nansen expedition, and notes upon a map of middle Albania and Epirus showing the distribution of plant-life in this region.

A naturalist has been sent out by the British Museum, at the expense of Dr. John Murray, to explore Christmas Island, which lies two hundred miles south of Java and is separated from it by an ocean four miles deep. Its area is about one hundred square miles, the highest point being about 1,200 feet, and it has a remarkable fauna. "Three of the five known mammals," says the London *Times*, "all the land birds, and four out of five land reptiles are endemic. Of insects, out of some thirty-five specimens that have been determined, twenty-three were new." The flora, in which orchids are very common, is almost wholly unknown. The island, of which a small part only has been explored, is about to be utilized by a commercial company for its phosphates. This makes very desirable a scientific examination before its native conditions are altered by man's agency.

The Genizah, or treasure-house of an ancient synagogue in Cairo, is described in the *Times* by Dr. S. Schechter of Cambridge, Eng. It is a windowless and doorless room at the end of the gallery, with an entrance through a big shapeless hole reached by a ladder. Here, in obedience to the injunction upon the Jews not to destroy any of their sacred books, which finally came to include the preservation of all writings in the Hebrew characters, have been deposited, during the past thousand years, worn-out and defective copies of such books, sound copies of "disgraced" books (that is, such as have once pretended to the rank of Scriptures, but have been authoritatively condemned as uninspired), and various Hebrew documents. Some parts of the immense mass, which includes books printed during the last four hundred years, are in a fair state of preservation, others are squeezed into unshapely lumps, while still others are "literally ground to dust in the terrible struggle for space." Dr. Schechter was able to rescue about forty thousand fragments of manuscripts, which have been placed in the library of the University of Cambridge, and are now being carefully examined. They consist mainly of parts of the Old Testament, some going as "far back as the tenth century," of Jewish liturgical works, of the two Talmuds, very many hymns, legal documents, letters, prescriptions, amulets, and fragments of miscellaneous works.

From a short essay on "Nationaljudenthum und Zionismus," in *Die Kritik* (Berlin) for August 7, we learn that the movement for the reëstablishment of an independent Jewish state in Palestine has thus far resulted in the foundation, within the last ten years, of twenty-six flourishing villages, with a population of 9,000 peasants—a notable instance, probably without parallel in history, of a mercantile city population turning suddenly into hard-working tillers of the soil. The Jewish contributor to the *Kritik* attributes the success of the

movement to the unheard-of idealism of which his fellow-believers are capable, and to the enthusiasm with which the youth of his race has received the new ideas. These ideas of Jewish nationalism and of Zionism have both sprung from the conviction, which the last few decades have ripened, that a final assimilation of the Hebrews with the nations of western Europe is a practical impossibility.

A startling comparison was contained in a statement made recently in Parliament by Lord George Hamilton in his Indian budget speech. After referring to the extraordinary number of persons who have been fed by the Indian Government in the "relief camps" and by other agencies, amounting to several millions, he said, in effect, that throughout the present famine the greatest number of persons relieved at any one time bore a much smaller proportion to the population of British India than the proportion of persons in permanent receipt of poor relief in England bears to the population of that country.

There is in England a body of persons who have associated themselves together as the Thames Valley Legitimist Club. Their peculiar mission is to uphold the right of the Stuart family to the throne of Great Britain. To these odd people, not Queen Victoria, but a German princess, is their rightful sovereign. The club holds its meetings at intervals, but does nothing more dangerous than to pass futile resolutions, which are reported in the newspapers as practical jokes. But these belated Jacobites are not to be left alone in the enjoyment of their craze. A new association has just sprung up, which calls itself the Society of the Red Carnation, and seeks to cut into the Jacobite business. The Council of the Thames Valley Legitimist Club has gravely resolved that the new society is "unnecessary," and that the advanced programme is bound to create "divisions and disgust among all true Legitimists and Jacobites," and to bring the cause into derision. The speedy dissolution of the intruder is advised by the Council of the original patentees.

The overcrowded state of the medical profession in Great Britain has recently been the subject of discussion in the London press, and particularly in the columns of the *Standard*. Medical men are not so well off now as they were thirty or forty years ago. Among the causes of this state of things are, it is urged: (1) Increased competition; (2) the enormous growth of the out-patient departments of hospitals, and the increase in the number of special hospitals; (3) the great increase in the sale of patent medicines; (4) the liberty allowed to quacks and other unqualified practitioners; and (5) the extensive prescribing by chemists and druggists. The increase in the number of practitioners has been relatively greater than the increase in the population. In 1878 there was one medical practitioner to every 1,645 persons in England and Wales; now there is one practitioner to every 1,451 only. The facilities for education among the less well-to-do classes have, no doubt, had their share in adding to the numbers who have swollen the ranks of the medical profession. The number of hospitals and dispensaries in England and Wales was 755, with a medical staff of 3,377, in 1878; in 1893, the hospitals and dispensaries numbered 928, and the medical staff 4,454.

The lamps of literature in South America are but few in number. The extinction of any one of them cannot, therefore, but be regretted. For some twenty years past the colony of British Guiana has produced a very creditable half-yearly magazine bearing the name of *Timehri*, which is the aboriginal Indian term for the primitive picture-writings found in that part of the continent. This journal has successively been under the editorship of Messrs. Im Thurn, Queich, and Rodway, who have themselves contributed largely to its columns. Among its other contributors have been Messrs. Kirke, Jenman, Alford Nichols, and Prof. J. B. Harrison, with others of British Guiana and the West Indian Islands. The publication was not a commercial venture, and never paid its expenses. It was carried on at the expense of the Royal Agricultural and Commercial Society of British Guiana. Having regard to the grave condition of the sugar industry of the colony, which is being gradually borne down by the operation of the foreign bounties upon beet sugar, the Society does not feel justified in continuing its support to the publication after the 31st of December next, when the last number will appear. The happy possessors of complete sets of *Timehri* will all the more cherish their volumes.

Two numbers of the *Boletin de la Sociedad Geográfica de Lima* (2d and 3d trimestres, Año VI.) have been issued simultaneously, and present additional papers on the indigenous languages of the Andean region by Dr. Leonardo Villar and Don Eulogio Delgado. In the second trimestre we note articles of timely interest in connection with the recent gold excitement in the Province of Carabaya, by Antonio Raimondi (a reprint of a paper originally sent to the Royal Geographical Society of London), and by Manuel Cesár Vidal, whose observations were of later date than those of Raimondi. Señor Vidal's account is aided by a map. Of special interest to North Americans is the description (3d trimestre), by Solón Bailey, of Mt. Misti, under the brow of which stands the Arequipa Observatory of Harvard College. A cross section of the crater, and a beautiful phototype of the observatory, with Mt. Misti in the background, accompany the article.

The second volume of the 'Geografía Comercial de la América del Sur,' by Carlos B. Cisneros and Rómolo E. Garcia (Lima: J. Mesinas), has just been issued. The present volume deals with the Argentine Republic, and within 100 pages gives an excellent account of its geographical features and products, its cities and their leading industries, together with routes of communication; the whole elucidated by a small but well-executed map.

—The leading articles in the *Atlantic* for September are Theodore Roosevelt's on the New York Police Force, and Carroll D. Wright's "Are the Rich Growing Richer and the Poor Poorer?" Mr. Roosevelt gives a history of his own police administration, and mentions several facts worth bearing in mind, *e. g.*, that the best policemen come from military, naval, or railroad services; that the result of the "merit system" is to increase the percentage of Americans on the force; that before each election the board was obliged to reject as morally or mentally unfit more than one thousand of the election officers picked out by party organizations; that it is since Tammany disappeared that the Bertillon identification system has been introduced, the bicycle squad set up, and the tramp lodging-houses abolished. Mr. Wright, who has not only devoted years to the accumulation of statistics on the subject, but who is a man of sense and judgment, declares that the statement so continually made about the rich and poor is, as a whole, untrue. Both rich and poor are improving in condition. Wealth is not stationary, and consequently the accumulation of fortunes for the few does not mean "a corresponding drainage from the many." He does not discuss the favorite Socialist question whether the poor get their fair share of the general increase, though he thinks they do not; but as he does not, and, indeed, cannot, explain what a fair share would be, this has no bearing on his general argument. Mrs. Mabel Loomis Todd's "In Quest of a Shadow" is a pleasant account of the observation of the total eclipse of the sun in 1896, in the Japanese island of Yezo, with many charming little touches of Japanese life and manners. Mrs. Todd, our readers do not need to be reminded, accompanied the Massachusetts expedition. "A Man and the Sea," by Guy H. Scull, is good realism. But is there such a thing as an abstract realistic man, like the economic man of Ricardo and Malthus? Prof. Gildersleeve's "A Southerner in the Peloponnesian War" is a fanciful attempt to find correspondences between our civil war and that between Athens and Sparta. He himself admits that "there is no real resemblance" outside "the inevitable features of all armed conflicts," and his article has the curious effect of producing, under the promise of a parallel, a glaring contrast. Henry Childs Merwin, who writes about "The American Notion of Equality," and Prof. Woodrow Wilson, who declares that the art of "Being Human" is the art of Freedom and of Force, may be said to baffle criticism. Mr. Hill's second instalment of Swift's unpublished letters is full of entertainment. The letter of April 29, 1721, in which the Dean explains his ability as a Christian to take the oath of allegiance "to any Prince in possession," is as good as anything in Gulliver. His argument on the subject, he says, has already "convinced a young Gentleman of great Parts and Virtue," and he feels that he could "defend himself" by it anywhere.

—*Scribner's* has two readable illustrated articles on out-of-the-way places, one on San Sebastian, by William Henry Bishop; the other on the "Mingan Seigniory" in Canada, by Frederic Irland. Mr. Bishop doubts if Americans know much about San Sebastian—he found none there—though it cannot be above thirty miles from Biarritz. He notices, what may be observed in Spanish America also, the utter difference in character between the Frenchman and the Spaniard—a difference, notwithstanding their common religion and other points of solidarity, as great, perhaps, in some respects, as that between the Spaniard and the Englishman. San Sebastian is a place to which Spanish royalty goes, and Mr. Bishop saw the royalties bathe there, much as one might see bathers at Newport. He was struck with their simplicity and entire naturalness; even the infant King being allowed to wade about barefoot and dig in the sand like any other child. There is nothing very remarkable about this, but kings and queens in Europe nowadays always strike American travellers as simple and unaffected people,

because we involuntarily contrast their manners and dress with those of the home millionaire, our supreme type. The account given of the Mingan salmon by Mr. Irland is true, though people who have not been in that curious fishing country would not be likely to credit it. We have seen and can vouch for the fifteen-foot waterfalls up which the fish leap, and, still more singular, for the rocky salmon pool, so crowded that, as Mr. Irland says, "their tails and dorsal fins could constantly be seen sticking out of the water." Walter A. Wyckoff's account of his experiment in passing himself off as a laboring man ("The Workers—A Day Laborer at West Point") is overdone. Why should masons, bricklayers, and plasterers go to work at the lowest form of manual labor, at West Point, at $1.60 per day, when the skilled labor of men of their sort commands $3.50? And how do they manage to pay out of this for "huge slices of juicy sirloin" for supper? If the story is fact, it shows a strange state of things in the labor market. F. B. Sanborn's "Lord Byron in the Greek Revolution" is based in part on an examination, made some years ago, of books and manuscripts in Finlay's Athenian house. In "Some Notes on Tennessee's Centennial," accompanied by illustrations of his own, F. Hopkinson Smith describes this achievement of the South as it is, and sheds a passing tear over the South as it was, in what he calls the "Wood-fire and Old Mahogany" period, when Col. Cyarter of Cyartersville still owned a number of "likely boys," and Mr. Hopkinson Smith was too young to suspect that the civilization about him was already doomed. "At the Foot of the Rockies," by Abbe Carter Goodloe, is worth reading, and the opening chapters of "The Durket Sperret," by Sarah Barnwell Elliott, show power.

—*Harper's* contains an article, in a vein of prophecy, by Capt. Mahan, "A Twentieth Century Outlook," and an illustrated article on "The Beginnings of the American Navy," by James Barnes, both of which certainly ought not to have appeared in the same number, for one destroys the effect of the other. Capt. Mahan thinks that the next century will see a state of affairs—what it is to be, he is far from explaining clearly, for the excellent reason that he does not know—in which we shall need a powerful navy. Mr. Barnes, on the other hand, shows that on the occasion when we were in most pressing need of ships and had opposed to us the greatest naval power in the world, we managed to do very well without any navy at all. It seems that at the time of the Revolution, the United States lost but twenty-four regularly armed vessels during the war, while the British lost one hundred and two. About eight hundred vessels of all kinds were captured by the American cruisers and privateers, while not a single Yankee cruiser was taken by the privateers of England; yet sixteen English cruisers were captured by American privateers. These figures are accompanied by the statement that it is "rather surprising" that the American people should not immediately, on the termination of the war with England, "have profited more than they did by her example in establishing a naval force on a peace footing." On the contrary, it is not surprising at all; what is surprising is that the writer should think so. This article, Mrs. Pennell's "Around London by Bicycle" (the illustrations by her husband), and "The Lotus Land of the Pacific," by John Harrison Wagner, are the chief illustrated papers, though Frederick Remington's "Great Medicine Horse" should not be overlooked. The most substantial article in the number is Henry James's account of Du Maurier, which we advise every one to read. It is a study of Leech's great successor (who, as Mr. James points out, stands alone in his ability to see "the funny" in the beautiful, and the beautiful in "the funny"), of a friend, and also of English caricature—a subject in which Mr. James is thoroughly at home. Besides all this, there is an elaborate criticism of the three novels, of which Mr. James thinks 'Peter Ibbetson' the best; he declares that Du Maurier himself could not see why 'Trilby' was picked out as his masterpiece by the public. A pathetic account is given of the effect of the awful burst of publicity upon him, when the world was taken by storm, for he was a modest man, and to him the glare and noise of the to-do made over him by the many-headed was a "botheration." When the light began to fail him, as it soon did, he was actually suffering from a surfeit of fame; the critic hardly needed to hesitate over what he calls the whimsicality of saying that the great caricaturist had not merely achieved what he wished and enjoyed what he wanted, but had both enjoyed and achieved a good deal more.

—It would be impossible to notice the *Century* for this month critically without going into a great deal of detail. Pierre de Coubertin's notes about "Royalists and Republicans" (illustrated by A. Castaigne) set old Bourbondom on its legs once more in the midst of contemporary France, evoking for the purpose the royal ghost of Frohsdorf. Apart from the continued fiction, all of which will, no doubt, claim criticism sooner or later as books, and to pass over for the same reason the penultimate instalment of General Porter's "Campaigning with Grant," two illustrated articles out of the common way are "Prisoners of State at Boro Boedor," by Eliza Ruhamah Scidmore, and "Cruelty in the Congo Free State," from the journals of the late E. J. Glave, an account of whose last days and death is subjoined by the editor of the magazine in a postscript. The first of them gives a description of ruins of Buddhist and Brahmanic temples in middle Java, said to surpass in "extent and magnificence" anything to be seen in Egypt or India—beauty and grandeur, it will be noticed, are not the terms chosen; the second is one of those sad and interesting chapters of African life which make us sometimes regret that the advance of knowledge and discovery and all the appliances of publicity must bring within our horizon more and more human wretchedness, curable only, however, by more publicity. Harry Furniss, the caricaturist, furnishes some "Glimpses of Gladstone," and seems to labor under the impression that his drawings of Gladstone are not properly caricatures. "Browning's Summers in Brittany" (illustrated by George Wharton Edwards) takes the reader to enchanted ground, and gives him something to think about at the same time.

—The *Revue Encyclopédique Larousse*, which, since it became a weekly, seems inclined to emphasize the last word in its title, has a more or less praiseworthy habit of bringing out now and then a special number of double or triple thickness, devoted entirely to some one subject. These numbers are often of considerable interest, and, under the well-known Larousse limitations, of a certain value. The issue of July 24 is one of these, and is devoted to Belgium, which it regards in many aspects, but chiefly in those that concern the arts. The articles it contains are for the most part, if not entirely, the work of well-known Flemish writers of the present time: M. Maurice Maeterlinck, M. Emile Verhaeren, M. Georges Eckhoud, M. Albert Mockel, M. Camille Lemonnier, M. Edmond Picard. Each of them speaks of what he knows best and likes best, and so their work is of value in itself; but the number also possesses a special interest as giving a sort of bird's-eye view of contemporaneous Flemish literature. One does not often see the work of so many representative writers of a country placed side by side. What one notes first in the present instance is the general air of "Jeunesse"; but Young Belgium is not exactly Young France, though there are indications that the very youngest France is drawing towards it and, more or less to its own advantage, submitting to its influence. To speak particularly of the different articles in the Review would lead us too far. The illustrations in it are to be noted, both for the excellence of some of the process prints, and for the wisdom which has determined the choice of the pictures, old and new, which are represented. There are, besides, many interesting portraits, some from photographs and some from paintings. Among the photographs will be found one of M. Maurice Maeterlinck looking somewhat older than in the usual photographs of him, and one of M. Emile Verhaeren, who seems to have gained the years of youth which Maeterlinck has lost. An admirable portrait of M. Georges Rodenbach and an almost equally admirable drawing of M. Cyriel Buysse are also given. A bibliography of the chief books relating to Belgium closes the number.

—The Lambeth Conference of Bishops of the Anglican communion which has just closed, gave occasion to the Bishop of Oxford of bringing out a second edition of his 'Registrum Sacrum Anglicanum' (Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde). The book is a list of all the bishops that have ever held English sees, and is intended to exhibit the course of episcopal succession in England as it may be gathered from the records and chronicles of the Church. This has been a labor of love on the part of Dr. Stubbs, who has (as he says and as the world knows) naturally that strong instinct for the investigation of continuities and coincidences which leads men to the study of chronology and genealogy for the pleasure of exercise—an instinct that was favored by the circumstances of early home education and local association. His book has been almost exactly fifty years in the making, and the first edition of it appeared about forty years ago. Its authority rests upon original documentary evidence to the almost complete exclusion of any second-hand testimony. In the first edition a tabular arrangement was followed. This has now been given up, which enables the author to exhibit distinctly the principal authorities for the several dates, and particular references to the editions of chronicles and other records, many of which have been printed since 1858. The book is simply indispensable to every student of English ecclesiastical history. One notes with

interest that Dr. Stubbs finds less new material for the mediæval portion of the work than might have been expected from the research made in the Papal archives since the accession of Leo XIII. It is pretty, too, to observe the summary disposition Dr. Stubbs makes of the lists of British and Welsh bishops anterior to the coming of Augustine, which were so dear to the heart of old-fashioned high churchmen. He sweeps them all into the dust-hole of an appendix, with the remark that this is done in order to clear away at once all questionable legendary matter from the subject. "There is probably some little truth in each of them," he says, "but so much that is simple fabrication that I have thought it better to insert them whole here, with what remarks I have to make on them, than to mix with undoubtedly true records any portion of what stands on so weak a foundation." Both in respect of these lists and, in fact, generally, students who compare, however hastily and slightly, the present volume with such works as Godwin's 'De Presulibus' and Le Neve's 'Fasti,' will note a contrast which, however oft repeated, is still startling, between the historical work of a critical and a non-critical age.

—There has just been published in New York a quaint little volume of Judeo-German poetry from the pen of Morris Rosenfeld, which marks an era in Jewish literature. Heretofore the poetry of the Russian Jews has consisted in the main of folk-songs, accessible in language and sentiment only to those of their own race and country. By the masterly productions of Mr. Rosenfeld, until lately a tailor by trade, a new road has been opened for it, one that leads to universal literature and demands universal recognition. The Jewish Muse sings in the minor key of oppression and suffering; so, too, our author's poems have frequently tears for their subject, and their burden is the unanswered question. The keynote is struck in his "Cemetery Nightingale," who of all places chooses the "Guter Ort" in which to pour out his sweetest songs. His ballads and legends have all a painful charm about them, and even such sentiments as generally cause others pleasant sensations make him smile through tears. The poet's technique is perfect, the melody of his rhythms and word-grouping is very remarkable in a dialect in which Slavic and Hebrew elements seem only to have corrupted its German base. Mr. Rosenfeld is the first one in his language to sing of youth and spring and love. We quote a stanza from his "The Jewish May" (in the German orthography, as far as the dialect permits of it), but one must read a whole poem before coming under the poet's spell:

> Wieder nemmt der Frühling mohlen
> Mit sein Pinsel—wie er schmiert,
> Weren Berger, weren Tholen,
> Werd die Erd' mit Grün verziert.
> Wieder lacht die Sunn' arunter
> Zu der Welt un' macht ihr munter;—
> Mit ihr Schmeichel (smile), mit ihr Kuss
> Macht sie greet (ready) ihr zum Genuss. . .

What makes the poet's genius the more remarkable is that he was born into a family of humble fishermen, and that he has received no other education than that which familiarizes every Jewish boy in Russia with the language and literature of his religious lore.

MR. LOGAN IN RUSSIA.

In Joyful Russia. By John A. Logan, jr. D. Appleton & Co.

One of the Arabian Nights' Tales relates the mishaps of voyagers who navigated too near the great mountain of lodestone, and suffered shipwreck in consequence. A volume would hardly suffice to narrate the mishaps of the over-bold travellers of modern days who go to pieces in Russia. The latest unfortunate on the list is Mr. John A. Logan, jr. Had he confined himself to a plain statement of what he saw during the coronation time and the remainder of his brief stay, taking due advice, and making careful observations, his book would have been small but valuable. The fragment of it which fulfils those conditions is valuable and, since his style is direct and graphic and his opportunities for seeing a limited part of Russian life were unusually good, interesting. Unfortunately, he has not been content with this, but his ambition "to write a book about Russia" on the ordinary slender foundations has betrayed him into a great deal of "padding," the greater portion of which has been taken from the works of writers who have preceded him. As his own knowledge of the language, life, and conditions was no larger than could reasonably be demanded of an impromptu visitor, the resulting web of ingeniously interwoven quotations (acknowledged and unacknowledged) was, of necessity, put together without any possible criterion, and all the original inaccuracies are incorporated with the natural misconceptions of the writer himself.

It is not usual to make mention of such secondary matters as the illustrations before the text has been duly examined, but in this case it will prove instructive if we reverse the common procedure and say a few words concerning them, because we shall thereby arrive directly at a characteristic feature of the whole work. Nine of the illustrations are extremely misleading, to say the least, though in varying degrees. Taking them in their order, they are as follows: P. 8, the Borovitzky Gate of the Kremlin is wrongly labelled "The Nikolsky Gate"; p. 32, "The Grand Duke Alexander Alexandrovitch" should read "Alexander Mikhailovitch"; and in the fulsome chapter on the reigning Empress, "The Empress Alexandrovna" means simply "The Empress, daughter of Alexander," instead of Alexandra Feodorovna (Alexandra, daughter of Feodor, her proper name); p. 43, "A Peasant of the Better Class" is a stock photograph, made, like the costume therein depicted, to be sold in the shops to confiding strangers, and the costume is not more genuinely peasant than is the woman who wears it; p. 67, "Our Little Servant" is another stock photograph of a Little Russian girl, with a Little Russian, not a Moscow, oven; pp. 111 and 265, "The Emperor's Bedroom" and "A Room in the Empress's Private Suite in the Palace of the Kremlin" are in reality two of the ancient, unused rooms in the old Terem, maintained as specimens of ancient building. The imperial apartments are in a different part of the palace, are entirely modern, and are not shown to every traveller. P. 151, "Georgian and Caucasian costumes" are merely the ordinary Cossack uniform, worn all over the empire by members of the Cossack regiments. P. 232, "Chapel at Petrovski Palace" is, in reality, a famous church at Ostankino, built in 1648, while the Petrovski palace—several miles away—was built in 1840. P. 239, "A Russian Merchant-Koopyets" is another stock photograph of a fashionable coachman in winter attire, as the author would (perhaps) have known had he been in Russia during the winter, whose climate, customs, and so forth, he repeatedly describes as though from personal observation. We may mention, in passing, that the four colored plates entirely fail to give any idea of the true coloring. The moral which the above-mentioned illustrations, with their easily rectified and wholly erroneous inscriptions, preach is, that Mr. Logan was not a careful observer even of what he really saw. The reader can readily judge of the length of his stay from the fact that he had time to write the book in Switzerland before the summer ended. We are able, therefore, to pronounce with considerable certainty as to what he had even the opportunity to observe.

His errors of commission and omission are so numerous that we must content ourselves with summary mention of the majority of them. P. 7, pilgrims do not carry samovars about with them and brew sizzling tea in the streets. P. 9, the corps of the Russian army at the railway stations is the gendarmes' corps. P. 15, Izvostchiks do not have a pillow sewed to the back of their coats; the fashionable men have them applied with artful fixedness, which prevents the amusing disarrangement described. P. 21, the passage concerning the policeman, his house, and habits is copied, unacknowledged, from F. Wishaw's thoroughly delightful 'Out of Doors in Tzarland,' and is erroneous in that work also. The anecdote of sleepers in the streets, recorded with an extraordinary use of the word "should," and mentioned again on p. 177, is unusual, if not incredible. P. 36 contains a passage originally written concerning some experience during a famine by an author not mentioned. Any physician could have informed the author that no class of people can use, as their "staple food," tree-bark and grass, raw or baked, without speedily turning to angels. P. 39, sterlet soup, we are told, "is better than clam chowder, and not altogether unlike it." It is wholly unlike it, if properly made. P. 48, the fine description of the habits of the blackcock and the manner of hunting them is taken from Wishaw's book just cited. P. 59, there is not "an ikon on the wall of every room in every Russian house," for there are stated proper places, not universal, for them. Neither is an ikon, necessarily, "a half-length picture." P. 60, it is a pity that the author did not fill out the quoted passage about the metal garments on the ikons with an explanation, if he found one in his authorities. There is a very rational and easy explanation. P. 61, here, and in nearly every other case where Russian words are used with a knowing effect, they are misspelled almost to the point of being unrecognizable. "Tchudotrormy" represents tchudotvorny; p. 76, "garmouka" for garmonka; p. 130, "Unpenski" for Uspenski; p. 244, "starvst" and "voriadnik" for starost and uriadnik; p. 254, "Shevtcheuko" and Seukovski for Shevtchenko and Senkovski. All these could easily have been avoided, as well as Somonosof for Lomonosoff, p. 260, and "Efunovitch" for Evfimovitch on the same page. P. 95, we find the old familiar fable about Ivan the Terrible putting out the eyes of the architect who built the Cathedral of St. Basil. As a matter of fact, the wooden church which preceded the present one on the same site was built under Ivan, who died long before the present one (the

one in question) was finished. P. 110, the Emperor and Empress did not spend their three days of religious retirement at the Petrovsky Palace, as the author will remember, but at the Alexandrinsky Palace, several miles away.

Mr. Logan's description of the actual coronation ceremony, which he did not see, is quite good and accurate (as it is taken from a competent authority), with one or two exceptions. The impression conveyed by the introduction of the benedictions and other phrases in Latin is that Latin was the language used in the service; whereas, as always in the Russian Church, it was Old Church Slavic. Moreover, when he asserts (pp. 118, 235, 237) that the Russian Church "acknowledges the Czar as its spiritual chief," he speaks in ignorance of the facts, as he does when he states that the Virgin Mary is "worshipped." If he will refer to the Office for the Reception of Converts into the Orthodox Church, he will find the position of the Church on both those points distinctly and unmistakably set forth; the spiritual Head of the Church is Christ, and it has no earthly head; the Virgin Mother receives homage, but not worship. Neither is it true that "every soldier in the army is a blind idolater, and has learned at his mother's knees and in the village church that the noblest thing he can do is to lay down his life for his ruler, or to spend it in unquestioning service." That doctrine is not preached, and, in the thousands of pages of the Church Service books, it is not once mentioned. However, it sounds well, like many other attempts at fine writing which serve to fill out the requisite number of pages. Equally misleading are other statements in this chapter upon the Church. The Russian Church does not "attach to her priesthood plenary powers of indulgence" (p. 234). Unlike the Roman Catholic Church, she admits of no indulgence. And the Patriarch Nikon was not "banished to the Siberian desert" (p. 235), but to a place less than 200 miles from St. Petersburg's present site. So far is it from the truth that when Russian priests "become widowers they lose their cures and must become monks," that the proof of the contrary can be obtained in New York city. A recent number of the *Russian American Messenger*, the official organ of the Russian Church in America, published in New York, mentioned the need for an assistant in the cathedral at San Francisco, adding: "A widower or monk is preferred"; and a widower is arch-priest over one of the Pennsylvania parishes.

Other extraordinary statements can be found in the chapter, "How We Washed in Russia." On p. 187, the author describes the method of heating by means of "large blocks of wood" placed in an oven in one corner. "When they have become sufficiently heated, the attendant throws over them quantities of cold water sufficient to make as much steam as if a boiler had burst. . . . In order to enhance the steam, bunches of birch twigs are first dipped in the water and then thrust into the oven. During the steaming process, the attendant takes one of these bunches of birch rods and proceeds to beat the bather." It hardly requires an expert to perceive how dangerous and short-lived blocks of wood—even of hard wood—would be for such a use as that described; stones are the proper thing, and probably what the author saw. Peter the Great, very appropriately, used cannon-balls. The birch twigs would hardly enhance the steam to any extent; they are thus treated to prevent the leaves from falling off during the beating process, and to render them soft to the flesh. The "excelsior" here mentioned is merely finely shredded linden bast. Perhaps the most remarkable assertion of all is that contained in the description of the Christmas masquerading and the religious ceremony of "The Blessing of the Waters," at the end of this chapter. This will be interesting news to Russians. It is true that many peasants jump into the stream after it has been blessed, both at the Feast of the Epiphany (in commemoration of Christ's baptism in the Jordan), which is here referred to, and on various other occasions, of less importance, during the year, when the same ceremony takes place for other reasons, and in milder weather. But that it is merely a lavish way of using holy water, instead of a special cleansing process after fancy-dress frolics, may be gathered from the fact that, at this particular "Jordan" Blessing of the Waters, the Church statutes enjoin the priests to drink of the holy water before partaking of food, under certain conditions, and the priests assuredly are not "purging their devout bodies from the uncleanness they had absorbed from indiscreet wearing of heathen-like garments."

The chapter on "Slavic Literature" is charmingly ingenuous. It deals with the whole subject as a freshly discovered and original field of investigation, conveying the impression of profound research in the native tongue and dialects. But how fresh it is to the author himself is shown by his remark preceding copious quotations (acknowledged) from Dr. Georg Brandes, on the Epic Songs or Byliny. "The history of these bilini is so deeply interesting that I venture to dwell upon it, feeling sure that they are unknown to thousands of English and American readers who are fairly familiar with modern Russian fiction." In 1886 'The Epic Songs of Russia,' by Isabel F. Hapgood, with an introduction by the late Prof. Francis J. Child of Harvard College, was published in New York, and became a standard book, familiar not only to thousands of Americans and English, but to many Russians as well. In the absence of reliable authorities from whom he could quote, or the rare knowledge of the subject, which demands long residence and study, as well as acquaintance with the Russian language, history, and other branches, it is not surprising that the chapter on "Slavic Art" should be unsatisfactory, despite its enthusiastic appreciation.

It would not have been worth while to enter into these details had the pretensions of the book been less, and the tone less aggressively authoritative. But, having criticised its shortcomings, we must give due credit to the spirited style, the freshness, and interest of chapters xxii. and xxiii., on Russian Horses, taken from Col. Ismailoff's Chicago Exposition volume; the truth of the comments (p. 18) on the present incapacity for self-government of the Russian masses; page 50, the quality of food in the prisons; page 79, on bathing at home, and, in general, the author's personal experiences; page 88, the disappointing effect of the much-lauded gypsy singers, and the exquisite Russian courtesy which makes a guest feel that he is conferring, as well as receiving, a favor; page 152, on the simple manner of the Emperor and Empress, driving, unattended, and heartily received by their people; p. 153, on the manufacture of terrible stories for foreign consumption.

A Description of the Wordsworth and Coleridge Manuscripts in the Possession of Mr. T. Norton Longman. With three facsimile reproductions. Edited with notes by W. Hale White. Longmans, Green & Co.

This sumptuous book describes four volumes of Wordsworth and Coleridge manuscripts belonging to Mr. T. Norton Longman of the publishing family. The first of these volumes comprises the "copy" for most of volume ii. of the 1800 edition of the 'Lyrical Ballads' and for a part of volume i., together with a number of letters. The second and third are the "copy" for the 1802 edition of the same. The fourth is the manuscript of the 'Poems in Two Volumes,' 1807. A bare statement of the contents of Mr. Longman's manuscripts conveys, however, no idea of their interest. This is biographical as well as literary, for, as the editor justly remarks, even such a detail as "the intermixture of handwritings is remarkable evidence of the intimacy of the relationship between Coleridge, Wordsworth, and Dorothy, and shows how much the 'Lyrical Ballads' of 1800 owed to love and friendship." We shall not attempt an exhaustive notice of a book which every student of Wordsworth or Coleridge will wish to possess, or at least to examine, but shall rest content with mentioning some of the interesting things which it contains.

Among these is a holograph letter from Wordsworth to "Mr. Davy, Superintendent of the Pneumatic Institution, Bristol" (afterwards the celebrated Sir Humphry Davy), begging him "to look over the enclosed poems and correct anything he finds amiss in the punctuation"—"a business," continues Wordsworth, "in which I am ashamed to say I am no adept." With this letter were enclosed "Hartleap Well," "There was a Boy," "Ellen Irwin," and part of "The Brothers."

Interesting, also, is the sheet, in Dorothy Wordsworth's hand, containing the Notes to the first volume of the 'Lyrical Ballads.' This includes Wordsworth's strangely banal criticism of "The Ancient Mariner"—a note which was dropped after 1800. Curiously enough, there is little reason to doubt that these unappreciative remarks allowed the poem merits quite as great as Coleridge himself was disposed to claim for it.

Of very great interest is the sixteenth sheet in the first manuscript volume. This sheet, which is entirely in Coleridge's hand, contains the whole of "Love," with various corrections. Coleridge has deleted one whole stanza, much to the improvement of the poem, though the verses are beautiful in themselves. The sheet also contains more than seventy alterations for "The Ancient Mariner." The felicity of some of these changes is hardly surpassed by Milton's amazing revision of his "Lycidas." It is in this manuscript, for instance, that

> "Are those *her* naked ribs, which fleck'd
> The sun that did behind them peer?"

is first changed to

> "Are those *her* ribs thro' which the sun
> Did peer, as thro' a grate?"

And again, the halting stanza,

> "Since then at an uncertain hour,

Now oftimes and now fewer,
That anguish comes and makes me tell
My ghastly aventure,"

is transmuted into

"Since then at an uncertain hour
That agony returns;
And till my ghastly tale is told
This heart within me burns."

The copy for the 1802 edition of the 'Lyrical Ballads' contains two highly interesting cancelled passages, now printed for the first time. Both are important for the history of Wordsworth's critical opinions, and the first will repay study.

Mr. Longman's last volume contains some textual variations of moment, all of which are registered by Mr. White. "The Tinker" and lines "On Seeing some Tourists of the Lakes pass by reading" have never before been printed.

Nothing but praise is due to Mr. Hale White for his part in this book. His account of the material is clear, and his editorial work seems to have been performed with scrupulous accuracy. The facsimile reproductions are "The Brothers" (in part), the letter to Mr. Davy, Coleridge's "Love," and a part of the "Ode on Immortality." They are beautifully executed. In closing this summary notice it is our painful duty to quote, for our readers' benefit, two sentences from the preface, which tell their own story: "Professor Knight, in his last edition of Wordsworth's Poems, has inserted some of the various readings found in the [Longman] MSS. He has not, however, in all cases transcribed them correctly, nor is the transcription complete."

Book and Heart: Essays on Literature and Life. By Thomas Wentworth Higginson. Harper & Bros. 1897.

The fanciful title taken by Mr. Higginson for his collection of essays (reprinted, in part, from reviews and newspapers) is explained on the title-page by a quotation from the New England Primer, and still further elucidated by the table of contents. With literature and life the essayist concerns himself, and there is a great deal of pleasant talk about both in his pages. We ourselves like the literary essays best, for those which deal with life are occasionally suggestive of the pulpit; but if called upon to defend our preference, we doubt very much whether we have any better reason than a reprehensible aversion to the pulpit "tone," as one might shy at the medical or legal, on occasion. Mr. Higginson's views of life cannot be called those of a man of the world—they are rather those of a recluse and scholar, who has had a good deal to do with life without ever having fallen under the thraldom of what is known as society. Yet Swelldom, as existent in Newport, is not unknown to him; and in a very good essay on the "Problem of Drudgery," he naïvely confesses that his own most vivid memory of social drudgery goes back to an evening at the chief club in that town, where three or four fashionable men debated for two hours the question of servants' liveries. Though men come and go, this goes on for ever, for fashionable men are really interested in servants' liveries, and people, fashionable or unfashionable, talk about what interests them. After all, which is the worst, that the vapid should talk about what interests vapidity, or that, as in former days, they should affect an interest in literary things, to such as they really incomprehensible? But this is beside the point, which is that life means drudgery for all, and that the secret of happiness is congenial work. Hence literature and art stand high among pursuits (Mr. Higginson cautiously limits the statement by adding "to those who love them"), because their very drudgery is mostly a pleasure.

Mr. Higginson is an accomplished literary critic, and has also, what many critics have not, a gift for reproducing personal impressions, as in the account of "Lowell's Closing Years in Cambridge" in this volume. Essays like these are not dogmatic or polemic; they are rather the friendly talk of a thoughtful man, with whom we may not always agree, but whose suggestions we may take or leave. One point, however, we must dispute. The author declares (p. 133) that it is becoming more and more "absurd" to classify men and women "by occupation instead of character." How is this to be reconciled with the classification of literature and art at the top of all? A world in which people are classified by merit, virtue, intellect, and character is an old and beautiful ideal, but there is nothing absurd in other classifications; and visible external differences, such as rank, clothes, money, power, manners, and occupations, are instinctively fastened upon as among the necessary tests applied by everybody. No kind of labor can be degrading, our author thinks, and we say so, too; but that does not prove that manual labor is ennobling, or prevent the inference, as matters stand, that it would be absurd to put Mr. Higginson and a hod-carrier in the same social class. We dislike the word "class," because it recalls caste, but without classes, according to some test, every logician must admit that there can be no classification, and we see no reason to believe that a classification by merit only could ever be of more than limited application. The fact is, that the dream is of a unitary system of classification in a non-unitary world.

Essays and Addresses. By Sir J. Russell Reynolds, Bart., F. R. S., M.D. Lond. etc., etc. Macmillan. Pp. xxiv, 307.

The friends of Dr. Russell Reynolds have built for him the best of monuments in a volume of his occasional addresses. His face in the frontispiece—one of those in which Charles Lamb says the heavenly dove sits visibly brooding—is in keeping with his discourses. The idea pervading all his utterances—not obtrusively, but like a sweet and subtle aroma—is that materialistic views not only are false in fact, but tend to inhuman and unsuccessful medical treatment.

His life was that of an ideal doctor. During the whole of it, from his twenty-fourth year, he dwelt in the same London house, succeeding another doctor there. All that time (1852-1896) he was busy in metropolitan colleges, hospitals, or practice. Seldom was he beyond hearing of Bow Bells. When sixty years old he had a glimpse of the Alps, and about the same time made one address in Bristol and another in Bolton. No wonder that these excursions were his only claims to membership in the Travellers' Club, for he held that frequent rides, even in an easy-going, first-class English coach, must generate diseases. "Prominent among these," he remarks, "are insomnia, defective memory," etc. "The jar of frequently-stopping suburban trains is seriously damaging, even when a busy man is concussed into a sort of coma by six to seven minutes of the train" (p. 262).

Dr. Reynolds, in 1884, delivering the Harveian oration before the Royal College, of which he died President, was glad to recall the fact that his grandfather in 1776 had enjoyed the same honor. This oration was the most elaborate of the grandson's productions; nor can we easily find so good a tribute to Harvey, not only as discovering —that is, proving—the circulation of the blood, but as filled with a philosophical spirit of prophecy, thanks to which he anticipated in idea many nineteenth-century revelations. One at least of the articles in this memorial volume has been long known in America, since it formed the introduction to 'A System of Medicine,' which Dr. Reynolds edited in 1866. Several other articles, which served well for local and temporary ends, and which personal friends would not willingly let die, cannot be of much interest to the general or even medical public. Dr. Reynolds was hospitable to new ideas. He describes with gusto the first trial at an amputation by a sceptic of "the Yankee dodge for making men insensible," as the use of ether for an anæsthetic was called, and its triumphant success (p. 274). His last address was entitled "The Organized Progress of Medicine." He loved to contrast the harmonious compromises in his latter days with his youth, when a triangular and internecine fight was waging between antiphlogistics, "who would bleed every one, whether he had pneumonia, apoplexy, a compound fracture, or a fit"; expectants, who would do nothing for a patient but watch him as the Levite did the Jew who had been left half dead by thieves; and those whose therapeutics were based on brandy. He died happy in the discoveries he had seen "as to the pituitary body, the thyroid gland, and the suprarenal capsules, as well as regarding the metabolic properties of the liver and the spleen" (p. 296), and in faith that, standing on the threshold of still greater revelations, he saw through the portal a larger knowledge as to the nutrition of all organs, of the way in which this is brought about, and of the interdependence of all tissues.

South and East Africa. By C. P. Lucas. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

It is a real pleasure to read on a timely and difficult subject a book as well written as this one. Of its two parts, which make up the fourth volume of Mr. Lucas's 'Historical Geography of the British Colonies,' the first is purely historical. As he says in beginning:

"The story of South Africa is unique in the chronicles of European colonization. For a century and a half it is the barren record of a landmark—the Cape. For another century and a half it is little more than the story of a port of call, round which a small settlement gathered. It is now the unfinished tale of a wide dominion.

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the home and abiding-place of a large white population."

In less than three hundred and fifty short pages the author gives us an excellent account of the three periods without ever letting our interest flag. If it is easy enough to write dispassionately of earlier events, the times of Dutch dominion, the task becomes increasingly delicate for each decade of the present century. Almost at every page the writer has to dwell upon subjects that have provoked great difference of opinion and aroused bitter feeling; some of them are burning questions at the present day. As between the whites and the blacks, the missionaries and the settlers, the colonists and the home Government, the Boers and the English, Mr. Lucas remains calm and judicial, striving to be fair to both parties, and, we believe, succeeding. Naturally the troubles of the last two years are touched upon but lightly. We know of no other book which contains such an admirable short account of South African history, clear and impartial, well proportioned, well thought out, and well expressed.

The second part, which is chiefly geography, being more technical, will be of less interest to the general reader: indeed, the short chapters, excellent in themselves, are hardly longer than encyclopædia articles. The most important of them, the one on British East Africa, is particularly attractive, although, with its acompanying map, it is open to question on political grounds. Here, as in several other regions of the world, the last word in the settling of boundaries between the French and English has not yet been heard—a fact which the latter are trying to ignore. Still, we do not wish to end with a criticism our remarks on so satisfactory a work, but prefer instead to call attention to the eleven little maps that form a useful supplement to the text.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 16, 1897.

The Week.

The Ohio Gold Democrats showed on Thursday that they have both courage and convictions to base it on. If a platform alone were to be voted on in Ohio, theirs ought to have the best chance of winning, as it is incomparably better than either of the others. It is the Indianapolis platform brought down to date, with the Dingley bill to give fresh point to the demand for taxation for revenue only, the lavish appropriations to the demand for economy, the action of President McKinley (which the platform praises) to the demand for civil-service reform, and the Hawaiian annexation treaty to the demand for a peaceful foreign policy. All told, the platform is a model of political principles fitted to the crying needs of the hour. Whether the ticket nominated secures many or few votes, the Gold Democrats of Ohio have at least raised a standard to which honest men may rally.

The Ohio campaign was formally "opened" on Saturday, and one reads the speeches in vain to find a clear note of political leadership or courage. Of Senator Hanna's performance it is enough to say that it explains his praise of the Senate and his indignant denial that it has degenerated. The school-boy style and low tone of this speech of one of the great men of the modern Senate show how its own standards of judgment are vitiated. The very denial of decay is proof of decay. To make the exhibition of Republican harmony in Ohio complete, ex-Secretary Foster, who made such a lamentable bankruptcy under the Wilson bill, was brought out as a striking evidence of what the Dingley bill has done to restore prosperity. He undertook to hurl back two falsehoods, one of which was that the funds began to run low before Harrison went out, and that he, Foster, had made all his preparations to issue bonds. This falsehood, he complains, has been so many times repeated that even Republicans have believed it. So they have, including those Republican bankers in this city with whom Mr. Foster discussed his intended operation, and including also those Republican officials in the Treasury who were surprised when the orders to prepare bonds were countermanded. Mr. Foster's denial lacks something of completeness. The way he meets the charge that he prepared to sell bonds is by asserting that the revenue was sufficient to pay expenses. But if the issue of bonds was contemplated in order to fortify the imperilled gold reserve, or as a general measure of precaution, then this denial does not deny. Mr. Foster must be more explicit if he really means to set right all the financial historians of the period in question.

During the recent session of Quay's Legislature, the Republican machine insisted upon padding the pay-rolls with the names of many "runners" and "heelers," who were to be paid out of the public treasury for partisan work. Quay's creatures in the Senate and House did not shrink from passing bills appropriating money for this purpose, and the State Treasurer was called upon for the amounts allowed to these fictitious and unlawful employees. This official suspected that the Governor might not be so complaisant to the boss as the legislators had been, and he refused to pay any of these illegitimate allowances until a lot of prominent Republican politicians had given him a $20,000 bond to indemnify him if the Executive should veto the padded list, as in due course of time he did. One of the names on this bond was that of the Secretary of the Commonwealth, Gen. Frank Reeder, and Gov. Hastings has very properly forced the resignation of a man who thus showed himself ready to condone fraud upon the public treasury. Another State official, Deputy Attorney-General Elkin, has had to resign for the same reason. It is obvious that political motives reinforced the dictates of propriety in leading the Governor to force these retirements. Both the offending officials have been Quay men, and anti-Quay men are reported to be slated as their successors. Indeed, Gov. Hastings has thrown a cloud over the motives for his action by offering the secretaryship to Dave Martin, one of the most unscrupulous Republican politicians in Philadelphia, whose appointment is a disgrace to the State. The gossips hold that this is only the first step in an organized movement for the overthrow of Quay, in which Chris Magee of Pittsburgh is to join. Unhappy Republicans of Pennsylvania, who have to choose only between Quay and a Martin-Magee "combine"!

The architects' competition to secure the best plans for the new Pennsylvania State-house has come to grief. It is the old story of politicians being so much more expert than the experts. The architectural experts recommended any one of eight plans, having rejected thirty. This at once alarmed the politicians on the building commission. Why were any plans rejected? Especially why were any plans of friends of theirs rejected? It was all very well for the experts to say the rejected plans did not comply with the conditions, or were obviously inferior. It was not at all obvious to the Commissioners, who proceeded, by a vote of 4 to 1, to kick the report of the experts out of doors, and to invite architects to resubmit their plans to the Commissioners direct. This action was taken only after Gov. Hastings, himself a member of the commission, had pointed out that it would be an act of bad faith towards the experts and the public and an insult to every architect. But what did the commission care about that? They knew that it would not be regarded as an insult by "a certain architect," whose plans, it was freely charged, they were determined to approve and adopt, despite the adverse decision of the experts.

We consider it a most fortunate thing for this city that Richard Croker should have returned from abroad to reassume control of the Tammany forces just at this time. He landed at the very moment when the long contest between Senator Platt and the Citizens' Union reached its crisis. Public attention had been concentrated for many weeks upon the frantic efforts of the Republican boss to convince the Citizens' Union that it had no right to take away from him, or to exercise without his permission, the power of making nominations. He was insisting, and his arguments and threats filled many columns of the newspapers daily, that unless he was allowed to name the candidates first, the party organization which he controlled would not only refuse to accept them, but would put up other candidates, and thus make the triumph of good government impossible. Meanwhile, the extraordinary reception given to the newly landed Tammany boss by the press and politicians called public attention chiefly to one great fact, namely, that he not only claimed the right of nomination for the Tammany forces, and for the entire Democratic party, but that his complete possession of this right was conceded. What were the Democratic voters who were so exacting in their demands about the avoidance of all contamination with Republican boss rule, going to do about this? Would they submit to that in their own party which they had declared to be so odious in the Republican party? In this, Croker has performed a public service of incalculable value. He has done even more than Platt to justify the course of the Citizens' Union, for he has shown to Democrats as well as to Republicans that there can be no honest rule of the city, no real good government, except through the election of

candidates on the plan proposed and followed by the Citizens' Union.

Senator Gallinger of New Hampshire confesses his intellectual poverty in his reply to Carl Schurz, by drawing the chief part of his material from the works of the late James G. Blaine and those of another writer whose name is not given. It is within the memory of the present generation that Mr. Blaine was the Republican nominee for the Presidency in 1884, and that Mr. Schurz made a speech opposing his election on the ground that he had used his office as Speaker of the House to make money for himself. It is a matter of history that many Republicans at that time believed the charge (which did not rest upon Mr. Schurz's say-so), and that they voted against him in such numbers as to defeat him. Subsequently Mr. Blaine wrote his book, 'Twenty Years in Congress,' or that part of it which gives his opinions of Mr. Schurz. Favorable mention could not be expected under the circumstances. We do not know where Gallinger was at that time. He bloomed at a later date, but if he has any gift of original research, we commend for the subject of his next discourse the question who is the better friend of the Republican party—the one who warns it against putting up a vulnerable candidate (as Mr. Schurz did before the convention of that year was held), or the one who leads the party to a smashing defeat?

A writer in the Chicago *Times-Herald* claims for Congressman Tawney of Minnesota the honor of getting the discriminating clause against Canadian railroads inserted in the Dingley bill, saying that "he is execrated by the Canadian Pacific Road, but there are those in this country who say he is one of the greatest and shrewdest statesmen in America, and that he richly deserves to be President of the United States before he dies." This, we presume, is the utterance of an irresponsible reporter. The Chicago *Times-Herald* is conducted with some reference to the moral aspects of public questions, and we cannot believe that it defends the practice of passing bills in Congress by stealth, and then rewarding the tricksters with the highest office in the gift of the people. Such a standard of merit for the Presidency would be the last reach of public depravity. It would be the signal for "shooting Niagara," so far as the American republic is concerned. It is admitted on all hands that this clause was not known to the Congress that passed it. Mr. Dingley says so in his ingenious explanation. He tells us that its purport was not known to the framers of it; that they were aiming at something altogether different, and were surprised when they found out the interpretation that might be put upon it. In other words, the Dingley explanation does not allow any merit or demerit to Tawney of Minnesota. It was simply a mistake. Yet we incline to the belief that no mistake was made, and it is very possible that Mr. Tawney may have been one of the tricksters, but he could not have been the chief trickster. There must have been a powerful influence behind him. All the corrupt and corruptible newspapers that have dealt with this question have ignored the method by which the clause was inserted in the bill, and have kept insisting that the clause itself was a good thing, whereas the question whether it was a good or a bad thing never was considered by Congress at all; and there lies the kernel of the whole controversy.

Another decision as to the use of public highways by strikers has been rendered by Judge McIlvain of Pennsylvania, who takes substantially the same view as Judge Goff of the United States Circuit Court in the West Virginia case. Judge McIlvain holds that workingmen have a right not only to strike, but to persuade others to follow their example. In pursuance of this purpose they may hold meetings, have parades, and march along a highway in such parades. But they have not a right to take virtual possession of a portion of a highway, which was the claim made by the strikers, in Pennsylvania as well as in West Virginia. "A parade," says Judge McIlvain, "confined to a limited piece of a public road before a pit mouth and under a tramway, repeated two or three times a day for ten days or two weeks, loses the characteristic of legitimate parade, and, when directed against the interests of the mine-owner over whose land the road passes, and indulged in contrary to his express command, is a trespass." The Judge also drew clearly the distinction between legitimate persuasion on the part of strikers and unlawful coercion, holding that language by which working miners are called scabs, blacklegs, black sheep, etc., and threats of personal violence should they not cease work, are designed to coerce and not to persuade, tend to create a breach of the peace and to provoke a personal conflict between two large bodies of men, and therefore cannot be asserted to be lawful persuasion. An injunction against the practice of such coercion before it has resulted in bloodshed is, in the Judge's opinion, a reasonable use of the power, and it is hard to see how any law-abiding citizen can suffer by it.

The collision at Hazleton, Pa., between a crowd of striking miners and a force commanded by the Sheriff of the county has given the sensational press one of the greatest opportunities it has ever had for reckless attempts to prejudice the standing of those charged with the administration of the laws and the maintenance of order. Newspapers of this type always take it for granted that the law-breakers are in the right, and shrink from no misrepresentation of the facts to make out a case against the officials. There will, of course, be a thorough investigation of this affair, but such an inquiry is not needed to show that a riotous body of men had already committed acts of violence and were on their way to commit more, that they were warned to stop by the Sheriff and refused to heed him, and that the exhibition of force which was made was the only thing that would have checked them. So far as can now be judged, the Sheriff only did his duty, and there would be less occasion to call out the militia if more sheriffs were like him, for ignorant foreigners, like those involved at Hazleton, would then know that it was as dangerous to resist the Sheriff as the troops.

The execution of a murderer in any State is not ordinarily a matter of concern to people living elsewhere in the country, but circumstances combined to make the hanging of Horace S. Perry at Decatur, Ga., on the 8th instant, a matter of wide significance. It has been charged, with too much reason, that no white man of property and influence in the South need fear that he would be put to death by the law for killing another man, but Perry was well-to-do and had been prominent enough in politics to have become Sheriff of his county. His crime was the cold-blooded murder of a young man whom he had hunted for two days, but his guilt was no greater than that of many other offenders who have either escaped conviction or received executive clemency after sentence. Gov. Atkinson deserves national recognition for the sturdiness with which he resisted the appeals that were made for Perry's pardon, culminating in what was obviously an afterthought invented by his wife, that the murderer was avenging a wrong done her, and so was the "defender of a woman's honor." The course of the Georgia Governor is in refreshing contrast with that of his namesake, Gov. Atkinson of West Virginia, who recently pardoned a murderer on this ground, and thus encouraged any man who has any sort of grievance against another to kill him, and set up a plea of this nature as a bar to punishment.

The full story of the pardon by President McKinley of Francis A. Coffin, the Indianapolis bank wrecker, only emphasizes the outrage of executive clemency in this case. In the summer of 1893 Haughey, President of the Indianapolis National Bank, Coffin, and two others were indicted for violation of the national banking laws in conducting the business of the bank, which they had brought to ruin. Haughey pleaded guilty

rather than stand trial; the other three were convicted upon trial, and Coffin was sentenced to ten years in the penitentiary. Six days after he reached that institution he was released under an appeal to the Supreme Court, which resulted in the ordering of a second trial, after the customarily long delay. He was again found guilty, and was sentenced this time to eight years in prison from October 26, 1895. But another appeal to the Supreme Court was made on technical grounds, and he was allowed to remain at liberty until this was decided against him six months later. He has, therefore, really been confined little more than a year, and this brief imprisonment was made as nearly nominal as possible, his friends being allowed to furnish him whatever food he desired, and "all the privileges any man could ask" being granted him. Now this nominal punishment is cut short by the President, and he is to suffer nothing more for his share in the outrageous performances by which several hundred thousand dollars were obtained from the bank on worthless paper.

No wonder the annexationists in Hawaii are in a good deal of a flutter over the arrival of United States Senators and Representatives to take a near view of their "republic for annexation only." The ungrateful natives are preparing for the occasion a "monster petition," with incidental mass-meetings, to assert that their country was stolen from them by "a handful of rich and powerful whites," and that they do not want to be annexed. The worst of it is that most of the visiting statesmen are beet-sugar men. Now a beet-sugar American is almost certain to be pessimistic about the institutions of cane-sugar Hawaii. He will take very high ground on liberty and constitutional guarantees and the right of suffrage; and unless the Hawaiians are able to satisfy him on all these points, he will never consent to let the beet sugar grown by freemen suffer competition from the cane sugar of men who are not enjoying self-government. This is what makes the annexationists so nervous. Jingoes they can satisfy; big-navy men they can easily persuade that they are ripe for annexation; but they tremble under inspection by statesmen thoroughly grounded in the doctrines of representative government and beet sugar. To add to their perplexities, an election has to be held pretty soon, and the exhibition is not likely to be instructive. That good annexationist organ, the *Hawaiian Gazette*, thus worries over the prospect:

"The registration lists show that less than 2,700 men will cast the entire vote of the republic in the next election. This fact is significant. It cannot be concealed, and it will be freely used in the coming debate of the American Congress. He is assuredly a short-sighted man who believes that the enemies of annexation will not promptly use it. The natives have generally refused to register. So has that large and important body, the Portuguese."

The London *Economist* of September 4 takes a serious view of section 22 of the Dingley tariff in so far as it relates to its effect on British shipping. This clause provides that a discriminating duty of 10 per cent. shall be imposed on all goods imported in foreign vessels, except where such goods are entitled by treaty or convention [or any act of Congress] to be admitted at the same rate of duty as goods imported in vessels of the United States. This clause, including the words in brackets, was an old provision of law, reënacted at each general change of the tariff. It was accordingly a part of the Wilson tariff and also of the Dingley tariff as it passed the House. The bill was reported back by the finance committee to the Senate with the same clause, but while it was passing through the Senate Mr. Allison, who had charge of the bill, moved to strike out the words "or any act of Congress," and the motion was agreed to as though it were a matter of mere phraseology and were without other significance. At a later period, and while the bill was in conference, another change was made which was intended to impose the 10 per cent. discriminating duty on foreign goods brought into this country on Canadian railroads. Now the *Economist* learns that the striking out of those words makes a great difference to British shipping, since the only treaty on the subject between Great Britain and the United States is that of 1815, which provides that there shall be no discriminating duty on any articles "which are the growth, product, or manufacture of his Britannic Majesty's territories in Europe." There is no treaty on this subject, we believe, with France, Italy, or Austria. Consequently all goods imported in the vessels of these countries, as well as those of Great Britain which are not the growth, produce, or manufacture of the British islands or British possessions in Europe, may be liable to this discriminating duty. The Attorney-General is studying this paragraph as well as the one relating to Canadian railroads.

There already are signs that the Duke of York's visit has not had the political effect in Ireland that it was expected to have. There were crowds in the streets of Dublin when he arrived, there have been pleasant parties in all the country houses which he visited, and there has been in England a widespread belief that what Ireland really needed was more frequent visits from some member of the royal family and a "royal residence" in Ireland. This faith falls in thoroughly with the contemporary influence of society on politics in England. So many people there find the chief delight of life just now in associating with "royalties," and meeting "royalties" at balls, and being able to report what "the Duchess said to me," that it is not surprising that they expect the Irish to forget all their woes, past and present, when they see a royal duke and his wife driving through the country. The climax of this absurdity was reached at Limerick. A new line of steamers has been established on the Shannon. The Duke opened it, but for some days previously it was given out that something serious was to take place on the occasion, but was to be kept a secret till then. When it was revealed, it appeared the Duke had permitted the route of the boats to be called "The Duke of York's Route." The truth is, that it is too late to cure Ireland's troubles by any such devices. In the beginning of the century, it might have been possible for a royal devotion such as the Queen has shown to Scotland, to convert the Irish into loyal subjects, but the day has gone by. The Irish are past that stage in politics. The supposition is almost amusing when one reads some of the articles which appeared in the newspapers about Ireland when the Irish members refused to take part in the jubilee. The *Scotsman*, the leading Scotch Liberal Unionist journal, confessed the Irish had been a good deal oppressed and coerced in the past, but asked them with unconscious humor: "But did you not deserve it? If English statesmen had to coerce you, could they help it?"

Prince Bismarck has had a good deal to say about the Franco-Russian alliance, some of his remarks being in his well-known vein of lucidity tempered by cynicism, and now his newspaper organ declares that the alliance at any rate leaves the Dreibund unaltered. Yes, but how different the situation is from what it was when Bismarck first formed the Dreibund, and supplemented it by successful intrigues in a way to give Germany the primacy of Europe and leave France practically isolated. In addition to his league with Austria and Italy, he had his secret treaty with Russia; he had France and Italy by the ears over Tunis; he had France and England by the ears over Egypt. But what is the case now? It is Austria that has gone behind the Dreibund to make a secret treaty with Russia. Italy is so weakened that she counts for little, and has, besides, her secret treaty with England, making the Dreibund appear hollow from that side also. France and Italy are now on fairly good terms; there is a distinct *rapprochement* between France and England; and the Russian alliance is now an accomplished fact. The net result of all these changes is to make Germany the isolated Power, and to cede to Russia the first place in European diplomacy which had been Germany's from 1870 until William the Sudden broke with the man who had won it,

DEMOCRATIC PROSPECTS.

The Democrats of this State and of the East generally are in trouble regarding the platform and attitude of the party on national questions in the coming election. The regulars of New York who supported Bryan and free silver last year and were buried under an adverse majority of 287,000 (counting the Palmer and Buckner vote), are making signs here and there of returning animation. That they ever had any clear conception of the meaning of 16 to 1, or of the merits of the silver question generally, is not to be supposed. Such a supposition is negatived by the fact that they had adopted a platform in opposition to free silver before the Chicago convention was held, and turned around immediately after it. The only thing they understood or really cared for was adherence to party usage. Custom and discipline require that the party in each State shall endorse the national creed, whatever it may be. So they wheeled with the ease of veterans, and without the slightest sense of inconsistency or shame. They would have deemed it inconsistent and shameful not to do so.

Not all of the party, however, joined in performing the *volte-face*. Bryan's vote was 103,000 smaller than Cleveland's vote in 1892, and McKinley's was 210,000 larger than Harrison's in the latter year, and there were about 19,000 votes for Palmer and Buckner. It is safe to say that 100,000 Democrats voted for McKinley straight, in order to "take no chances," and that there are to-day at least 119,000 Democratic votes in the State which will never be cast for free silver directly or indirectly, and will never be found giving any encouragement to that heresy in national, State, or municipal elections. They are attached to their own party from feeling and conviction, but only so far as it adheres to the principles that gave it birth. Free coinage of silver they consider repudiation of debts, and therefore dishonorable in the highest degree. Rather than lend any support or countenance to such a crime, they would see the Democratic party dead and buried a thousand times. Their hope is that the majority who were stampeded at Chicago last year, may be either chastened by defeat or convinced of their error, and return to the platform of earlier days.

The regulars who supported Bryan and Sewall last year, would be very glad to have the coöperation of the Nationals who supported Palmer and Buckner, and are evidently fishing for their votes. All the signs and outgivings point to an offer of compromise on the part of the former to the latter, not unlike that which Senator Gorman fixed up in Maryland. In short, if the Nationals would be content with simply ignoring the Chicago platform in the coming State election, the regulars would concede so much to them for the sake of present harmony and peace, leaving the future to take care of itself. Circumstances lend themselves to this kind of an arrangement, if there were a disposition on both sides to accede to it, since there is to be no State convention this year, but only a committee meeting to designate a candidate for Judge of the Court of Appeals. Platforms are seldom or never adopted by committees. So it would be in the usual order of things for the party to go into the campaign without one.

We feel sure that no such plan of union will tempt any supporter of the Indianapolis platform and candidates to "fall in line" with the regulars and to vote for their nominee for Judge. Ex-Senator Hill, who did not support either candidate last year, and a few others who simply abstained from voting, may lend their assistance now, especially if they are allowed to name the candidate, but those Democrats who voted for Palmer and Buckner, or for McKinley, because they believed that the Chicago platform was a grave breach of the moral law, ought not to be enticed to even a tacit compromise with the regulars. The reason why they ought not to do so is that a victory, or even a gain of votes, under present conditions would be claimed as a gain for Bryanism and free silver. It would be said that the platform of last year holds good until a new one is adopted, and that all persons who vote the Democratic State ticket must be presumed to do so because they approve the platform. The latest platform of the regulars was adopted on the 17th of September, 1896. It is brief and comprehensive. The first plank is as follows.

"The Democratic party of the State of New York, in convention assembled, unreservedly endorses the platform adopted by the Democratic party at the national convention held in Chicago on July 7, 1896; cordially approves the nomination there made; pledges to William J. Bryan and Arthur Sewall its hearty and active support, and declares as its deliberate judgment that never in the history of the Democratic party has a platform been written which embodied more completely the interests of the whole people, as distinguished from those who seek legislation for private benefit, than that given to the country by the national Democratic convention of 1896."

That is the kind of doctrine which the sound-money Democrats of the type of Abram S. Hewitt, Charles S. Fairchild, John De Witt Warner, and Gen. Tracey are asked to endorse, or at all events to ignore, within a twelvemonth of its adoption. Over against it we set their own State platform of last year, viz.:

"The Chicago platform attacks the Constitution, both in its letter and spirit. It threatens to overcome decisions of the Supreme Court displeasing to the party caucus by packing the court through an increase of the number of judges, thus striking a deadly blow at the vital constitutional principle of the independence of the judiciary. . . . In proposing to open the mints of the United States to the free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1, when the relative market values of silver and gold are now 32 to 1, the Chicago platform threatens a partial repudiation of that public debt the validity of which the Constitution says 'shall not be questioned.'"

The men who adopted this platform on the 31st of August last year are not going to eat their words now. Nor will they allow any act of theirs to be construed as approving the atrocious doctrines which they repudiated with such energy last year.

THE LOW NOMINATION.

Mr. Low's nomination is now complete. He has written his letter of acceptance, in which he endeavors to set forth the kind of Mayor he will be. There are only two vital points in it. There may be honest and harmless differences of opinion about the liquor law, and about rapid transit, and about municipal ownership of street railways, and about the hours of city labor. Men may hold contrary opinions on all these subjects, and may advocate various policies with regard to them, and yet have the good of the city thoroughly at heart. The essential articles of a good municipal creed are non-partisanship and home rule. On these no differences of opinion can be allowed among people calling themselves reformers. Unless a man thinks city offices should be filled solely for the sake of the city, and should be administered solely for the sake of the city, and that the city should not be deprived of any competent man's services because of his opinions about the tariff, or Hawaii, or silver, or gold, or the "Grand Army," or the condition of Cuba, or because of his creed or residence, he is not a good citizen, in the municipal sense of that term.

In like manner, if he thinks that nearly two millions and a half of the population of the six million inhabitants of the State, paying 70 per cent. of its taxes, and living in close contiguity, are incapable of managing their own local affairs, and that they need the watchful superintendence of the other four millions who live elsewhere, not only is he not a good citizen, but he is not a good democrat. It shows that he does not believe in the fundamental principles of American government. In other words, he is a dangerous man in a republic. The growth of this heresy during the last thirty years has been so steady, and has received so much support from both parties, that it has at last become an enormous scandal and a threat to property and order. It has ended, not only in producing the two party bosses, but in begetting the practice of levying blackmail on rich men and on corporations to pay the cost at Albany of extinguishing local government in New York. The time has come for this scandal to cease, and Mr. Low shows that he understands the crisis. This state of things cannot continue without putting constitutional govern-

ment in peril. Communities have a way of taking care of themselves when the worst comes to the worst, but it is not always the way of pleasantness and peace.

One of the most valuable portions of Mr. Low's letter is that in which he defines "non-partisanship." This term has now been in use for some years, but it came out clearly during Mayor Strong's administration that a large portion of the community, including Mayor Strong himself, did not use it in the same sense in which the Committee of Seventy used it. A large number of persons among the voters still do not understand it in the committee's sense. To an American who has been bred under the spoils system and accustomed to regard public offices as rewards for services to the party or to the appointing officer, the term naturally means that these rewards will be given to anybody who has supported a candidate, no matter to what party he belongs; that, for example, the appointing officer will not say to him, "Are you a good Republican or a good Democrat?" but, "What have you done to promote my election?" Understanding it in this sense, Mayor Strong gave offices to all sorts of people who had supported him. Some were good, some very bad, but all could say that their party associations had not prevented their getting "a plum." None, or next to none, could say that he was selected for his place solely for his fitness. The result was, that Mayor Strong's administration, though a great improvement on the Tammany riot, was marked by so many serious failures as to turn reform into ridicule, and to give Platt his most formidable weapon against the city. "The patronage of the city," says Mr. Low, "shall not be used, so far as it is in the Mayor's power to prevent it, for the purpose of either strengthening or weakening one party or another, or any fraction of any party." If this stood alone, Mayor Strong might have said it. But Mr. Low adds that "he will fill every place with a single eye to the public good." If Mayor Strong could have said this, a score of discreditable appointments would not have been made, and he would have been saved a great deal of embarrassment.

Now as to the future. We have in some degree found out during the last three years the great value of good administration as a popular educator. We have seen the effect on public opinion of the spectacle of public work well done. We believe the cleaning of the streets, for the first time in the history of the city, is only a small part of Col. Waring's claim to public gratitude. We believe that his demonstration, in the teeth of hostile and doubting public opinion, that the streets *could* be cleaned by honest labor, that the thing was possible, and even easy, has done more for the cause of municipal reform than all the articles and all the books that have been written about it. It has not only done much to banish despair about the city among the reading, intelligent classes, but it has brought interest in municipal problems, and light upon them, to the tens of thousands who do not read, who simply labor and suffer and fear. It has proved an argument, almost the only argument, which the laboring man understands. We rely on Mr. Low to do for non-partisanship, for "honest, broad-minded, efficient, and business-like administration," what Col. Waring has done for the street-cleaning. He must show the public for the first time that it is possible, and then show what it will do for popular comfort and decency. If he succeeds in doing this during his four years, we shall assuredly never go back to the mire of partisan politics. He will have raised a standard to which good men and women all over the Union will repair in the matter of municipal government. He will have nothing to learn in his new office, for the affairs of a city are no more inscrutable than those of a bank. What is inscrutable is political intrigue, the motives and humors of Mike, Jake, and Barney. Any Mayor who lets Mike and Jake alone may be sure that his work will be as easy as any other great business.

The immense importance of the manner of Mr. Low's nomination we have discussed already. It is a revolt against the machine and the corrupt nominating convention which may have far-reaching and beneficent effects. It may make the most momentous change yet made in American politics. But he will remember that the success of this great experiment will, if he is elected, depend mainly on him. It remains for him to prove its wisdom by its success.

THE HALIFAX COMMISSION.

What the amount of the award against the United States at Halifax is likely to be, no one knows, but we shall certainly be in luck if we get off with less than the $425,000 for which Mr. Gresham agreed to settle. His settlement was upset by Congress, and under the treaty of 1895 the damages are to be awarded by the commission which is still taking evidence. According to recent despatches, the English counsel are pressing a claim very like one unsuccessfully presented by us in the *Alabama* case, but with better chances of success.

In the *Alabama* case we insisted that we were entitled to recover, not merely for all the vessels and cargoes destroyed, but for the prospective earnings which the vessels might have made had they not been destroyed. As to this claim, the tribunal at Geneva decided unanimously that such earnings could not be made the subject of compensation, "inasmuch as they depend in their nature upon future and uncertain contingencies." In that case the point was very clear, especially as the tribunal expressly included interest in the $15,500,000 awarded. As a general rule in any court of law, when a loss is fixed, the person losing does not recover profits that might have been made, and interest on the loss as estimated in money as well. If he did, it would be *pro tanto* a double recovery. In the present instance, however, the English counsel contends, with some show of reason, that the catch of seals for the year, and the consequent profits (prevented by our interference), were a reasonably certain amount; and even if not, as our interference was determined by the Paris tribunal to be wholly wrongful, the Canadian sealers ought to be given more than they would had the loss been occasioned by mere neglect, as in the escape of the *Alabama*. This distinction, frequently recognized in common-law litigation over private wrongs, will have to be disposed of in some way by the tribunal, and it cannot be contended that the *Alabama* precedent is conclusive.

Another point raised at Halifax which is of some novelty is whether the question of good faith could be gone into. Commissioner Putnam sternly reproved the British counsel for attempting to go into it, and perhaps under the treaty it may not be open; but the idea that an arbitration can never raise a question of good faith is, of course, preposterous. When governments submit their disputes to a court, they do not make a reservation of the moral complexion of their acts. The extent of liability, and, indeed, liability itself, often depend wholly on moral considerations. Wilful offences are almost necessarily immoral, and a government can act in bad faith as well as an individual. Indeed, all governmental acts are individual acts. Mr. Sherman, in his notorious "shirt-sleeves" despatch, found no difficulty in imputing bad faith to Lord Salisbury, and we know of no way in which acts can be submitted to arbitration while the moral complexion of the acts is reserved from it. What was evidently running through the Commissioner's mind was the talk in the Senate and in England about the impossibility of submitting questions of national "honor" to arbitration. The suggestion, to our minds, proves nothing so much as the idleness of all this talk.

When the Halifax award is made, big or little, we shall have to pay it, and that, acccording to the common understanding, will terminate this part of the seal dispute. According to Mr. J. W. Foster, indeed, there is a still unsettled question outside the arbitration, by which we might offset the award. Writing in the *North American Review* for De-

cember, 1895, that ingenious international attorney suggested that it was still a "vital question" whether, inasmuch as the Paris tribunal decided that pelagic sealing should not be permitted in the future, the United States had not a claim for damages on its own side, and added, "It is not to the discredit of Congress that it exercised its judgment as to the action of the Executive in agreeing to a settlement with Great Britain which altogether ignored the claim of the United States for damages to the seals by improper pelagic hunting." In other words, the Paris tribunal having expressly decided that we never had any rights in Bering Sea, and on this very ground having adopted or advised international precautions for the future, and having further decided that we must pay for having prevented the Canadians from sealing, we may, after paying these damages, get them back again because we have had to pay them. A suggestion of this sort cannot be treated seriously.

Very likely the Jingoes will make a great row over paying the award; but paid it will have to be, and with its payment the great seal controversy will probably gradually lose its importance and sink out of sight. The refusal of Lord Salisbury to reopen it has left nothing at issue but a question of international seal preservation, which may produce a great deal of acrimonious scientific discussion, but which would be a rather pitiable *casus belli*. If we could have got England to fight over the question whether killing a seal at sea was contrary to the moral law, or have persuaded the world that part of the Pacific Ocean was our private property which England was trying to "grab," we should have had a glorious quarrel, fit to pour out millions of treasure and oceans of blood for; but it would be hard to have to die for one's country over the seal controversy as it now stands, especially if the conduct of the war were to be distinguished by management no better than we now succeed in getting in public business in time of peace.

THE BANK OF ENGLAND AND SILVER.

The report published in the London *Times* that the Bank of England was about to announce its willingness to use silver as one-fifth part of the reserve of its issue department, has caused much excitement both in England and on the Continent. The report is not confirmed, and, although not officially denied, is now generally discredited. Yet the belief remains that the Bank directors have had the question under consideration, and that there is a party in favor of that policy in the board of direction, as well as in the Salisbury Government. In order to understand what is meant by the proposed action, we must go back to the Paris Conference of 1881, in which a similar project was advanced. On that occasion the representative of Great Britain laid before the Conference a paper from the Bank, saying that its charter required it to receive all the gold offered to it and give its notes therefor, and to redeem all of its notes in gold on demand. It might also receive silver and issue its notes therefor to the extent of one-fourth of the gold held in its issue department—these notes also being redeemable in gold. The Bank would avail itself of this provision of its charter, provided the mints of "other countries" would return to such rules as would insure the certainty of the conversion of gold into silver and of silver into gold. This, the paper said, would be indispensable to the resumption of silver purchases by a bank of issue whose responsibilities are contracted in gold.

The Bank is composed of two departments as distinct from each other as though they were two separate institutions. The banking department receives deposits and discounts commercial paper like any other bank. It has a capital wholly in this department, amounting, with its surplus, to about $90,000,000. The issue department is a veritable automaton. It had notes outstanding at its last return amounting to $250,000,000. These were the sole liabilities of that department. The assets of the same department consisted of Government debt $55,000,000, "other securities" about $28,000,000, and gold $117,000,000. The automatic action of the Bank is shown in this statement. The law authorizes the issue of a fixed amount of notes (about £16,500,000) against securities, and then requires the Bank to give its notes to the public in exchange for gold without any limit whatsoever. This action of the Bank is called, in the language of the street, "buying gold." It is required to redeem all of its notes in gold on demand. The deposits in its banking department are also payable in gold on demand. The greater or less amount of notes outstanding at any time depends upon the public and not in any degree upon the Bank, since the latter must issue and redeem notes upon the conditions named. The directors have nothing to say about that part of the business.

The Bank's charter as passed in 1844 authorizes it to receive and hold silver in its issue department to the extent of one-fifth of the total amount of its metallic reserve in that department. At the time when the charter was adopted silver was worth a trifle more than gold at the French ratio of 15½ to 1. England at that time had no ratio; she had been on the single gold standard since 1816. This authorization has never been availed of, we believe, and it would not be availed of now unless some competent authority should fix a ratio at which silver should be received. Even in that case—even if a ratio were adopted corresponding with the mercantile ratio, say 35 to 1—we could regard such a step on the part of the Bank only as evidence of mental unsoundness, leading also to financial unsoundness, since it would reduce the reserves of the issue department by 20 per cent. without any gain whatever.

For all purposes of redeeming its notes it might as well have an equal investment in pig iron. It may be said that the mints of the other countries, under the proposed scheme of 1881, will always hand over their gold in exchange for the Bank's silver at the agreed ratio, but who is to guarantee that? An international agreement? Suppose the countries go to war and blockade each other's ports. Will France be likely to hand over two or three hundred million francs in gold immediately in exchange for silver? Both countries in such a case will want all the gold they can lay their hands on, and both will leave for future adjustment any question that may arise touching their monetary agreements. Thus in a conceivable case, one-fifth of the Bank's metallic reserves may be no more available than pig iron, and even less, since pig iron could be converted into shot and shell. In short, the Bank's solvency at a critical moment might depend on a foreign government.

It should be added that the Bank's proposal in the Conference of 1881 was not accepted by any government represented therein. It had been pronounced unsatisfactory by Mr. Thurman on behalf of the United States even before it was received. It was pronounced unsatisfactory by Mr. Pierson, a bimetallist delegate from the Netherlands, after it was read. It was not even noticed by the delegates of France, who were at that time of the bimetallist persuasion. No vote was taken on it, and the Conference adjourned on the third day after the paper was laid on its table, and without any general discussion of its merits. The reason was the same as that which led to the rejection of all similar proposals at the Brussels Conference. It was simply a plan to make an artificial market for silver—to bolster up the price and help the owners of mines. Such a market could not be permanent, since any increase of price would necessarily be followed by an increase of the output; and as the market would not be an unlimited one, the price would fall back as soon as the artificial demand was satisfied, and then the Bank would be loaded with perhaps $50,000,000 of a metal that it could not pay its debts with nor get rid of except at a loss. The Bank would be in the same situation as the United States Government is with its new-fangled Treasury notes issued against pig silver. That a Government acting under the stress of popular sov-

ereignty and worried by demagogues to the extent that ours is should fall into such a muddle, can be easily understood and explained, but that a sober board of business men, not serving under fear of the next caucus, should do so, is past belief.

THE ENGLISH TROUBLES IN INDIA.

The English press has been devoting a great deal of space and thought to an analysis of the causes which led to the Afridi uprising. Up to a certain point there is a substantial agreement that it was owing to a belief deliberately spread through the Mohammedan world, that it is now a good time to attack England. The mountain tribesmen have been generally quiet for fifty years, and their rising was not due to any known or recognized grievance. Something had happened which gave them the idea that England was weak, and the English critics of both parties agree that the exciting cause was the English management of the Greco-Turkish question. When it comes, however, to explaining how the effect was produced, there is a great divergence of opinion. The Tory papers all maintain that England is a great "Mohammedan Power," and that the troubles on the frontier were due to the attacks on the Sultan, and on Mohammedans generally, made by English writers and speakers, and to the siding of the Government with the enemies of Turkey. What the English ought to have done was to have supported their natural ally, the Sultan. To this the Liberals reply with great force that there is not a scintilla of evidence to support this view, and that the present difficulties really arose from a failure to put the screws on the Sultan and coerce him.

The talk about England being a "Mohammedan Power" is of course a mere juggle with words. It is about as true as it would be to call the United States a great African Power because it has under its government several million negroes. England is a Christian Power, which has conquered and keeps in subjection a large part of the Mohammedan world, and governs it upon a system which would be reduced to absolute chaos were Mohammedan interests to be taken as guides. The rest of the Tory argument, and its real substance, is precisely the same appeal to fear which has been steadily made for two years. England is blamed for not having placated, conciliated, and supported the Sultan, in order that the Sultan might dissuade its Indian subjects from rising; in precisely the same way it was urged that nothing must be done for the Armenians or the Greeks, lest the intervention of the English should bring on a general European war. The *Spectator* recalls the fact that the Crimean war, undertaken to bolster up the Turk, was immediately followed by the disastrous Indian mutiny, a fact certainly not tending to prove that backing up the Sultan helps to maintain peace in India; but to onlookers at a distance the most striking thing about the whole controversy is that the motive, and the only motive, appealed to on behalf of Lord Salisbury's Eastern policy is fear of dreadful consequences, which it is always said must ensue if he shows any courage in his dealings with the Sultan. Up to the present time it is no exaggeration to say that the idea that Lord Salisbury's diplomacy has averted a general war, has been sufficient to reconcile England to a series of effects directly traceable to it which, under ordinary circumstances, would have been regarded as little short of horrible reproaches to any national policy.

Whatever Lord Salisbury may have prevented, the events for which his management of foreign affairs is inevitably held responsible are the Armenian massacres, the blockade of Crete and suppression of the Cretan insurrection, the recrudescence of Turkey as a military Power, the reduction of Greece to a "controlled" state, and now the rising in India, which, however completely it may be put down, is a most serious source of alarm, as even threatened trouble in India cripples English power elsewhere. These, it must be remembered, are positive consequences, while the inference that Lord Salisbury's management of foreign business has been the reason why a general Enropean war has not broken out, is a mere inference or conjecture, based on nothing more substantial than his own assurances, which we must regard as very poor evidence, inasmuch as the opposite policy of curtailing the power of Turkey in Europe, pursued for many years before the concert was invented, itself produced no general war.

It is evident that this argument will not do for ever. The English people may be reconciled for a good while to disasters and humiliations on the ground that they have prevented a general European war, but the time will come sooner or later when they will ask whether they are not being deceived, and whether it is not possible that an Eastern policy of a quite different sort would avert a general war in Europe even more definitely. Sooner or later the history of the diplomacy of the last two years will come out, and then we shall probably know how much truth there is in the constant assertion that it is Lord Salisbury's policy which has preserved the peace.

For ourselves, we cannot help regarding it as a misfortune to the world that the control of the foreign affairs of England should just at this time have fallen into the hands of a man whose career seems to foreigners to verify their most inveterate anti-English prejudices. Centuries of misrepresentation could not have accomplished what Lord Salisbury has done to make the old idea of England, as given to bullying the weak and cringing to the strong, seem true; and yet at no time in the history of the country has its actual management of governed populations, or its attitude towards its neighbors, been so civilized and humane. There is something painful in the spectacle of the greatest free Power the world has seen complying with the demands, first of one despot and then of another, for fear of there being a "general war," and, finally, finding itself, as a result, face to face with a serious rebellion in that part of its dominions where a hesitating policy is sure to be most fatal.

SOME UNPUBLISHED WASHINGTON LETTERS.

NEW YORK, September 3, 1897.

In one of the series of letters written by George Washington to Arthur Young, which were published by that eminent agriculturist after Washington's death, there occurs the following passage:

"By means of the application I made to my friend Mr. Fairfax of Bath and through the medium of Mr. Rock a bailiff is sent to me, who if he is acquainted with the best courses of cropping will answer my purposes as a director or superintendent of my farms. He has the appearance of a plain honest farmer—is industrious and from the character given of him by a Mr. Peacy (with whom he has lived many years) is understanding in the management of stock and of most matters for which he is employed. How far his ability may be equal to a pretty extensive concern is questionable. And what is still worse he has come over with improper ideas, for instead of preparing his mind to meet a ruinous course of cropping, exhausted lands and numberless inconveniences into which we had been thrown by an eight years' war, he seems to have expected that he was coming to well organized farms and that he was to have met ploughs, harrows and all the other implements of husbandry in as high taste as the best farming counties of England could have exhibited them. How far his fortitude will enable him to encounter these disappointments or his patience and perseverance will carry him towards the work of reform remains to be decided."

There seems to be no further trace of this somewhat unpromising new bailiff in letter, diary, or note-books, and here or elsewhere no mention of his name. It was, however, my fortune not long since to stumble upon further documents relating to this man, and Washington's experience with him, in the shape of certain letters of the bailiff and of Washington himself to the Mr. Peacey mentioned above, in the hands of whose descendants these letters have been preserved.

Among that class of country gentlemen which reached its zenith in the latter part of the last century, the name of Mr. William Peacey of North Leach, Gloucestershire, stood very high; and this—in the days when farmers "could let half their land lie idle and live like gentlemen on the proceeds of the other half," when the greatest statesmen in the country reckoned their interest in agriculture and their knowledge of its practical side as not the least of their accomplishments, when the King himself, "a gentleman of Berkshire," took keen interest in

such matters—was no slight distinction. Not only was he awarded the great gold medal of the Royal Agricultural Society and invited to become one of the editors of the great agricultural cyclopædia of the time, but he numbered among his friends and correspondents many of the most famous public men of his day. It is of him, too, the story is told, and embalmed in the yellow pages of the *Gentleman's Magazine* for 1791, how, in order to save an innocent man from the gallows, he rode ninety miles to London in one night, with proofs of the man's innocence, which he had secured at great trouble. There is another story, too, how once King George came to see him in his absence. The busy and irritable housekeeper grumbled vastly at being disturbed in her work by the big footman who "made as much noise as if it had been the King." "It *is* the King," said the footman. "Then," said the still angry housekeeper, "the King can just go on to Cheltenham to see Mr. Peacey, for he's not at home." And the King went.

But these glimpses of an elder day when men were hanged for petty theft, when horses were still the fastest locomotive power, when a king posted from place to place like any private gentleman, are by the way. These slight gleanings of correspondence which follow are the connection between this Gloucestershire farmer and another and greater George on this side the Atlantic. The first letter is from that Wakelin Welch who for many years was Washington's agent in London, the connection being severed about 1791. It needs no comment.

Mr. William Peacy North Leach Gloucestershire
MR. PEACY,

By this post have sent you a packet which came by a vessel, just arrived, addressed to us from Gen. Washington in his letter to us—"he mentions that "he had a Farmer sent to him from Gloucestershire "by a Friend at Bath, he has written for his wife to "come to him with her Children & to bring with "them some Seeds Implements of Husbandry &c to "this Country. Bristol is their nearest port, but "Opp° from thence to this River rarely happen-"ing I have recommended it to their Patron Mr "Peacey to open a Correspondence with you that "she may be advised of the Sailing of a Vessell from "London to this River as a more speedy & certain "mode of conveyance. Your compliance therein "would be very pleasing to me & very Serviceable "to an honest old English Farmer

am Sr
" Yr Most obedient humle Serv.
"G. W."

In Conformity to the above I am to inform you that a fine Vessell named the Mary Capt. John Andrews & who sails by Gen. Washington's Seat will go from hence in all February if it suits your Friend to go by that time & from London, she shoud let me know as I might engage for her Passage which sometimes cannot always be depended upon. am

Sr
Yr H Servt
W. WELCH,

LONDON the 17 Jan 1787

The charge of a Passage from hence is high & paid for before the departure of the Ship how far will this be convenient for the Family.

The next is the remarkable communication of Mr. James Bloxham, not to himself, as one might imagine from the beginning, but to his patron and benefactor, Mr. Peacey. It may be necessary to explain that sanfine, or sainfoin, is a kind of pasture grass, and from the Young letters it seems probable that the unsatisfactory seed came from that farmer and that many seeds spoiled in transit. A "shupick" is a fork; the word may be used in some parts of America, but is not in my vocabulary, and is, I believe, peculiar to Gloucester, Worcester, and Wilts (Ger. *Schuppe*, a spade?). And as to the gentle insistence of Mr. Bloxham that the ploughs shall be "Light and Deasent," his anxiety will not be surprising to any one who has ever observed the difference of *weight* between English and American soil, probably nowhere greater than between North Wilts and Gloucester and the neighborhood of Mount Vernon. In his letters to Young, Washington complains of the trouble he has had to make his hands use the heavy English ploughs, and comments on his land as "light loam."

For Mr. Peacey Att Northleach Farm Gloucestershire

Vurginia July 23 1786

JAMES BLOXHAM SR. this is to Inform you that I arived Safe att the generls Washingtons the 20 3 [23] of aprel which was Ester monday. I have orderd for 10 Bushels of Sanfine Seed and other Seeds from you which the generel washington will aplie to you for and I should be glad if you would take the Best Care you Can to send it over good ass you Can for he have been Deseved in soom sanfine seed from Englnd which I Recemend him to you and let me have good that the generl sends for of all sorts if posable and send it along with my wife ass soon ass posable and I sould bee glad If you could get a Clever Little Deasant D plow which must go whithout a weeal for the Land is not Level and to be Shoor to make him Light and Desant and be Shoor to make him to turn the worke well for they have som most shoking Plows that Ever was Seen in the world the land is Light and very esey to plow they go with two horses only and Doble the same ass your norfolk plows. But no weel but very light but they have no noshon of making of a plow to turn the work thay are very stupet in thare one Consait but send on that is Light an Deasent and that it will turn the work well I Rot in my other Letter to my wife to Com over but I thinke it not worth wile for I think thatt I Shall not Stay no Longer then my yeare is up which is the forst of next may for things Are verey Desagreable to Do Bisness it is inposable for any man to Do Bisness in any form the Genral have a Bout 25 hundrd akers of Clear Land under is on ocyping. Ther is nothing agreble about on the plase which I Can not Do no Bisnss form nor no Credet but I have you send the plow And the Seeds which the Genearel will send for to you and send half a Dosen of Good Clean made Shupicks for they have nothing but woodon forks I have got one or two made but in a very bad maner that I should be glad to Show them a patrn and if my house is not Disposed of I should be glad if you would not for this Contey is verey pore and there is no Chance for any Body to Do any god and I should be gad if you and my Brother Thomas would See if these velins would Com to any terms or I would go to any part of Englun to be out of thare way But this Countruy will not Do for me but to Be Shore what the General have oferd in wages is quite Well he Gives for this year we have a Gred for 50 English ginnes per yeare and Bord and washing and Lodging and if I Would Send for my wife and famly he would alow me ten Ginnes towards thare Coming to this Contry an if I would Stay and to alow me 8 hundard Waite of flower and 6 hunderd Wait of pork and Bef and to alow me two milchs Cows for the youse of my famly and to alow me a Sow to Bree [d] Som pigs for my on yous but Not to Sell and to alow me a Comfortable house to Live n but it apears to me not Any Inheretance [inducement?] thear is another thing Which is very Disagreable tese Black Peope I am Rather in Danger of being poisind among them which I think I Shall Leave the Contrey ass son Ass I Can But the general and I have agreed and articld for one yeare But my wife may youse ore one will A Bout Comming over. But I hope Sr you I Hope will Be a frend to my Poor Deer Children and Wife And I Hope you will Remember my Brother Thomas to a Sist them what he can my heart have yarned for my family A gret maney time and I think I m allmost Like a transport [*i. e.*, convict] But I hope that the Sun will Shine upon me wonce more the general have some very [good?] laynd But badly manedge and he never well have them no Better for he have a Sett About him which I nor you would be troubled with But the General is goot them and he must keep them But they are a verey Desagreable People and I will leave the Contry But I Should be glad of answer Inmedatly to know how afares Stand and then I Sall be a better Judge of the matter the General have som very good Shep which he sold for 40 Shilings a pes of thar money a English guina is 28 Shiling of m[o]ney and I hope mrs and all the famly is Well and I have whent thro a greatt Dele Since I laft England.

And Lett me have a nanswer Imeadetly Rember me to all frens and no mor from me yor frend and well well wisher

JAMES BLOXHAM

The next letter, that of Washington himself, calls for no explanation, nor does the following one from the agents:

MOUNT VERNON, VIRGINIA, Augt 5th 1786.

SIR, Excuse the liberty I take in putting the inclosed Letters under cover to you.—It is to oblige Mr. James Bloxham who now lives with me, but who scarcely has sufficient knowledge of his own mind to determine whether to continue more than the present year (for which he is engaged) or not.—In a word he seems rather to have expected to have found well organized farms, than that the end and design of my employing him was to make them so.—He makes no allowances for the ravages of a nine year's war from which we are but just begining to emerge, nor does he consider that if our system of Husbandry had been as perfect as it may be found on your Farms, or in some of the best farming Counties in England, there would have been no occasion for his Services.

What the old man has written to you respecting the coming over of his wife—sending over plows seeds and so forth, I know not; because at different times he seems to be of different opinions. I can only add, therefore, if his family are to come, and by the way of London, that it would be well for some person on their behalf to open a correspondence with Messrs. Forrest & Stoddart, Merchans, of that place who have Ships that pass by my door in their way to Alexandria, and would render the passage in one of them much more convenient & less expensive than to any other place; 'tho in a Vessel bound to Norfolk in this State (Virginia,) or to Annapolis, Baltimore or Patuxent in the neighbouring one of Maryland, it would not be very inconvenient. In case of her coming, whatever Impliments, seeds, &c. may be requested by Mr. Bloxham on my Acct had better be paid for by his wife, and settled for here.

I am sorry to be thus troublesome, but as Mr. Bloxham considers you as his Benefactor, and Friend—has addressed one of his Letters to you—and his Wife, if she finally resolves to come, will stand in need of advise and assistance, it is necessary that the best mode should be suggested.—A Ship from Bristol to either of the places above named, may, probably, be more convenient than the rout by London but of this you can judge better than I. I am Sir,

Yr most Obdt & Humle Servt,
G. WASHINGTON.

William Peacey, Esq

Mr. W. Peacey, North Leach, Gloustirshire.

SR. I am to thank You in the first place for your kind present of a Hare which I rec'd very safe & in Consequence of your desiring my engaging a passage for Mrs. Bloxham & her two Children I this day have done it—the Captain one Andrews is a very good Man, his ship is Brittish & one of the first character, the Vessel goes very near Gen. Washingtons Landing so that Mrs. Bloxham has not far to Travel.

The Usual Charge for passengers who Lay in the Cabbin & are found with fresh Provisions & Wine during the Voyage is twenty Guineas each, but for Mrs. Bloxham & her two children to go in that agreeable State, the Captain has agreed for thirty Guineas for the Family & which I do not think unreasonable, as to the things necessary for Mrs Bloxham to take depends on her Self. Goods & Cloaths in Virginia as they mostly come from hence are very dear, therefore it woud be necessary for her

to Lay in a good Stock of them, on board Ship anything does the Captain was saying some Bedding might be wanting for the Cabin, but the expence of which cannot be great as to every thing else is included in the thirty guineas, the Seeds will be particularly taken care of & let the Package be marked Seeds so that they may be known when on Board, pray will there be any Quantity so as to fill Casks, if they do we must take a warehouse for them if not they may be sent to our Counting house No 10 Fenchurch Buildings near Fenchurch Street, the Place of my Residence is in the country about 4 miles from London.

The Ship sails in all Feby so that if Mrs Bloxham has any Acquaintance in Town she might come by the last week

am very Respectfully

yr obliged & humb Serv

W. Welch

23 Jany 1787

If Mrs Bloxham should alter her Mind let me know as the Captain keeps the Cabbin for her Accomodation & therefore cannot dispose of it to any else.

It appears from the above, then, that Mrs. Bloxham did not alter her mind, but was shipped along with the "sanfine" seed and the other farming necessaries (of which we may hope the ploughs were Light and Deasent), as we see by the following letter. From this it also appears that the fretful Bloxham had not been poisoned, and that he had apparently reconsidered his determination to leave the country to its fate as soon as his agreement with Washington expired, and, moreover, that his services had proved more satisfactory than the previous letters would have led us to believe:

Mount Vernon, 7 Jany 1788

Sir:—I have received your letter of the 2nd of Feby 1787. I am much obliged to you for your attention in sending me the seeds, which arrived agreeable to the bill. Mrs. Bloxam received of Wakelin Welch Esq. of London £10-1-10 which sum she informed him was what she paid you for the seeds on my account. I am not sorry that Caleb Hall did not come out for I proposed his coming more to please Bloxham, who was very desirous of having him here then from a want of his services myself. I thank you, Sir, for your obliging offer to furnish me with Blacksmiths and a Mill-wright:—I have two of the former occupation, who, though not very neat workmen, answer all my purposes in making farming utensils etc in a plain way—the latter I shall have no occasion for as I have not work enough to employ him in his own line:—and indeed I doubt whether they would find their advantage in coming over at present because I hardly think they will meet with constant employ: for although I should be extremely glad to see the honest and industrious mechanic come into this country from any and every part of the Globe, yet I would not wish to encourage them unless they could be benefitted by it. Whenever we have a regular and firm government established the prospect for these people will be much more pleasing than it is at present. Bloxham and his family are in good health and appear to be contented with the country. I am Sir

Yr most obed: Servt

G. Washington.

William Peacey Esq.

This, so far as I know, is the end of Mr. Bloxham's appearance in history. Whatever further correspondence there was, if any, between Washington and Mr. Peacey has been lost. Neither Bloxham's name nor that of Mr. Peacey seems to occur anywhere else, either in Sparks's or Ford's 'Writings of Washington,' in the Diary, or rather the Itinerary, published by Mr. Baker, in the *Pennsylvania Historical Magazine*, in the Long Island Historical Society papers edited by Moncure D. Conway, which cover the agricultural affairs from 1793, in the letters to Young, Sinclair, or Anderson on agricultural subjects, or in minor collections like Ford's 'Washington as an Employer of Labor,' or in the accounts. I am told, further, by Mr. Eames of the Lenox Library, to whose courtesy I have been much indebted, that he does not recall the names of either Bloxham or Peacey in any of the two hundred-odd letters of Washington in possession of the Library, which it is now publishing in the form of bulletins. Of no great intrinsic value, the letters are none the less interesting as a side light on that private life of Washington which, now that the public life has been so thoroughly exploited, begins to demand more attention.

Wilbur C. Abbott.

GLIMPSES OF SOUTHERN OREGON.—II.

Marshfield, August, 1897.

The coast of Oregon runs in a nearly straight north and south line from the mouth of the Columbia River to the Umpqua, and is chiefly composed of sandy beaches, behind which rise moderately high rocky bluffs of shale or sandstone of Tertiary age. The line of bluffs is broken by the estuaries of the river drainage of the Coast Range and its foothills; mostly small, and separated from the ocean by sandy bars which admit only vessels of light or moderate draught. Near these estuaries are groups of sand dunes often of considerable size. South of the Umpqua the shore trends a little more to the westward, and rocky bluffs reach quite to the sea in places. The general character of the coast continues much the same as far as Cape Blanco. The estuary of the Umpqua admits vessels of several hundred tons, which are principally employed in carrying lumber to other parts of the coast. The only harbor of consequence on this shore between Cape Blanco and the Columbia is Coos Bay, about thirty miles south of the Umpqua. It is accessible from Gardiner by driving down the ocean beach in a rough stage with broad-tired wheels. Under favorable circumstances this is an enjoyable drive, the beach at low water being hard and the salt air stimulating and refreshing. When the terminus is nearly reached, the stage leaves the beach and cuts across a mile-wide spit of sand, which defends Coos Bay from the breakers of the Pacific. The entrance to the harbor was formerly rather difficult, but the building of a jetty by the Government, though not yet completed, has already much improved the channel over the bar. Several lines of steamers ply between the bay, Astoria, and San Francisco, carrying coal, lumber, and produce.

In 1853 the first settlement was made at Empire City, on the lower bay, by a band of pioneers, associated as the Coos Bay Company. A little later, the discovery of beds of Eocene coal in the vicinity, and of gold in the sands of adjacent beaches, stimulated immigration; other towns were located, and the neighboring valleys became the site of farms. The career of Coos Bay has since continued with varied fortunes. The business depression of the last few years has been seriously felt, and, as little wheat is grown and other coals compete with the local product, no very evident signs of a change for the better are yet manifest. Coos Bay is a long and narrow estuary of winding form with numerous branches. The commodious part of the harbor is near the small town grandiloquently denominated Empire City by the pioneers. The proximity of the coal deposits determined the establishment of another town, Marshfield, near the head of navigation, and this has outstripped its older neighbor in size and population, though less favorably situated for commerce.

About the bay, as elsewhere on the Oregon coast, the climate varies markedly from that of the interior valleys. Though little rain falls from July to October, the northwest trades blow with great constancy, interrupted only by occasional southeasters. The mornings and evenings are almost invariably foggy, and the clouds frequently persist during the entire day. It follows that the summer atmosphere is cool and rather moist. The trees and shrubs for hours after sunrise are dripping with the copious dews left by the condensing fog. Luxuriant tufts of lichen hang from the fences. Even the dusty country roads are damp in the early morning, except where protected by overhanging foliage. If one penetrates the woods by road or trail, the density of vegetation on either hand is astonishing. Huge fallen trunks lie upon one another in chaotic confusion, thickly overspread with brushwood, moss, and ferns. Rhododendron, myrtle, blackberry vines, and enormous bracken form impenetrable thickets. A low purple barberry, the so-called "Oregon grape," occupies the more open places, and is very ornamental with its vernicose leaves and purple clusters of fruit. A coarse vaccinium, with insipid large seedy fruit, called the "salal-berry," is very abundant, and its rosy bells, which seem to be ever-blooming, are not unpleasing. The season of flowers is over by August, but the indications are that spring must offer a remarkable profusion of them. The rhododendrons alone, if up to their reputation, must afford a gorgeous display. At present a few bright colored asters, rich yellow daisies, purple pedicularia, and the familiar willowherb or fireweed of the East comprise the autumnal flora. The symplocarpus, so common in Alaska, abounds in moist places, and the ferns exceed anything I have elsewhere noted in size and luxuriance. On one old trail I forced my way beneath over-arching brake which would average nine feet in height. At various points on the road over to the coast I had been surprised to note the common European foxglove, purple and white, growing abundantly. Inquiry brought out the fact that, some years ago, an English lady resident in Gardiner, with a love for the flowers of her youth, imported foxglove seed. The plant soon escaped from her garden and has become widely distributed over the coast, where, the story being known, it is generally called, apropos of its introducer, the "Gibbs weed." In several places I have also observed the English broom, probably likewise a truant from gardens, but which does not seem to have found the climate or soil so congenial as the foxglove. The latter is credibly reported to have extended its range northward at least as far as the Nehalem River, forty miles south of the Columbia.

The trees which form the prevalent forest are chiefly the Douglas fir, widely known as "Oregon fir," and which furnishes a large proportion of the fine timber exported from the coast. It is a stately tree, but less elegant in foliage than its frequent companion the white cedar. The latter resembles the

arbor-vitæ in its docility under pruning and the flattened, frond-like sprays which cast a dense shade. There are a few hemlocks, but the non-coniferous trees are rare and most commonly represented by the alder.

The task of clearing land so encumbered is most laborious. It seemed not improbable in many places that if the wood actually on the ground were reduced to sawdust, it would cover the surface, evenly distributed, to a depth of at least a foot. When the trees are felled and the underbrush cut in a piece of virgin forest, the soil is practically covered to a much greater depth. These trees are rapid growers. I counted the rings of one which had been sawed across to clear the roadway, and though it was three feet in diameter there were only about two hundred and fifty rings. The fallen trees are very numerous, and so wet that they do not burn readily, though the wood seems sound. Uncultivated land falls rapidly back into woodland. The very cemeteries become thickets in a few years.

On the whole, the task of the settler who would clear his land is appalling. Even in the tropics the persistent, steady siege laid by the forces of nature against the handiwork of man, is hardly more obvious and more unrelenting. Here, however, the settler is spared the insidious heat which undermines health and energy in the tropics. Where the land is tillable, on the flats near the estuaries and on the valley floors, man conquers in the end, though he must hold his conquest by yearly effort. The country, climate, and vegetation strongly remind one of southeastern Alaska. Here it is somewhat drier in summer and a little warmer—differences sufficient to make productive agriculture possible. The winters are, of course, much milder here, though, in the nine months of rain, flooding streams and boggy roads, the region is seriously handicapped. "People always come back to Coos County," said a resident, "if they have lived here a few years; and I think if outsiders realized what we have to contend with, in the long rainy season and the difficulty of clearing land, they would not so often reproach us with a lack of energy." And the listener was inclined to agree with him. W. H. D.

Correspondence.

THE DEMOCRATIC - REPUBLICAN PARTY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The continued dominance in public affairs of (*soi-disant*) leaders of party must, almost inevitably, result in unrest, revolt, and—bloodshed, perhaps. When men moved by principle get together, the end of opportunism and machine politics will come. If men having the courage of their convictions will unite, the bosses—Hill, Platt, Quay, Hanna, and Gorman—will be relegated to retirement.

Live principles demand live parties. Give voters a platform of:

1st. Free trade, absolute and unqualified.

2d. An honest currency, based on real money.

3d. Honest administration of genuine civil service.

4th. Economical expenditure of revenues.

5th. Purification of the suffrage; *i. e.*, eliminate from those privileged to vote and to hold office not only such as sell their ballot, but also every one who, directly or indirectly, is party to such corruption.

6th. A strict construction of the Federal Constitution and rigid observance of its limitations.

The name of a party of such believers matters little. If the names "Democrat" and "Republican" are now odorous, or reminiscent of evil deeds only, cleanse them by faith and good works. For one, "Democratic-Republican" will do for me.

Robert T. Johnson.

Franklin, N. Y., September 6, 1897.

SEQUEL TO A SOUTHERN "DIFFICULTY."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Twenty-three years ago the Marshal of the old-style Southern town of Lexington, Mo., forty miles east of Kansas City, was a one-armed ex-Confederate soldier named Lane, with a wife and a little girl. He was a Virginian, and made up of grit and nerve from head to heels, and there was never such order maintained in the town before or since as he kept. A difficulty rose between him and a deputy sheriff named Ewing, a native of the town, a descendant of the Rev. Finis Ewing, the father of the "Cumberland" Presbyterian sect, and a kinsman of the wife of Senator Cockrell of Missouri. They were both witnesses in a case in court, and their testimony was contradictory the one's of the other's. Afterwards they met on the street, Ewing waiting for Lane at a certain place in the most public part of the town, having heavily armed himself. He stepped out and began talking, and Lane said, "You swore to a G—d d—d lie in court to-day." A man could hardly stay in a Southern town after taking that, albeit, if the charge is not true, the man who makes it is the liar, and, if true, he ought not to resent it. Ewing began firing at Lane, almost close enough to touch each other, one ball grazing the lower end of his heart and nearly knocking him down. He gritted his teeth frightfully and spread his legs apart to keep from falling, and, getting his pistol out, with his one (left) hand, fired at Ewing, and both fell. The bullet lodged against Ewing's spine. Lane died in a few hours, after expressing pleasure that he had made his enemy suffer.

Lane's wife struggled through poverty and sickness, and died in a hospital in St. Louis. Their child was taken by a kind Canadian merchant of Lexington and raised as his own. She had the misfortune to lose one arm at the shoulder. Ewing suffered most excruciating agony for years, after the doctors had nearly killed him with cutting and probing ineffectually for the ball. Then he became paralyzed below the waist and went totally blind, and in hopeless poverty was supported by his friends. Last week he was taken to Kansas City and the X-rays turned on him, and the bullet was seen half imbedded in one of the vertebræ of his spine, much higher up than the doctors had always thought it was. They are going to take it out, and he hopes to recover from his paralysis and blindness. In the long years of darkness he has had time to think the affair well over, and has become a pious church member. No doubt he would now advise any other man to take a good deal of bad talk rather than again die a thousand deaths as he has done. Everybody says he got the worst of it, though he lived and his adversary died. Southerner.

September 4, 1897.

TEXAS IN POORE'S CHARTERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: **In the matter relative to Texas in** Poore's 'Charters and Constitutions' there are some mistakes, and a seriously important omission, which are very misleading to those **who rely absolutely on the work. Under the title "Texas Declaration of Independence" is printed (Part II., pp. 1752-3) the declaration adopted November 7, 1835, by the consultation at San Felipe de Austin, in favor of the Mexican Federal Constitution of 1824, and against the revolutionary aims of Santa** Anna. The footnote (p. 1752) which says, **"This Declaration of Independence was adopted by a convention which assembled at** Washington, on the Brazos River, March 1, **1836," applies properly not to "this Declaration, etc.," but to the actual Texas Declaration of Independence, which was adopted March 2, 1836, and has passed by the name into history. The latter is, unfortunately, omitted altogether.**

My attention was first directed to these errors by my colleague, Prof. John C. Townes. George P. Garrison.

University of Texas,
Austin, September 3, 1897.

DR. ANDREWS AND VERGIL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It has been a little over five years since Dr. Andrews wrote that "to be accurate requires that of many things a finite mind should deliberately remain in ignorance." The natural corollary, that of the things whereof one elects to remain in ignorance he should forbear to speak, seems not to have occurred to the Doctor's mind when he made the ridiculous charge that "much of Vergil and Horace that is used in the class-room, editors and teachers misinterpret to make it decent."

The lines in Vergil which, even by malicious misinterpretation, can be made to carry indecent suggestions to the mind of the pupil, are too few to constitute "much" of a single day's lesson; and as to these few passages, the teacher who is obliged to misinterpret in order to avoid harm should look for the real seat of the difficulty in himself, not in "the chastest poet and royalest that to the memory of man is known" (Bacon). Let one grant that the apparent sweetness and purity so dominant in the whole of Vergil's work is but a mere cloak of hypocrisy, and that the worst ever said of him by a handful of ancient scandalmongers was true; grant, further, that a bad interpretation is to be put upon every passage possible under this supposition, and still the words of Dr. Andrews would be grossly inaccurate. But no one who has read understandingly any important part of his poems would think for an instant of the possibility of such concessions. Aside from the mere absence of impurity, the positive religious tone of the 'Æneid' is so marked that Gaston Boissier has well said: "L'Énéide est avant tout un poème religieux; on s'expose à le mal comprendre si l'on n'en est pas convaincu." The same author says elsewhere that if Vergil himself was not a

Christian, his writings dispose one to become so.

As to Horace, most teachers will consult the mental and moral characteristics of their pupils before indiscriminate reading. Where there are those in a class who might be harmed by certain poems, omission is the rule, not misinterpretation. Any one who supposes that Horace is ever indecent for the mere sake of indecency, knows him not, and should not attempt to teach him. He exerted an elevating tendency in his time, and the teacher in whose hands he cannot be made to do the same to-day is probably either an immoral man himself, or one whose notions of propriety are so far astray as to lead him into the attempt to clarify the honey of the "Matinian bee" by the adulterant of misinterpretation.

As to Dr. Andrews's general assertion that "large parts of classical literature reek with filth," it is a mere platitude, applying with equal truth to the literature of any other period or people. To assign any portion of Vergil to the filthy part, however, is neither more nor less accurate than to classify Tennyson or Milton in the same way. Let us hope that in the new *Cosmopolitan* "University" Dr. Andrews will not himself act as "expert" in the subject of classical literature. If so, there will be a solution of continuity in the stream of dignity which is to flow in the direction of the *Cosmopolitan*. Dr. Andrews owes to the educated public an unqualified apology for his blunder. A CLASSICAL TEACHER.

ARCHITECTURAL COMPETITION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It would be a mistake to infer, as your readers might infer, from your editorial last week entitled "Architects' Competitions," that there is a general feeling among architects in favor of the plan of competition therein described. There are a great number of objections urged against its provisions. It cannot be announced as in any sense a solution of the old difficulty. It is one more attempt to meet all the requirements, and it is a perfectly respectable, intelligent, and honest attempt; but so have been a score of similar attempts before, and so will be a hundred more. The Institute of Architects and many smaller and less generally influential organizations have formulated schemes for competition. Sagacious professional advisers have drawn up programmes. They have all failed to give satisfaction, and all such plans are destined to fail, because they seek to bring about an impossibility, namely, to persuade busy and successful men to give a great deal of valuable advice, designs, calculations, and the result of years of study in return for very inadequate compensation. That compensation is the chance of getting employment; a chance small at best and generally uncertain.

It is not the purpose of this protest to point out the weak points in the Harrisburg or in any competition; but it may at least be suggested that the recently published agreement signed by twenty New York firms and architects offers the only basis known for a proper system of competitions.

Persons meaning to build may choose between those terms on which alone the most successful architects will compete and terms of their own devising, which will be accepted by less well-known men. As those younger men come to be better known, they also will insist on the terms of the agreement signed by the twenty; and so on in a somewhat orderly sequence. Do not imagine, however, that those less prosperous architects accept their fate contentedly, or that they engage in these competitions without profound annoyance. The extremely high character of the experts employed in the Harrisburg competition cannot alone make this an exception to the rule that all such competitions are an offence to the profession, and a very poor way of serving the public. RUSSELL STURGIS.

DANTE AMONG HIS COUNTRYMEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A remark in your review of 'Dante in America' (No. 1678), that "in Italy itself the great poet is a name to worship conventionally more than elsewhere," runs counter to the experience and observation of your present correspondent. Had your reviewer written a few weeks later, he would hardly have used an expression implying that Dante is a writer much talked of but little read by Italians. He would doubtless have read in the *Dial* of September 1 a lady's letter from Berkeley which mentions a settlement of Italian fishermen about San Francisco Bay, apparently without an aspiration other than a supply of the black bread they eat and the sour wine they drink; "and yet these people support a society for the study of Dante."

Again, the reviewer would surely have modified his remark had his Italian experience been of a piece with my own. In May, 1891, I saw a vest-pocket edition of the "Inferno" (pp. 168) on sale wherever I walked in Florence, published in Rome the same year. The price was twenty centimes in the depreciated Italian currency, and so less than four cents. Such an edition, I said to myself, would never have been printed but in response to a popular demand. No printer could afford it. It proves a permanent popularity. This impression of mine was shared and confirmed by Prof. Norton, to whom I exhibited the dime Dante which I had brought home. Though he had always been a gatherer of Dantes, and though my treasure-trove pleased him in paper, type, and text, it had altogether eluded his research. This Lilliputian jewel, less than three inches by four, must have seemed to his Italian purveyors beneath the dignity of his chair. Though I at first saw only the "Inferno," I directly met with the rest of the 'Divina Commedia,' in separate parts, as well as all three portions tastefully bound together, and retailed at a single lira.

It has long been customary to concede to Italian illiterates a degree of artistic discernment, or appreciation for painting and sculpture, which is lacking in uncultured ultramontanes—yes, in many of them where culture has done for them what it could. May not bounteous Nature have added an analogous precious seeing to the eyes of the Italian masses in regard to Dante? It was not without genuine feeling, according to all accounts of Dante's sixth centennial, that the Italian millions cried: "Onorate l'altissimo poeta!"

For illustrating the fewness till recent decades of American Dantophilists, in the judgment of Europeans, there is one significant fact that would have done yeoman service to the reviewer. When Lord Vernon has completed his monumental Dante in vellum paper folios at a greater outlay of money and labor than any other edition had cost, he resolved never to sell a single copy, but to distribute every one as a free gift where it would, as he thought, be best appreciated. As a result of this resolution—*Detur dignioribus*—only four sets were at first vouchsafed to Americans. These four were bestowed upon Ticknor, Lowell, Longfellow, and Norton. DANTOPHILIST.

Notes.

J. B. Lippincott Co. are to publish during the present season a 'Life of Charles Jared Ingersoll,' by William M. Meigs; 'Men, Women, and Manners in Colonial Times,' by Sydney George Fisher; 'Washington after the Revolution, 1784-1799,' by William S. Baker; 'A History of the United States of America, its People and its Institutions,' for advanced school grades, by Charles Morris; 'The University of Pennsylvania Illustrated,' with letter-press by Prof. John B. McMaster and H. L. Geyelin; 'Curiosities of Popular Customs, and of Rites, Ceremonies, etc.,' together with 'A Library of Curiosities,' by William S. Walsh; 'Stories of Famous Songs,' by S. J. Adair Fitzgerald; 'A Guide to the Proper Understanding of Wagner'; a 'Life of Wagner,' by Houston Stuart Chamberlain, illustrated; 'Symphonies and their Meaning,' by Philip H. Goepp; 'Chambers's Concise Biographical Dictionary'; 'Picturesque Burma, Past and Present,' by Mrs. Ernest Hart, copiously illustrated; a new edition of the Urquhart-Motteux translation of Rabelais's Works in five volumes, and Rousseau's 'Confessions' in four, founded on the anonymous edition of 1790-'96, but amended and enlarged.

G. P. Putnam's Sons' autumn list includes a new and limited edition of 'A History of the English Poor Law,' by Sir George Nicholls, K.C.B., revised; a new edition, in larger form, of Bernhard Berenson's 'Venetian Painters of the Renaissance,' with twenty-four examples in photogravure, together with a fresh work by the same author on 'The Central Italian Painters of the Renaissance'; 'Life in Early Britain,' by Bertram C. A. Windle, with maps and illustrations; 'The Ayrshire Homes and Haunts of Burns,' by H. C. Shelley; 'Historic New York,' comprising the twelve papers of the "Half-Moon Series," with illustrations; Irving's 'Astoria,' in the style of the holiday Alhambra edition; a brand-new issue of the Complete Works of Irving in forty volumes; 'The American College in American Life,' by President Thwing of Western Reserve University; 'The Occasional Address: Its Literature and Composition,' by Prof. Lorenzo Sears of Brown University; 'Modern English Prose Writers,' by Frank Preston Stearns; the second and concluding volume of Prof. Moses Coit Tyler's 'Literary History of the American Revolution'; and 'Coffee and India-rubber Culture in Mexico,' with historical and geographical notes on the country, by Matias Romero, Mexican Minister to the United States.

The Baker & Taylor Co. announce for early publication 'A Colonial Witch: Being a Study of the Black Art in the Colony of Connecticut,' by Frank Samuel Child; 'Fabius the Roman; or, How the Church be-

came Militant,' by the Rev. E. Fitch Burr; and 'Sunlight and Shadow,' a book for photographers, edited, with illustrations, by W. I. Lincoln Adams.

An *édition de luxe* of the British classic poets, beginning with Burns, Byron, Milton, Scott, and Wordsworth, will be immediately brought out by Thomas Whittaker, in new type and two styles of binding. He will also market in this country 'Bishops of the Day: A Biographical Dictionary of the Archbishops and Bishops of the Church of England and of All Churches in communion therewith throughout the World,' by Frederick S. Lowndes of Oxford.

From Ginn & Co.'s list of forthcoming educational works we select Gibbon's Memoirs, edited by Prof. O. F. Emerson; 'A History of English Literature,' by Prof. F. B. Gummere; 'Outline of the Philosophy of English Literature: Part i., The Middle Ages,' by Prof. Greenough White; 'Introduction to the Study of Literary Criticism: Volume i., Poetics and the Drama,' by Prof. Charles Mills Gayley; 'Science of Discourse,' by Prof. Arnold Tomkins; 'The Forms of Discourse,' by William B. Cairns; and 'The Principles of Argumentation,' by Prof. George P. Baker.

'The Herbartian Psychology Applied to Education,' by John Adams, President of the Educational Institute of Scotland, is about to be published by D. C. Heath & Co.

The Helman-Taylor Co., Cleveland, have in press a 'History of the Pequot War, from the contemporary accounts of Mason, Underhill, Vincent, and Gardener,' edited, with notes and an introduction, by Charles Orr, librarian of Case Library. The edition will be limited, and each copy will be numbered.

A work dealing with the 'Libraries of London,' their foundation, history, and special features, is now being prepared by Thomas Greenwood, editor of the 'Library Year-Book,' in collaboration with James D. Brown, librarian of the Clerkenwell Public Library, and author of biographies of musical persons. It seems passing strange that no such work should have already been undertaken; but, as a matter of fact, only very few persons know how London teems with libraries. The matter of the coming work will be arranged under the following heads: State Libraries, Society Libraries, Collegiate Libraries, Endowed Libraries, Club and Proprietary Libraries, Voluntary and Subscription Libraries, Church and Hospital Libraries, Municipal or Rate-Supported Libraries, Commercial Libraries, and Miscellaneous Libraries. The work is to be limited to an issue of about 300 copies, and will be illustrated. The price will be one guinea net.

It is not generally known, by the way, that there is a library attached to each of the great departments of state, in London, such as the Foreign Office, the Colonial Office, the Admiralty, and the India Office; each with its own staff. That at the India Office is said to contain about one hundred thousand volumes. A library which contains a number of books relating to the colonial period of the history of the United States is that of Sion College, on the Victoria Embankment. Much use of its collections was made by the late Bishop Wilberforce when writing his history of the 'Church in America.' At the reception given by the authorities of Sion College to the librarians, on the 13th of July last, many of the rarities of the library were exposed to the view of the guests. Among them was a volume of manuscript documents, by Dr. Thomas Bray and others, relating to the Maryland bishopric (1697, &c.), bequeathed to Sion College by Dr. Bray.

Those who are interested in Puritan nomenclature will be glad to learn that Canon Bardsley is about to bring out a new edition of his work upon that peculiar subject.

Cabot literature has grown large enough to require its own bibliography. Prompted by Mr. Foster of the Providence Public Library, Mr. G. P. Winship has prepared a list of works relating to both John and Sebastian. It is clearly arranged, and, though not absolutely exhaustive, will be of service to investigators in the field of early American discovery, as well as to students of the Cabot question proper.

The Centenary Edition of Carlyle's Works, which bears in this country the imprint of Messrs. Scribner, pursues its course with the fourth and final volume of the Cromwell, and 'Past and Present' in one volume, with Mr. Traill's customary introduction. The clear and elegant print of this edition is worthy of finality; but who will predicate that of any edition of any classic? A shade less luxurious in paper, but otherwise comparable in beauty, is the same publishers' Gadshill Edition of Dickens, under Mr. Andrew Lang's direction. Of this we now have 'David Copperfield' in two volumes, with the contemporary etchings. Mr. Lang's perfunctory opening words can hardly be thought to outweigh in interest or value the bibliographical introduction to this work written by the younger Dickens, to which one would never suspect Mr. Lang's manifest indebtedness.

Excellent specimens, also, of English bookmaking, with pretty condensed typography, are the Service & Paton reprints of Bulwer's 'Last Days of Pompeii' and Lever's 'Charles O'Malley' (New York: Putnams). Here there is no apparatus, but the illustrations are numerous and respectable.

The tenth volume of Mrs. Garnett's translations from Turgeneff comprises 'Dream Tales and Prose Poems' (Macmillan). In spite of all shortcomings, not to be too much insisted upon, this series is one to be prized.

From an interesting review by Prof. Carlo Salvioni, in the Milan *Perseveranza*, of August 19, 20, one learns of the attention paid by native scholars to the Milanese speech; first in the 'Vocabulary' of Francesco Cherubini, followed by that of Banfi, who builds upon his predecessor. Last year and this, a third 'Vocabolario Milanese-Italiano,' by Francesco Angiolini, and a 'Dizionario Milanese-Italiano,' by Cletto Arrighi, have appeared, and they are examined together by Salvioni, who, criticising the deficiencies of both, concludes that they meet a want and mark an advance, and that they should be used to check each other. Angiolini confines himself to the dialect of the "gente civile" within the walls, and adds a grammar; Arrighi includes the common people and the suburbs, and has no grammar. Both have a complementary Italian-Milanese vocabulary. It should be remarked that these useful works were evoked by prizes offered by the Ministry of Public Instruction in 1890 for dialect dictionaries throughout the peninsula, to be completed in three years, and that Angiolini won a third prize; Arrighi honorable mention, not having complied fully with the conditions.

A lawyer of Milan, Lodovico Gatta, formerly a member of the municipal government, has honored his city of glorious memories with an historical illustration of the nomenclature of its streets ('Milano e i Nomi delle sue Vie: Personaggi Illustri e Benemeriti: Momenti Storici'). Some 250 biographies and 20 episodes are embraced in this pious memorial.

If one should follow blindly M. Fernand Vandérem in his last clever book, 'Les Deux Rives' (Paul Ollendorff), he might naturally enough come to the conclusion that in Paris the day of judgment had come and gone without observation or any special notice, since the Seine between Auteuil and Bercy separates with perfect accuracy and justice the sheep from the goats. The Rive Gauche is the true fold, the chosen home of virtue, knowledge, and faith. It includes all that Paris holds of purity, industry, and of the familiar and domestic virtues. But the Rive Droite is a sad region, a home of dragons and serpents, a den of all the vices and all the vanities. It is attractive, nevertheless, to those who do not see its hollowness, and seductive to the innocent; and its attractions draw to high and frivolous society, to the Bourse and the Opera. However little one may agree with M. Vandérem's hasty and sweeping division of Paris and of Parisians, it still must be said that his book is full of an ability which quite surpasses mere cleverness. It shows much observation, much faithful representation of character and of life, and is full of interest from beginning to end. It is, in fact, one of the best novels of the year.

An improvement in the hanging of the pictures in the gallery of the Louvre may be called an event of cosmopolitan interest. The desirability of a thorough-going change of this kind is once more set forth, in a recent number of the *Journal des Débats*, by M. André Hallays, upon his return from a visit to the well-arranged collections of Berlin and Munich. Improvements have been made within the last few years in other sections of the museum, but no essential change can be effected in the picture gallery till the famous *salon carré*, with its accumulation of masterpieces, is given up and a series of rooms and cabinets created, each devoted to some great master or school. Under present conditions, M. Hallays declares—and thousands of visitors will agree with him—that, while there is no collection in the world as rich as that of the Louvre, there is none, also, in which the visitor is subjected to so much trouble and fatigue. We are glad to learn that there is some reason for hoping that a new system of classification will be adopted in a not too distant future, when "even those who know, or believe they know, the gallery of the Louvre thoroughly, will wonder at its undreamt-of wealth."

Another African language has taken its place among written languages with the beginnings of a literature. A Somali-English and English-Somali dictionary, together with a grammar and manual of sentences, has just been published in London through the generosity of Lord Delamere. It is the result of the many years' labor of Father É angéliste de Larajasse, the head of the mission of the French Fathers at Berbera. With the proceeds of the sale it is proposed to publish a translation of the Gospels,

a collection of native poetry, and other interesting work. For writing Somali phonetically, Roman characters have been employed with their Latin pronunciation, some signs used in the Syriac alphabet, and one new letter representing the cerebral *d*. The Somalis are an enterprising and adventurous race of unknown origin, whose home for many centuries has been in the Horn of Africa, but who are to be found in most places on the east coast.

The Egyptian Government has, at the instance of the English and French authorities at Cairo, undertaken to have a classification made of all known papyri, whether preserved in Egypt or in other countries. The prime mover in this matter was Mr. Marshall Adams, the author of a book upon the 'Religion of Egypt.' To him, in the first place, Egyptologists are indebted; but the readiness with which the Egyptian Government has adopted the suggestion will be duly recognized by all scholars.

Although little has lately been heard of the Venezuelan boundary question, agents on each side are busily engaged in record-hunting and in the preparation of the respective "cases" to be laid before the Court of Arbitration. The "cases," or statements of claim, must, in terms of the treaty, be handed in by the 14th of February, 1898; the counter-cases by the 14th of June following, and the printed arguments by the 14th of September. The Court of Arbitration will hold its sittings about the 14th of November, 1898. The place of meeting will, most probably, be Paris. A question of some interest is, who will be the fifth Commissioner? It is not known who this important personage will be. The four Commissioners already appointed have the power to name the fifth, who will be their President. If within a certain time no such selection be made, then the appointment will be made by the King of Sweden.

The printer of the London *Figaro* was recently fined £5 and £2 2s. costs as being "a rogue and a vagabond," in terms of a law passed in the reign of George the Fourth, which provides that, "if any person shall publish any proposal or scheme for the sale of any ticket or tickets, chance or chances, in a lottery," he shall be punishable as therein provided. From March to June last, an advertisement of certain "headache powders" had appeared in the *Figaro*, under the heading "£20 Missing Word Competition." A description of the powders was given, with the omission of two words needed to perfect the sense. Six persons guessed the words omitted, and the prize was duly divided among them. The legal proceedings have, of course, given a substantial advertisement to the powders, at the expense of the *Figaro*.

Operators in Wall Street will no doubt be interested in at least one of the scenes in the new play which was to have been performed at the Drury Lane Theatre, London, yesterday for the first time; for a "Panic on the London Stock Exchange" is to be acted with as much of reality as the circumstances will admit. Servants and officers of the Exchange are to be employed in subordinate parts of the performance, while rehearsals of the play have been taking place under the supervision of members of the "House," as stockbrokers are sometimes called.

—Although the naming of Harvard College grew out of a considerable gift of books as well as of money, it was nearly thirty years before the appointment of the first librarian. We learn this fact from "The Librarians of Harvard College," issued as No. 52 of the Bibliographical Contributions of the Library, and compiled by Messrs. Potter and Bolton. The transitory and subordinate nature of the office is shown by the number of persons who held it, from 1667 to 1887—no fewer than sixty, of whom forty-four succeeded each other in the eighteenth century. But the list is very distinguished, embracing the best blood of Massachusetts. From the Library the incumbents went out to make their mark in the community, as our long-term modern librarians cannot do, and more than one rose to high eminence. The first, Solomon Stoddard, became a famous minister in western Massachusetts, and the grandfather of Jonathan Edwards. The second was Samuel Sewall, afterwards chief justice and diarist; the sixth, John Cotton, grandson of Anne Bradstreet, who brought upon himself the displeasure of the Rev. Increase Mather and atoned for it by leaving him "his widow, mother of his eight children," to be his second wife. The tenth was Anthony Stoddard, nephew of the first librarian; the twelfth, John Whiting, married John Cotton's daughter; the fourteenth, Nathaniel Gookin, was the nephew of Daniel, the third (and fifth), and married another daughter of John Cotton; and so the interrelationship ran on in an amusing manner, with the Sewall line most extensively involved. Elizur Holyoke (1757-58) was nephew of Edward (1709-12), who afterwards became President of the College, and whose daughter was about to marry Nathaniel Ward (1768) when that promising librarian died. Samuel Shapleigh (1793-1800), with whom and with Sidney Willard (1800-1805), great-grandnephew of Josiah Willard (1702-3), the century went out, left nearly his whole property, now a fund of $4,000, for the purchase of works in polite literature not Greek or Latin. The Rev. Andrews Norton (1813-21); Joseph Green Cogswell (1821-23), the virtual author of the Astor Library; Benjamin Peirce (1826-1831), the historian of the College and father of the race of mathematicians; Thaddeus William Harris (1831-56), son of Thaddeus Mason Harris (1791-93), and John Langdon Sibley (1856-77), with whom the chronicle ends, are the more famous of the nineteenth-century predecessors of Mr. Justin Winsor.

—Mr. J. Massey Rhind's statue of Stephen Girard, unveiled on May 20 in the Philadelphia City Hall Plaza, seems from the pictures to be a good performance well mounted. The occasion has been commemorated in a volume embodying the proceedings (Philadelphia: Lippincott), and illustrated with photographs of the statue and of the Girard College grounds and buildings. Girard's will is appended, and shows that he drew as fast a color line among the orphans who might enter the gates of his foundation as he did between visiting laymen and clergymen. Only white orphans are provided for, and careful instructions are given for the holding and ultimate sale of a Louisiana property with its slaves and their increase. In this particular, Girard compares with the Baltimore philanthropist McDonogh. The College has now been turning out graduates for half a century, and there is a vague allusion, in the report of the secretary of the committee on page 7, regarding their usefulness in various callings. We cannot, however, recall, in the biography of any American who has become eminent, the fact of his having been one of Girard's beneficiaries; nor have we recognized any such in the list of alumni who contributed to the statue fund. Does this point to an inferior system of education (in a State which notoriously lagged in the care for public instruction), or to a poor class of pupils, in illustration of Darwin's doctrine that heredity counts for more than environment? Would the result have been different if Girard College had been established, say, in Massachusetts?

—The return, on September 3, of the members of the Jackson-Harmsworth polar expedition closes the history of an exploration which has met with a degree of success not fully commensurate with the magnificent manner of its equipment, nor equal to the expectations of those who had been most directly associated with it. Few expeditions have been more lavishly fitted out, and of none, probably, has the leader been more absolute master or more independent to dictate the choice of his work. So far as concerns what is generally assumed to have been the main purpose of the expedition, the attaining of the farthest north if not the pole itself, the expedition has proved a failure, falling short of the attainments of six earlier explorations, viz., those of Parry (1827), Payer, Hall, Nares, Greely, and Nansen. While, manifestly, the non-extension northward of Franz-Josef Land, or the absence north of it of outlying land-masses calculated to serve as a base of support, contributed to this failure, it is not clear why no strenuous effort was made to attack the open sea (especially that part of it which Mr. Jackson has graciously named Victoria Sea) or its encumbering pack. Three years of comfortable habitation in a region lying on the 80th parallel of latitude is an experience that has befallen few expeditions of this kind, and credit is due to Mr. Jackson for the manner in which he conserved the health and strength of himself and his associates during this long period. Despite its shortcomings, the expedition has done much meritorious work, and the delineation and delimitation of the various land-masses which together constitute what may now properly be considered to be the Franz-Josef archipelago is in itself an important contribution to geographical knowledge.

—Criticisms of the work of the Austrian explorer, Julius Payer, in Franz-Josef Land have from time to time appeared in the communications by Mr. Jackson, leader of the Jackson-Harmsworth Polar Expedition, to the Royal Geographical Society of London. The endeavor to minimize the labors of one of the most conscientious and observant of travellers has not met with the justification which the supporting facts were thought to warrant. It remains true that many of the contours laid down by Payer have to be modified in the light of the more detailed determinations of both Jackson and Nansen, and it is equally true that some of the larger land-masses are now known to be associations of smaller tracts; but, in its broader aspects, the work of Payer, especially when the circumstances under which it was executed are considered, is of a strikingly high order, and does credit to a surveyor of rare ability. Prof. Ralph Copeland, Astronomer Royal for Scotland, has recently recalcu-

lated Payer's cartographic data from the original copy of the survey in possession of the Royal Geographical Society, and bears testimony to the general accuracy of the Austrian explorer's constructions and to the value of his charts. The greatest error in the original map is the placing of the great Dove Glacier, which apparently does not exist, as Nansen found water over a large part of the area supposed to be occupied by it. It is almost certain that Payer mistook fog-banks on the eastern horizon for an ice-land—a deception which almost every Arctic voyager has experienced. Prof. Copeland closes his critical comments on the first map of Franz-Josef Land by stating that the region traversed by Payer "is laid down in such a way that any explorer following in his track will be able to correct the few oversights inevitably incidental to a first exploration."

—At a recent meeting of the Oxford Philological Society, held in Exeter College, an important paper was read by Mr. W. Lutoslawski of Drozdowo, Poland, summarizing some of the novel points in regard to the possible discovery of the order of the composition of the Platonic writings. These are to be fully set forth in his forthcoming work on the origin and growth of Plato's 'Logic,' now in the press (Longmans). His plan for a chronological arrangement of the Platonic writings is based on 58,000 coördinated observations of Plato's style. These consist in more than the investigation of the author's vocabulary, though that is not neglected. The tendency, for instance, to invent new words or compounds for certain classes of notions, varies in various works admitted to have been written at different periods. Plato, more than other prose writers, chose to use poetical words; he had a certain number of foreign words in his vocabulary. Rare words were sometimes indispensable for the expression of a specific thought. Common words, occurring frequently, such as particles, are not thus indispensable. The frequency with which any given characteristic word occurs in each dialogue has not been exhaustively registered, nor do we know how the frequency of such words actually used stands in relation to the number of cases where the word might possibly have been used, had Plato so chosen. Equally important is the arrangement of words, as contradistinguished from their selection; the comparative frequency in the use of substantives, as against the use of verbs, and the practice of inversion so conspicuous in Plato's later style. The great point to be kept in mind is that points in style can be used as sure tests of periods of composition only if they are very numerous. The number and also the variety in kind of observed points in style are of the essence of Mr. Lutoslawski's test. The variety of such tests will be found more complete as the investigation proceeds, taking into account such things as the intended or unintended rhythm that goes with certain arrangements of words, the use of proverbs, and the frequency of rhetorical figures. At the present stage of Platonic study, such microscopic investigations, competently made and carefully recorded, are of the very first importance for further progress. Much has been done, but more remains to be accomplished.

—In order to improve for future workers the method of interpreting facts about style, Mr. Lutoslawski seeks to establish certain degrees of greater or less importance in observed peculiarities of style. What may be called accidental peculiarities, such as the use of φιάλη only in 'Symposium,' 'Critias,' and 'Laws,' have little or no significance. The single use in the 'Phædo' of μετάσχεσις, however, has its significance. A higher degree of importance attaches to peculiarities repeated, occurring twice in a small dialogue, twice or three times in an ordinary dialogue, twice or four times in a large dialogue, or less than once on every twelve pages (Didot's pages are the safe unit for observations of the kind) of a longer dialogue. Really important peculiarities are those occurring more than twice in a small dialogue, more than thrice in an ordinary dialogue, more than four times in a large dialogue, and once in twelve pages of the 'Republic' or 'Laws.' Instances of the most important peculiarities of all are (a) κατά with the accusative prevailing over ἐν, (b) πᾶς and its compounds over five times in a page, (c) more than twenty-one prepositions in a page, (d) μέν τοι, occurring less than once in five pages. These are classed with words or idioms recurring very frequently, say 118 times or more in the 'Laws,' 97 times or more in the 'Republic.' The numbers of observed peculiarities in two works compared must differ at least by one-tenth for valid chronological inferences. The total number of peculiarities dealt with ought to be more than 150 in a dialogue of ordinary size. The 'Laws,' as the latest work of Plato, should be used as a standard of comparison. Mr. Lutoslawski makes an earnest appeal to scholars the world over for further inquiry to investigate the peculiarities of the order of words and of the construction of phrases, and declares that a great number of such observed peculiarities will determine the relative affinity of all dialogues, and lead to the definitive solution of all problems of Platonic chronology.

COURTHOPE'S HISTORY OF ENGLISH POETRY.

A History of English Poetry. By W. J. Courthope, Professor of Poetry in the University of Oxford. Vol. II. The Renaissance and the Reformation: Influence of the Court and the Universities. Macmillan. 1897.

Soon after the first volume of his 'History' was published, Mr. Courthope became Professor of Poetry at Oxford. How far these two events stand in the relation of cause and effect, we shall not allow ourselves to conjecture. The coincidence can hardly escape the future historian of nineteenth-century scholarship, who will doubtless interpret it in the easiest way. In what light he will regard the chair and the book in their joint and several bearing on his general subject is a curious, perhaps a fantastic, question, which may also be left to time.

For our own part, we took Mr. Courthope's first volume pretty seriously, reviewing it in these columns with a particularity which its pretensions and the reputation of the author seemed to demand. It attempted to cover the Middle Ages, and it showed, we were pained to discover, only a superficial acquaintance with mediæval literature. Its inaccuracies in detail were gross, and in some of the most important branches of the subject its errors were nothing short of labyrinthine. It ignored much of the best scholarly work of the last thirty years. In pronouncing on complicated and uncertain questions it was dogmatic with the dogmatism of a positive man who knows but half the evidence. In structure it was at once complex and disjointed; even the minute "Analysis of Contents" which stood at the beginning could not make the reader's progress easy or satisfactory. In plain terms, Mr. Courthope's first volume was a monumental failure. Yet, after all, the book was interesting. The author showed unusual power in framing and discussing large generalizations, which, if one could only control them in matters of fact, were not without stimulus. We looked forward, therefore, with some eagerness to the progress of the work, hoping that, when Mr. Courthope reached a period of which he had a competent knowledge, he might produce something of moment.

Obviously that period is not yet reached. The second volume, which lies before us, is a complete disappointment. In no respect is it an advance on its predecessor, and in some ways it betrays a lamentable falling off. It shows no improvement in point of scholarship; it is even more loosely constructed than the first volume, and, from beginning to end, it makes an impression rather of pervasive feebleness than of any kind of power. It is flat and dull. Its learning is superficial; its critical part is shallow and commonplace. Surely in his haste to bring to market the first fruits of his professorship Mr. Courthope has done scant justice whether to himself or to his university.

Yet the period included in this volume, 1450-1600, might well have inspired a good book. It implies, to use the ordinary terms, the transition from the Middle Ages to modern times, and is full of opportunities for the critic and the literary historian. The Renaissance, the Reformation, sixteenth-century French poetry and poetic theories in their effect on England, the far-reaching and very various influences of Italian literature, Spain in its relations to English Euphuism and English romance, the moral plays or moralities—whence they came and whither they were going; the rise of comedy and tragedy—such are some of the subjects with which Mr. Courthope had to concern himself. Every one of these catchwords suggests a host of subordinate but intensely interesting topics. The literary historian of this period has a vast opportunity, and—to the shame of English letters it must be confessed—an almost clear field. Much material has been collected; many clever essays have been written; good *obiter dicta* are abundant; but where shall one look for a comprehensive treatment of the whole matter, conducted on a basis of wide and sound learning, in accordance with just principles of criticism, historical and comparative as well as æsthetic? Such a work, if ever it comes to pass, will not cumber its text with biographical and bibiliographical detail beyond what is necessary and significant. It will distinguish between the "history of poetry" and the "lives of the poets." Above all, it will shun the see-saw method, so much in vogue, by which the reader, after a breathless ascent into the (often somewhat rarefied) air of generalities, is let down with a bump to the contemplation of uninterpreted facts and figures,

only to be carried up into the vague again before he has got his bearings.

Mr. Courthope, we make haste to remark, is not without some conception of the possibilities of his subject and of the method that ought to be followed in treating it. He mentions most of the important problems and discusses some of them at considerable length. As to general method, the opening chapter sets forth, with considerable pomp, a plan of campaign which, the reader thinks, may come to something. "The purpose of this history," we are told, "is to trace the course of our poetry rather by the stream of the national thought and imagination than by that of the national language, and this involves a constant reference to the state of morals and politics in Europe at large." Again: "The sixteenth century is the great age of transition from mediæval to modern times; the chief poets of the period work from the basis of culture provided for them by the Middle Ages, but they are alive to all the influences of their own age; and, like their ancestor Chaucer, they avail themselves of ideas and feelings flowing in upon them from a foreign source." We must therefore have, continues Mr. Courthope, a clear notion of the state of mind of Catholic Europe at the beginning of the sixteenth century, and he therefore proposes "to illustrate the working of the ancient system in Europe on the eve of the Reformation by reference to the Diet of Augsburg held in 1518." Having thus got "a conception of the organic whole," "I shall then," he says, "turn to the parts, and seek in the most characteristic literature of the sixteenth century what I before sought in the literature of the fourteenth—a general idea of the movement of European liberty."

This sounds attractive. "Comparison" seems to be provided for—comparison not only of literature but of the political and social movements of which literature is the expression. We are not to be confined to insular letters, it seems, but all Europe is to be focussed for us. Some light, we imagine, and considerable vitality ought to be the result. A moment's thought, however, reveals the weakness of Mr. Courthope's programme. He will look at literature from no point of view but the political. Art, æsthetics, imagination, creative enthusiasm, poetry itself—all these terms have no meaning for him unless he can see in them a mere expression of the πολιτικὸν ζῶον. Even religious, moral, and social conditions, which fall within his limited scheme and which he really intends to study, reduce themselves to politics in his crucible.

Inadequate as this method is, it would, if consistently followed by a powerful writer well acquainted with all the facts, produce, beyond question, a masterly work—not a real history of literature, doubtless, but a contribution to the history of civilization which all literary students would find enlightening. Mr. Courthope, however, is not true to his own programme. From time to time he asserts his point of view, and, in a paragraph or two of generalities, endeavors to persuade himself that he is following a definite plan. But his treatment has no steadiness. When he comes to a particular author he proceeds in the ordinary fashion: a few pages of "cyclopædia" biography, a few pages of extracts or summaries, some fragments of machine-made criticism, and an academic peroration. The weakness and commonplace of some of the chapters are depressing. Their lack of connection with each other is evidence of the feeble hold which Mr. Courthope has on his general plan or on any plan whatever.

The chapter on Sir Philip Sidney may serve to illustrate these strictures. Here Mr. Courthope has made a distinct attempt at continuity. The chapter itself is entitled "Court Romance: Sir Philip Sidney"; that which precedes is called "Court Dialect: John Lyly"; that which follows, "Court Romance: Edmund Spenser." Elaborate transitional paragraphs are provided. "While one section of Elizabeth's court," writes Mr. Courthope, "occupied itself with forming out of the memories of chivalry a dialect and code of manners fitted to distinguish itself as a caste [*this is our historian's summing up of the Euphuistic movement!*], the more generous spirits endeavored to preserve an ideal of knighthood which should have a practical bearing on the circumstances of their own life." Thus Sidney is introduced to the reader. Then, at the beginning of the chapter on Spenser, an effort is made to tack the three chapters together by the following remark: "The genius of Spenser . . . covered at once the movement developed by the Euphuists for the refinement of the national language, and the ideals of those who aimed at adapting the ideals of chivalry to the requirements of the court." Lyly, Sidney, and Spenser, it will be observed, are conceived by Mr. Courthope to have certain definite relations to each other. It might be expected, therefore, that his treatment of each of them would be guided, in the main, by this conception. Nothing of the kind! The chapter on Sidney reveals itself, on examination, as a mere piece of "space writing." It is hastily and clumsily huddled together out of the most accessible materials. It contains nothing new, nor does it throw any new light on the familiar facts. Mechanical as it is, it may be conveniently analyzed by a mechanical process—that of counting the pages—and no more delicate analysis is needed to resolve it into its elements.

In all, then, Mr. Courthope allots thirty-two pages to Sir Philip Sidney. First we have a page of exordium, quite in the manner of a popular lecture, and ending with a "general utility" sentence: "This harsh contrast between mediæval memories and modern realities produced in many high-spirited English gentlemen a state of feeling which is vividly represented in the life and writings of Sir Philip Sidney." There follows an eleven-page account of Sidney's life, compiled, with due credit, from Fox-Bourne, and including a page and a half of quotations from Languet and others. Next comes a discussion on "romance," with some remarks about Montemayor and Sanazzaro. This occupies four pages. It is remarkable chiefly for some strange ideas about the old French *romans d'aventure*, on which is based a diverting bit of distinction-making. Between seven and eight pages are then filled with a very superficial criticism of the 'Arcadia,' including a page-and-a-half summary of the plot and a page of stylistic specimens. Then come seven pages on 'Astrophel and Stella,' just half of them devoted to a heavy though sensible disquisition on the supposed biographical value of these poems. Five sonnets are quoted in full, and thus two pages are provided for. The chapter then ends with a labored peroration, a page in length, and suggesting, like the exordium, a popular lecture.

The discerning reader will perceive the significance of these statistics. The chapter contains much familiar fact and very little criticism. It is in no way distinguishable from the humdrum literary manual except by the leisurely and ineffectual pomp of its pseudo-Gibbonesque style. "*Arcadia* and *Astrophel* and *Stella* are equally to be regarded as the outpourings of an ardent and chivalrous nature, long pent in the midst of uncongenial surroundings, and at length permitted to find utterance during a period of enforced leisure. In the 'Astrophel' Sidney gives utterance alike to the amorous traditions of chivalry and to the ardors of his own imagination." "The extraordinary medley of elements out of which the fiction [of the 'Arcadia'] is composed, helps to produce that incongruous ideal effect against which Horace warns the inventor of fiction at the opening of his *Ars Poetica*." This is the kind of thing which the Oxford Professor of Poetry thinks important enough to print. One searches the chapter in vain for anything which has not been said before—anything which (a few misconceptions apart) is not to be included in the limbos of "things generally known" and "things that may be taken for granted."

We have selected the chapter on Sidney for particular comment, not because it is below the level of the rest, but because it is, on the whole, a fair sample of the volume. If we had wished to illustrate Mr. Courthope's neglect of the results of recent scholarship, we might have referred to his chapter on Wyatt. If we had been inclined to dwell on his confidence in pronouncing upon subjects which lie out of his welkin, we might have adverted to his preposterous remarks about the English language (at pp. 57 and 94) and about translation in the Anglo-Saxon and Middle English periods (at p. 131). If we had wished to amuse our readers, we might have quoted the solemnity with which Warton is referred to (at p. 103) as if he were a Herald's College for the English poets. If, finally, we had wished to take the book at its very worst, we might have dissected the chapter on "The Evolution of the English Poetical Drama," which is a very dismal piece of hack-work, and exemplifies every imaginable quality from which a 'History of English Poetry' should be free. In concluding, we can but express the hope that Mr. Courthope will let his third volume ripen before he sends it to press.

MAITLAND'S DOMESDAY BOOK.

Domesday Book and Beyond: Three Essays in the Early History of England. By Frederic William Maitland, LL.D., Downing Professor of the Laws of England in the University of Cambridge. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1897.

It is not often that a reviewer can safely use the term "epoch-making"; but to Prof. Maitland's book it may be applied with confidence, and in its true sense. When the future historian of historiography comes to write his chapter on the study of the social and political origins of the English people, he will probably point to the earlier sections of Bishop Stubbs's 'Constitutional History' as summing up in compact and cautious form the conclusions of one whole great school of industrious and enthusiastic scholars. He will then point to Mr. Seebohm's

'English Village Community,' and to various English statements of the views of M. Fustel de Coulanges, as somewhat unexpectedly reopening the discussion by calling in question what had come to be regarded as settled fundamentals. Over the literature of the next few years, including though it did at least one loudly trumpeted work, he will pass rapidly, and he will find the next distinct stage in the course of investigation in the present work of Prof. Maitland. For, like all the books which really mark an epoch in the progress of science, this of Mr. Maitland is no mere defence of a threatened position. It advances to a new position, which, if closer to the older one than to its critics, is yet other than the older one. We would not, perhaps, apply to historiography what some writers are fond of saying of philosophy. We would not speak, for example, of Prof. Maitland as taking up into his doctrine what may be regarded as the valuable elements in the doctrine of Mr. Seebohm. The antithesis between the views of the one and the other is as sharp as can well be: there is, indeed, one respect in which the antithesis is even sharper than it was between Mr. Seebohm and Bishop Stubbs. But, without speculating on what might have been, it is clear that Mr. Maitland's book, as we have it and when we have it, is very much the result of the antagonistic movement of thought called out by 'The English Village Community,' and also that it recognizes and deals with elements in the problem, such as the yardland, to which Mr. Seebohm was the first effectively to call our attention.

In form Prof. Maitland's book is a model of the tentative. It is made up of three "Essays"; one on "Domesday Book"; one on "England before the Conquest," devoted mainly to the Anglo-Saxon land-books; and one to the "Hide." In each of these he fetches a very wide compass; he approaches the matter at issue at a dozen points; he exhausts the phraseology of conjecture, of dubiety, of suggestion, of caution; and ever and anon there are purple patches of self-depreciation. Nevertheless, certain sufficiently positive conclusions gradually emerge which are capable of brief statement.

Mr. Maitland, then, thinks of what afterwards became England as in the main settled by English freemen cultivating their land with the aid perhaps of a slave or so apiece, but unaffected to any noteworthy extent by any previous agricultural system. So far he agrees with the Germanists. To each such adult freeman, head of a family, he assigns in the beginning, as his normal holding, a long hundred (120) of the local 'acres'—which is his interpretation of the *hide*. But now, unlike all those, from Sir Henry Maine and Bishop Stubbs downward, who have been affected by "the mark theory," he altogether refuses to make this freeman's holding subject to any sort of communal ownership. There were, indeed, from the first, apparently over a large part of the country, groups of more or less contiguous residences which grew later into the mediæval village as we know it. The holdings were, moreover, composed of intermingled acre-strips; but they were bound to one another only by the customary rotation of crop and fallow which "must have appeared less as the outcome of human ordinance than as an unalterable arrangement established by the nature of things" (p. 347); and private ownership was as complete as the strong sense of the family tie would allow it to be. There was no substantial village moot; the manorial court was the result of later "feudalizing" tendencies; and much of the "communalism" of subsequent centuries was apparently the consequence of "seignorial pressure." The growth of seignorial authority and of "the manorial system" Mr. Maitland explains as the slow result of many causes—the transfer to private lords of royal rights, the "commendation" of the weak to the strong, the encroachments of magnates, lay and ecclesiastical. Above all, the pressure of Danegeld was "fully capable of transmuting a whole nation" (p. 8). It is Mr. Maitland's most novel, and, so far as we can see at present, his most valuable contention that *manerium* in Domesday is a technical term, meaning nothing more nor less than "a house against which geld is charged," and responsible for the geld which lies on any land that is in any way subject to the power of its holder (pp. 120, 121). Agrarian history, instead of being characterized by the permanence of relations, as Mr. Seebohm, in agreement with the spirit of modern evolutionary thought, would have us believe, "becomes more catastrophic as we trace it backwards" (p. 365). Of these catastrophes the Norman conquest was one of the greatest. The formation of what we may by anticipation call "manors" had gone a very long way before that event; but much still remained to be done before the external symmetry of the thirteenth century was realized; and of this the greater part was accomplished by the Norman Conquest and the violence that accompanied it. "We cannot treat either the legal or the economic history of our peasantry as a continuous whole; it is divided into two parts by the red thread of the Norman Conquest" (p. 60).

In this attempted reconstruction of early English social history, there is much that seems to promise solidity. The explanation of the original meaning of "manor" will probably be pretty generally accepted. That, however, does not necessarily carry with it any very far-reaching conclusions. Very different in that respect is Mr. Maitland's argument concerning the *hide*. If there was from the first only one *hide:* if that *hide* consisted of as much as 120 acres of arable land with the appurtenant pasture; if that was the ordinary holding of the great majority of the heads of cultivating families—then it does seem difficult to find any considerable space for provincial *villæ coloni*, and *servi*. The proof that is offered us is cumulative, and needs minute examination in detail. How much of it Mr. Maitland could surrender and yet produce conviction remains to be seen. But certainly much of it is open to grave doubt. For instance, it is requiring us to attribute either great stupidity or great deceitfulness to those who drew up the early land charters, to ask us to believe that the technical language of Roman law for the conveyance of ownership was employed for a mere conveyance of a "superiority."

Mr. Maitland regards himself as but opening the way to further investigation, and that investigation has a sufficiently hard task before it. There is one consideration to which we would invite attention. If the *yardland* arose simply from the fissure of the *hide*, it is surely surprising that the process of disintegration should so very generally have gone just to the point of producing the *yardland*, and no further. Much of the effectiveness of Mr. Seebohm's argument was due to the impression of uniformity it produced. Mr. Maitland has sought with skill and success to weaken the impression; he delights in revealing heterogeneity and irregularity. Nevertheless, if we are not very much mistaken, over the larger part of England and over wide districts of Germany the thirty-acre *yard*, or *hufe*, was so far more common than any other for the *plenus villanus*, the *voll-spanner*, as to be deemed normal. There may be reasons, in the productivity of the soil or in the spread of fashion, for this result, but it is not what we should have expected on Mr. Maitland's hypothesis.

But 'Domesday Book and Beyond' is not to be lightly disposed of. Students will have to work over it for several years to come; and though it is in great measure caviare to the general, there is perhaps no work in which profound learning is so gracefully and amusingly handled.

Charles Sealsfield, Sein Leben und seine Werke. Von A. B. Faust. Weimar: Emil Felber; New York: G. E. Stechert.

"Der Dichter beider Hemisphären" is the descriptive subtitle of the first systematic attempt to furnish a biography of the once widely read but now almost forgotten Charles Sealsfield. The author of this volume is Prof. A. B. Faust of Wesleyan University, who about seven years ago began to collect his materials at Johns Hopkins, and there presented as his doctor dissertation a study of Sealsfield's style and influence. The work thus emanates from this hemisphere where Sealsfield lived, although printed in the other where he was born. The circumstance has its appropriateness, for Sealsfield's best-known writings are essentially American, although phrased in German. He deserves to be named with Bret Harte, Cooper, and Hawthorne for his vivid and faithful portrayals of American types, now vanishing or quite extinct, which represent certain stages in the history of our civilization. The fearless squatter, the sturdy pioneer, the patriarchal Southern planter, and the New York dandy, who is known to this generation chiefly through the stiff fashion-plate prints of a half-century ago, are all still living in the pages of Sealsfield. The lucid descriptions, too, which he gives of European conditions prior to 1850 have special interest for the American reader, since it was out of those conditions that the great immigration arose which so profoundly influenced the development of this country. Longfellow admired Sealsfield, and in his journal we find this entry: "In the evening F. read our favorite Sealsfield. His descriptions of the Southwest are very striking. The Creole Ball quite life-like, and the passage through the cypress swamp terrible." There is, as Prof. Faust admits, more matter than art in these graphic narratives, and no psychological analysis, but they have the absorbing interest of sketches drawn from life by a quick observer with unfailing humor. It was the sketchy character of these works, perhaps, that rendered them so accessible a treasure-house for plagiarists. Moreover, they were written under an assumed name and never attained great popularity in America. All things favored the literary appropriator, and Capt. Mayne Reid in his 'Wild Life' boldly reprinted in their entirety seve-

ral chapters from Sealsfield's 'Cabin Book.'

The life of Sealsfield possesses the same romantic interest that attaches to the mysterious personalities of Kaspar Hauser and the man with the iron mask. He attained his popularity during the first half of this century as "the great unknown." When the author revealed himself it was as Charles Sealsfield, and no clue remained to connect him with the monk, Carl Postl, who, in 1823, had fled from the monastery in Prague, leaving no trace. Not until the author's will was opened in 1864 was this unsuspected identity established. By his own directions the initials C. P. were placed upon his tombstone, and the date of Sealsfield's birth, March 3, 1793, corresponds with that of Carl Postl. It was thus an unknown monk of Prague, who, with Gutzkow and Jungdeutschland, assisted in the political and literary revolution which made for representative government on the one hand and for realism on the other. Speaking of Sealsfield's feverish unrest, the late Prof. Treitschke said: "In such powerful but unschooled talents the spirit of the age is mostly clearly revealed. Sealsfield's writings prove how irresistibly the time was pressing on towards realism." And these realistic sketches have a lasting value which Americans have not sufficiently recognized. Numerous translations of these works exist, and, if Prof. Faust's work should be translated and abridged, attention would again be directed to Sealsfield's strong and striking characterizations. A real service would thus be rendered to those who wish to study America in her turbulent efforts to transplant an old civilization to a new continent on a grand scale and under untried conditions.

Naples in the Nineties: A Sequel to Naples in 1888. By E. Neville-Rolfe, B.A., of Heacham Hall, Norfolk, H. B. M. Consul for South Italy, etc. With illustrations. London: Adam & Charles Black: New York: Macmillan. 1897.

In the first page of this book reference is made to 'Naples in 1888,' joint work of the present author and another. It appears that, in Mr. Neville-Rolfe's opinion, Naples is changing with such rapidity that it is far easier to write a new book than to issue a revised edition of one only nine years old. The keynote of it, perhaps, rings most strongly in chapter ix., of which the title is "An Old World Journey," and from the opening words of which it appears that an ancestor of the author's made "the grand tour" some time before 1759, and left a diary. This gentleman was Edmund Rolfe, Esquire and master of Heacham Hall, Norfolk, as his title-page shows that our author is in his day also. The diary is printed in full, occupying eighty pages. It is, for its length, as interesting as anything in Pepys or Evelyn, and to read it alone is well worth the price of the book before us. In calling it the keynote, we are not conscious of doing injustice to the more modern writer, although he has been a continuous resident in the south of Italy, whereas his ancestor travelled rapidly, for his time, with the disadvantages of the slow communication of the eighteenth century. In fact, this is in no respect an exhaustive treatise on any part of the subject. Neither the cities and their monuments, nor the country and its productions; neither the people and their doings, nor the Government and its influence, are treated with any great thoroughness; but the whole is very interesting and can be read from beginning to end without effort by any one who is prepared to except certain errors of statement. Even these are rather inaccuracies than mistakes. Thus there is an odd, blundering description of the substructure of a Roman amphitheatre and of the relation which that structure held to the Greek circus. And again, it is stated that, at Herculaneum, the famous Villa and Basilica have both been filled up again. Certainly, if our author had ever visited Herculaneum, he would have known that the Villa and the Theatre lie under fifty to ninety feet of solid, if soft, rock, and have never been, for one moment, open to the light of day. This, however, is an error which is not uncommon in writing about Herculaneum; for the fact that a small part of the city has been opened to the air, and that other parts, not now open, have been so in the past, and also that the galleries under ground were filled up with the débris obtained by excavating other galleries, tends to confuse the mind of the student and to falsify the guide-books. Our author seems to feel the importance of the burial and gradual recovery of whole tracts of waterside between Vesuvius and the Bay of Naples. It is rare that any writer on this region seems rightly to grasp the immense significance to the whole of Italy of that series of earthquakes and eruptions which marked the reign of Titus. Not Herculaneum and Pompeii alone, but the whole belt of country between Naples and the peninsula of Sorrento, was changed by it, and the Bay of Naples, beautiful now, must have been immeasurably more beautiful before that series of natural cataclysms. In connection with this it is good to see that Mr. Neville-Rolfe appreciates the extraordinary picturesqueness of the site of Naples itself, and dwells at length upon that superb acropolis which still stands at the head of Santa Lucia, and separates old Naples from the new city which is building up on the seaside northwest of the Greco-Roman town.

That sort of appreciation of foreign, of Roman Catholic, of Southern manners as distinguished from home, from Protestant and from Northern feeling, which is so marked in half a dozen of the earlier poems of Robert Browning, is visible throughout this book. When a traveller lives long enough in a country to understand pretty well the details of what he sees, and still preserves through it all his feeling for its novelty and the radical difference between what he sees and what his readers at home are familiar with—then, indeed, he is qualified to be an interesting writer, and that is what Mr. Neville-Rolfe assuredly is.

The Genealogical Magazine: A Journal of Family History, Heraldry, and Pedigrees. London: Elliot Stock; New York: J. W. Bouton. 1897.

The first number of this magazine was issued in May, in quarto form, 64 pages to each part, and the four numbers now in hand enable us to judge fairly of its intended scope. Although the English race is the only one which has preserved the materials for preparing genealogies of a large portion of its members, there is a wide difference between the aims and methods of English and American genealogists. Everywhere, except in England, prior to 1630 the records remaining are almost exclusively those of the limited class of the nobility. In France and Germany there was, indeed, for two centuries before that date a certain percentage of a middle class whose members had hereditary surnames, records of births, deaths, and marriages, and of property, but the unhappy wars which have ravaged both countries have caused the destruction of most of these archives. In England these records have been largely preserved, and while the pedigrees of peers have been well traced, the systematic subsidence of the junior branches, male and female, of the nobility into the ranks of the commoners has extended the public interest in the pedigree of even the highest ranks, as probable or ascertained ancestors.

In America, especially in the case of persons of English descent, a genealogy begins with a definite ancestor, a first settler, whose descendants are not only of equal rank in blood, but generally in social position. Fortunately, also, our ancestors promptly invented a system of public records by which pedigree-making is reduced to a careful scrutiny of documents easily accessible.

In England the fact that the manufacture of authentic pedigrees, at least in regard to honors and coats-of-arms, has been for centuries the monopoly of the officers of the Crown, the College of Heralds, has given a distinctly aristocratic tinge to all genealogical writing. "Peerages" and "Baronetages" have been printed for nearly two hundred years, but magazines devoted to genealogy are of very recent date. Leaving out of the reckoning the facts recorded in the *Gentleman's Magazine* for the last century, the first English magazine was the *Herald and Genealogist*, founded by John Gough Nichols in 1863, continued through eight volumes, and terminated by his death in 1874. We do not ignore his earlier issues, the 'Collectanea Topographica et Genealogica' (1833-1843), nor the still existing 'Miscellanea Genealogica et Heraldica,' of Dr. Joseph Jackson Howard; but these are not magazines. Of late years, local antiquarian societies have started small magazines devoted to various county affairs, but the work under notice seems to be the true successor to Mr. Nichols's admirable magazine.

The new candidate for public favor, edited by Arthur Charles Fox-Davies, is distinctively English in form and scope, but the "reading matter" is largely in excess of the tabular pedigrees. We note, for the information of Americans, articles on Bradford's 'History of New Plymouth' and on the capture of Washington in 1814. Other articles are on the Shakspere family, being scattered notes on the many persons of the name in Warwickshire; on Lord Nelson's family; on the Lane and Strode families; and two or three essays upon certain peerages wherein obscure junior branches are carefully traced. This latter subject is one of special fascination to English genealogists, who wage war for years in innumerable essays to define the relationship between William, Earl of Warren, and William the Conqueror, or upon the question whether some summons to the House of Lords under the Plantagenets did or did not create a new peerage with a new line of descent. We hope that the editor of this magazine will soon turn his attention to the example set by the late Col. Joseph L. Chester, and successfully followed by the present Henry F. Waters, and explore and make

available some part of the valuable manuscripts remaining in the English archives. We want more copies of wills, deeds, and family papers; more facts and fewer dissertations.

We close by putting in comparison with this select and exclusive magazine the work of our own genealogists. The *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* has completed its fiftieth volume, issued regularly every quarter, and containing the history of thousands of families. To be sure, we have no families to trace earlier than 1630; but are there no families in England, outside the "landed gentry," who have a pride in their ancestry for the past eight generations?

The People for whom Shakespeare Wrote. By Charles Dudley Warner. Harper & Brothers. 1897. Pp. vi, 1897. Illustrated.

There seems to be always room for a new book about Shakspere, and even were the public not "overkind" to Mr. Warner, as his preface intimates, it would doubtless enjoy seeing the old contemporary materials, describing the temper and manners of the Tudor and Stuart ages, recast in a concise and lively form. Harrison has been more largely drawn upon than any other author. There are fewer references than might be expected to Shakspere's own brothers in the dramatic craft. More is said about Ben Jonson than any other. The allusions to Beaumont, Fletcher, and Massinger are scanty indeed; yet all three, and the first two in particular, are rich in material for Mr. Warner's purpose. A more serious criticism would appear to be that there is little or nothing like critical research. The "*English Mercury* of 1588" is spoken of as the first newspaper as if it were exactly as genuine as the *Boston News-Letter*. Yet the forgery has been exploded again and again, at least as long ago as 1839. In speaking of the Earl of Essex, Mr. Warner strangely calls him more than once by the modern corrupt form Devereaux instead of Devereux. On page 4, the well-known John Donne has his name printed Dunne; if this is the spelling of Sir Richard Baker, it shows how the name was pronounced.

One trait of Shakspere's age escapes mention in this work, as in most others on the same subject, which is yet hardly to be missed by an attentive reader of its literature. This is the greater tenderness of feeling and expression manifested by men to men. There is, between Shakspere's heroes and those of his compeers, a tone of romantic and effusive affection which may seem feeble and sentimental to the sternly matter-of-fact friendship of to-day, but which lends a very soothing and charming influence to the roughness and boisterousness of that day. A most beautiful instance will be remembered in "Henry V.," act iv., where the death of the Duke of York is described.

For one bit of old-fogyism we may well be thankful. Mr. Warner is actually so far behind the age as not even to allude to Shakspere's being anybody but Shakspere.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ashworth, Alice. Just a Little Boy. F. Warne & Co. 75c.
Balzac, H. de. Seraphita. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Bedford, Rev. W. K. R. The Blazon of Episcopacy. 2d ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Bell, Lilian. From a Girl's Point of View. Harpers. $1.25.
Beman, Prof. W. W., and Smith, Prof. D. E. Higher Arithmetic. Boston: Ginn & Co. 10c.
Bemmelen, Dr. J. F. van, and Hooyer, G. B. Guide to the Dutch East Indies. London: Luzac & Co.
Betz, L. P. Die Französische Litteratur im Urteile Heinrich Heine's. Berlin: Wilhelm Gronau.
Blakeley, Mrs. Elizabeth S. Fairy Starlight and the Dolls. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Boswell, James. The Life of Samuel Johnson. [Temple Classics.] Vol. II. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. 50c.
Brinton, Prof. D. G. Religions of Primitive Peoples. Putnams. $1.50.
Butts, Lieut. E. L. Manual of Physical Drill, U. S. Army. Appletons. $1.25.
Callwell, Major C. E. The Effect of Maritime Command on Land Campaigns since Waterloo. London: Blackwood; New York: Scribners. $2.50.
Carlyle, Thomas. Cromwell's Letters and Speeches. Vol. IV. Past and Present. [Centenary Edition.] Scribners. Each $1.25.
Carman, Bliss. Ballads of Lost Haven: a Book of the Sea. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.
Chapman's Homer's Odyssey. 2 vols. [Temple Classics.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Chester, Prof. A. H. A Catalogue of Minerals. 3d ed. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: John Wiley & Sons.
Clark, J. C. L. Tom Moore in Bermuda. Lancaster, Mass.: The Author.
Church, W. C. Ulysses S. Grant, and the Period of National Preservation and Reconstruction. Putnams. $1.50.
Church, S. H. John Marmaduke: A Romance of the English Invasion of Ireland in 1649. Putnams. $1.25.
Clifford, Mrs. W. K. Mrs. Keith's Crime. New ed. Harpers. $1.
Comba, T. E. Compendium of Italian Pronunciation. New York: Truslove & Comba.
Cooley, Prof. Le Roy C. Students' Manual of Physics. American Book Co. $1.
Cranch, C. P. The Æneid of Virgil Translated into English Blank Verse. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Croker, B. M. Beyond the Pale. A Novel. New York: R. F. Fenno & Co.
Crowest, F. J. Verdi: Man and Musician. His Biography with Especial Reference to his English Experiences. Scribners. $2.50.
Dawson, Sir J. W. Relics of Primeval Life. F. H. Revell Co. $1.50.
Dennis, Rev. J. S. Christian Missions and Social Progress. Vol. I. F. H. Revell Co. $2.50.
Devere, William. Jim Marshall's New Planner, and Other Western Stories. Chicago: M. Wilmark & Sons.
Dickens, Charles. David Copperfield. 2 vols. [Gadshill Edition.] Scribners $3.
Duncan, Grace L. The Chautauqua Year Book. Boston: The Pilgrim Press.
Escott, T. H. S. Social Transformations of the Victorian Age. Scribners. $2.
Fitch, Sir Joshua. Thomas and Matthew Arnold, and Their Influence on English Education. Scribners. $1.
Fitzgerald, Percy. Boswell's Life of Johnson and A Tour to the Hebrides. Whittaker. $2.00.
Gardiner, S. R. What Gunpowder Plot Was. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Gautier, Théophile. Captain Fracasse. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.25.
Gordon, Col. H. R. Pontiac, Chief of the Ottawas: A Tale of the Siege of Detroit. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
"Hamlet." [Riverside Literature Series.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 40c.
Harland, Marion. An Old-Field School-Girl. Scribners. $1.25.
Heysinger, Dr. L. W. The Scientific Basis of Medicine.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 23, 1897.

The Week.

The Cuban news is grave, whether all its details are accurate or not. Minister Woodford may not have delivered an ultimatum to Spain, but there seems to be no doubt that he has made, or will make, very serious representations to the Spanish Government, under instructions from our own; or that a crisis in our relations to Spain is approaching. Exactly what ground the Administration has chosen on which to make its remonstrances to Spain is, of course, not yet known; but it is fair to presume that the despatches of the *Temps* of Paris are not wide of the mark in asserting that special stress was laid, in Gen. Woodford's communication, upon the great losses sustained by reason of the long-continued war, and the evident unlikelihood of the rebellion's being crushed within a reasonable time. This, it is important to recall, is the historic American position, and is the only rational and justifiable way of dealing with an affair which, in any aspect, is deplorable and thick with embarrassments. No longer ago than President Cleveland's message of December 7, 1896, interference on the lines indicated was distinctly foreshadowed, and he was but taking his stand where President Grant had taken his in 1874 and 1875. With our foreign affairs then in the careful hands of Hamilton Fish, interference with Spain on the ground of the prolonged rebellion in Cuba was yet distinctly intimated. In his annual message of December 7, 1874, Gen. Grant referred to the continuance of "the deplorable strife in Cuba," then of six years' duration, and said that "positive steps on the part of other Powers" might become "a matter of self-necessity." In the following December he adverted to the subject more at length.

Of course, the threat of force necessarily lies back of any interference, no matter how considerately it may be suggested. The inevitable implication is, "We very much hope you will listen to our respectful and friendly representations; but if you do not, why, we shall have to compel you to." Now this is a grave step to take with a high-spirited and almost insanely proud people like the Spanish. They recognize no distinction between Cuba and any other part of their territory. A suggestion from any outside Power about Cuba would seem as deep an insult as one about Catalonia. How an open rupture could be avoided it is not easy to see. It is said, indeed, that many public men in Spain would welcome our interference, as enabling them to give up Cuba under stress of superior force, and so save Spanish pride. But any such programme would necessarily involve a show of war, if not actual war. Probably no intelligent Spaniards would enter upon war with the United States except as a desperate resort to vindicate the national honor. But even a war undertaken by one of the parties to it in a hopeless spirit may be made disastrous to both before it is over. This is only one of those grave considerations which, it is to be hoped, the Administration has carefully weighed before embarking on a policy which may lead us far and cost us dear.

A striking saying of the late Cánovas del Castillo is reported by M. Charles Benoist in his article on that Spanish statesman in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* of September 1. "We Spaniards," Cánovas is said to have declared in 1878, "are not strong enough to insist upon the first place; but we are not, and we cannot be, modest enough to take the second place with a good grace." The phrase is typical not only of the policy which Cánovas pursued so indomitably, but, in a sense, of the whole course of Spanish affairs in this century. Cánovas, according to M. Benoist, would not consent to sound European governments in respect to the Cuban trouble; it was beneath the dignity of Spain so much as to admit that she was in difficulties. So of the many other solutions proposed: Spain was too proud to sell Cuba; her troops would die there, her last man and peseta would be sent there if necessary, but the island would never be abandoned. The conduct of the foreign relations of Spain, in short, has been kept as far as possible on the haughty plane occupied by the rulers of Spain when she held the primacy of Europe. In view of her sadly changed circumstances, this is magnificent, but is it statesmanship?

Soon after Secretary Sherman's ill-mannered and undiplomatic despatch about the seals was made public, the British Government announced that the despatch had been duly answered. That answer is now given in a "Blue Book" covering the correspondence. It consists in a complete ignoring of Mr. Sherman's bad manners, and a quiet remark that, as far as his despatch contained any arguments, they had been met by anticipation in previous notes by Lord Salisbury. It is added that the Government's assent to a conference of experts in October contemplates only a "limited inquiry" as to the facts, and does not at all countenance "Mr. Sherman's strange misconceptions." All this would seem the ideal way for a gentleman to deal with a boor, were it not that Mr. Chamberlain has been allowed, in a communication from the Colonial Office to the Foreign Office, to traverse Mr. Sherman's assertions and give him, though in better literary form, as good as he sent. England's "unavailing protests against the attempts of the United States to hamper and embarrass the operations of British subjects pursuing their lawful vocation," is not a very happy or conciliatory way of phrasing it. But the notes to Ambassador Hay and Secretary Sherman appear to be in perfect taste and form, and to have rebuked bad manners in the most effective way possible—by ignoring them and displaying good manners.

We are not surprised to learn from the *Tribune's* Washington despatch that State Department officials are shocked at the bad form of the English reply to Secretary Sherman. They will not be quoted; they make no open comments—that would be bad form on their part—but they raise their eyebrows and look unutterable things. The main trouble seems to be that no official copy of Mr. Chamberlain's letter to Lord Salisbury has reached Washington. The London papers had it in advance. This is severely commented upon by the Washington correspondent of the *Tribune*, in the same breath in which he points out the advantage his own paper enjoyed in getting a copy of Secretary Sherman's despatch in advance. But we doubt if an official copy of Mr. Chamberlain's letter ever reaches Washington at all. It was a purely domestic affair between the Colonial Office and the Foreign Office. Doubtless Mr. Chamberlain saw that it reached the papers very much as the author of the Sherman despatch saw that *his* performance reached them. As authorities on diplomatic "good form," neither our editors nor our State Department seem to be in a position to hold up hands of horror at the disgusting English.

Hawaii is already annexed to the United States, as far as her own action can do it. A special session of the Hawaiian Senate was called for September 8, to ratify the treaty. There was no concealment of the reasons for this step. It was intended both to expedite matters at Washington and to do away with the dangers of delay at Honolulu. Government supporters openly said that if the treaty should be long tied up in Washington, or should appear to be in danger of failing there, it might not be possible to ratify it even in Hawaii. Hence the need of speed. So the Senate

was called together, and is reported to have approved the treaty. But this, of course, amounts to nothing so far as we are concerned, and really will serve to embitter the Hawaiians still further at being ruled by an oligarchy. They have practically no voice in electing their Senate, and yet their Senate is giving away their country. Less than 3,000 voters have anything to do with elections in the Hawaiian republic; even they have not been consulted about the choice of President or Senate, both being, in effect, self-appointed. Yet it is this President and this Senate that have hastened to alienate the territory and extinguish the nationality of 100,000 people without consulting them. To put the finishing touch of dishonesty to their action, they describe it as performed in the name of republican institutions and Christianity!

It appears now that the Bank of England did address a note to the Chancellor of the Exchequer as long ago as the 29th of July, offering to hold one-fifth of the reserves of the issues department in silver on condition that "the French mint is again open to the free coinage of silver, and that the prices at which silver is procurable and salable are satisfactory." Exactly what is meant by the last clause is not clear. One interpretation put upon it is that the Government shall protect the Bank against loss in the purchase and sale of silver, but it may mean merely that the ratio between gold and silver must be satisfactory. Although the conditions imposed are not likely to be complied with, since it is most improbable that France will expose herself to the loss of her gold by a resumption of silver coinage, the action of the Bank of England is quite unaccountable. It is also extremely mischievous since it comes at a time when the silverites both here and abroad are flat on their backs. The price of silver had dropped about 20 per cent. The simultaneous advance in wheat had turned the laugh on the Bryanites and deprived them of their principal argument. Japan had adopted the single gold standard. Russia had taken the initial steps to that end. The silver craze in Germany had nearly died and in France it was on the wane. Above all, the discontinuance of silver coinage in India had produced comparative steadiness in the value of the rupee and in the rate of exchange with England. All these desirable results had come about since the last international babblement about silver, and even if the results had not been altogether desirable at the time when the Brussels conference was in session, they were now *faits accomplis*. The monetary question now wore a new aspect, and by all business rules ought to remain undisturbed by business men. In this condition of calm the Bank of England, reputed to be the most solid and conservative institution in the world—one which has been conducted on the single gold standard for eighty years, and has never used silver except for small change in all that time—takes a step, not to restore silver to the category of legal tender, but to put the silverites of the world on their feet once more and fill them with new hope and courage.

A letter from Lord Farrer to the London *Times* gives information that a proposal has been made to reopen the Indian mints to silver on the understanding that the United States and France do the same at a ratio of 15½ to 1. The consideration offered is, that it will insure India a permanent and steady exchange. Lord Farrer was himself a member of the Monetary Commission of 1893, which examined and passed upon the proposal of the Indian Government to discontinue the coinage of silver and tentatively adopt the gold standard. The commission made an exhaustive report, and reached the unanimous conclusion that the proposal should be agreed to, in order to put an end to the fluctuations of exchange. They believed that if the mints were closed, the value of the rupee would no longer follow the fluctuations of silver, but would become steady and be subject only to the slight changes of a commercial character which exist between gold-standard countries. The result has fully justified their expectations. Owing to the fact that a large amount of silver had been lodged in the Indian mints in anticipation of the discontinuance of coinage, the value of the rupee showed a tendency to follow the value of silver during the two subsequent years. At the beginning of 1896, however, the rupee took an independent course, and with some slight fluctuations began to rise, while silver was falling. It was worth 16d. in June, 1893, when the mints were closed. It is now worth 16¼d., while the silver bullion contained in a rupee is worth less than 10d. This shows that the object of stopping coinage in India has been realized, and now it is proposed to upset the whole arrangement and try something else.

The lack of interest in the silver movement at the present time was strikingly demonstrated at Springfield, O., last week. A "national free-silver camp-meeting" was projected, under the auspices of the National Bimetallic Union, to begin on Thursday and continue for some days. Ex-Congressman Warner, President of the Union, was in charge, and he had engaged a long list of speakers, whose fame was expected to draw people from near and far, excursion parties from Colorado and Utah being counted upon. When the opening day came, there was not even an excursion from any Ohio town, and there were almost more orators than auditors, only thirty-five people being present. The managers did not attempt to hold any meeting the second day, but sent an urgent appeal to Bryan to come to their rescue, which he unfeelingly refused to do. On the third day it is said that free excursions brought in several hundred people. The fiasco shows that the men who are running the Democratic campaign in Ohio have been shrewd in retiring free coinage from the prominence which they gave it in their platform, and in trying to carry the election on other issues.

In view of the action taken by the recent convention of knit-goods manufacturers, the Philadelphia *Ledger* calls upon Congress to repeal the present tariff on those goods and substitute the duties of the Wilson bill, which were a plain 35 per cent. ad valorem. The reason why this should be done, in the opinion of the *Ledger*, is that the convention resolved, in the first place, to advance the prices of knit goods 15 to 40 per cent., and in the next place to curtail production "even to the stoppage of our mills" in order to force the advance of prices. In other words, the manufacturers declare their intention to "interfere with that wholesome competition in trade which public policy demands shall not be restrained, and deprive of work and wages the 50,000 or 100,000, or whatever the number may be, workingmen or women employed in the mills." The manufacturers, on the other hand, say that they can make no money at present. They have been overprotected in the past to such a degree that domestic production is strangling them, and on top of this comes the new tariff on wool, which they could not avoid, even if they wished to do so. There is much to be said on both sides, but nothing whatever is to be said for the tariff itself, which compels the manufacturers to oppress either their customers or their employees, and perhaps both.

Mr. Dingley's explanation, through his paper, the Lewiston *Journal*, of the reason and intent of the changes made in his now famous section 22 is, besides being most unlikely, pure afterthought. He now reasons gravely about what was aimed at in the changes, but when the conference report was made he did not even know, or at least he said he did not know, that there had been any changes. He was specifically questioned about the section, and as specifically answered that it was "an old provision"; that it had "been the law for fifty years, yes, a hundred years"; that it was in the "early tariff bills," and in "every tariff bill since," including "the tariff bill of 1894." It is clear, then, that Mr. Dingley was either himself deceived or was practising deception on the House. At

any rate, the Attorney-General will not get much light from him as to the "intent" of Congress in passing a law which it did not know it was passing at all.

Civil-service reformers are not at all disturbed by the recent decision of Judge Cox of the District of Columbia Supreme Court, since supplemented by a similar deliverance from Judge Jenkins in Chicago, as to the power of removal and the legal worthlessness of executive rules on the subject. Mr. Rice, of the National Civil-Service Commission, not only finds in this interpretation of the law no basis for exultation on the part of spoilsmen, but expresses the belief that, when properly understood, it will aid in the betterment of the service. The effect of these decisions is to place the responsibility for the enforcement of the civil-service rules, not upon the courts, but upon the officials appointed by the President; and Mr. Rice holds that it is an advantage to exchange the risk of technicalities in the courts for the certainty that the Executive may act directly and dismiss his appointees if they fail to conform to his instructions. He says that President Cleveland did not hesitate to dismiss, upon the recommendation of the Civil-Service Commission, a number of his own appointees who wilfully violated the civil-service rules, and he trusts that President McKinley will compel observance of his own recently promulgated rule regarding removals by similar action whenever it may be required.

As we understand the situation, the only serious obstacle to Mr. Low's support by the Republican machine is the doubtful "loyalty" of his Republicanism. Meanwhile the State press has been making some revelations concerning the "loyalty" of Platt's chosen candidate for Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals, Judge Wallace of the United States Circuit Court. His offending is much more serious than Mr. Low's. He not only refused to vote for Blaine in 1884, but, it is charged, on what seems to be good authority, and is not denied, that he voted for Cleveland in 1884, 1888, and 1892. What is far worse than this, his name was published in 1884 at the head of a list of "Cleveland Republicans" in Syracuse, and he sat as a vice-president on the platform of a Cleveland ratification meeting in Syracuse, at which Carl Schurz spoke. Nothing could be more offensive in the way of "disloyalty" than this. He not only refused to support Blaine, but he sustained with his presence a public assault upon Blaine by the most detested of all the Mugwumps. We do not set forth these facts for the purpose of in any way questioning Judge Wallace's fitness for the chief judgeship of the Court of Appeals. On the contrary, they constitute evidence in his favor which, taken in connection with his excellent record on the bench, leads us to look upon him as an exceptionally desirable candidate. But how can Mr. Platt take this view of him? How can he reject Mr. Low as unworthy of Republican support for Mayor of New York because of his "disloyalty," and at the same time nominate Judge Wallace for the Court of Appeals?

The lynching in Indiana of several ordinary burglars and thieves is another illustration of the spread all over the Union of contempt for legal process. These men seem to have carried on their depredations for many months with impunity. They roved about the State breaking into houses and torturing people to make them reveal their valuables, and nobody meddled with them. The sheriffs of the various counties seem to have adopted the view of the California sheriff who, when invited to arrest some highwaymen, refused, saying, "The darned fellers they robbed should catch 'em." At last the Indiana dignitary was aroused and caught some of the robbers and lodged them in jail. Four hundred farmers then arose in their might, took them out of the hands of the authorities, and hanged them. All over the country we have no country police. It is only in the cities that anybody stands ready to arrest a malefactor. Out in the rural districts every man has really to be his own policeman. There is, to be sure, a sheriff, but the sheriff is an officer elected without the slightest reference to his fitness for police duty, and he, if he can be reached in time, pursues criminals, if at all, with as much or as little zeal as his convenience or temperament will permit. He cannot be called to account for neglect or misconduct except by a trial before the Governor, on charges which hardly anybody is ever willing to make. The result is, crimes committed in the country, unless they are murderous, are rarely punished. What we need in all country districts is what is called a country "police" in England and "gendarmerie" in France; that is, uniformed and salaried police, whose business it is to patrol country roads and pursue criminals. In England every village has at least one uniformed constable, and the whole are under the orders of a single county superintendent. These police are to be met everywhere, and no burglar or highway robber can make more than one stroke without finding them on his track.

That shadowy, if not shady, institution, the "National University of Chicago," which has been selling degrees in England, finds an unblushing defender of its unblushing methods in the person of "F. W. Harkins, Chancellor," This worthy writes to the English papers, under date of August 19, asserting that his "university" is, despite the ignorance of our Bureau of Education, "regularly chartered," and legally as much entitled to grant degrees as Oxford or Cambridge. But he has no desire to "antagonize" those seats of learning; his aim is to "reach worthy persons they would never reach." His philanthropic endeavor is to bestow a "boon" on the "many who otherwise would never have known a college course or would have missed the enjoyment of its higher honors." This boon and these higher honors any worthy person may obtain from the National University of Chicago on the payment of a suitable fee. The "Chancellor" indignantly denies that this fee is as low as $5. The mere rumor that such is the figure has "deluged" him with "applications." Applicants are informed that they must not expect a degree at "less than the cost of the engraved diploma." The Chancellor spurns $5, but we should hate to expose him to the temptation of $5.67. His letter is of a piece with the impudence and fraudulent nature of the whole affair, and shows in what delightful ways American ideas and institutions are publicly commended to foreigners.

Apropos of the candidacy of D'Annunzio for the Italian Parliament, a French writer has been taking a survey of the literary men of Europe who are in public life, or who at least aspire to political influence. In Italy Carducci's name comes first, of course; and Verdi, though not strictly a man of letters, is a Senator. Spain still honors literary achievement with political rewards; Cánovas himself was a distinguished historian; Castelar, Galdós, Martos, have been at once Academicians and members of the Cortes. Seven writers of more or less prominence are in the German Reichstag, Prof. Virchow being the most distinguished. Maurus Jókai is a member of the Hungarian Parliament. In England the well-known names are thicker; Morley, Lecky, Bryce, being all members of the present Parliament, to say nothing of Mr. Balfour, who made such a hit with his 'Foundations of Belief'—a book which, we understand, was written years ago and then brought out as an example of the way in which a statesman might refresh himself, after vulgar political struggles, by plunging into metaphysics. America does not come within the sweep of the summary we are following—perhaps because the names of our great writers in Congress are unknown to Europeans. But surely they must have heard of Lodge, and how reluctantly he tears himself away from the still air of delightful studies to do something for silver, and to urge pleas in foreign policy which the first Republican platform called the pleas of a highwayman.

REPUBLICANISM IN THE SOUTH.

Three recent occurrences in the South illustrate very clearly the apparently insuperable difficulties which the Republicans encounter in their attempts to build up the party in that section of the Union. The first was the appointment of a Louisiana negro as Naval Officer at New Orleans; the second, the demand of Baltimore negroes for representation on the Republican legislative ticket, and its refusal by the party; and the third, the attempt to assassinate a negro postmaster in a Georgia village on account of his color.

There is no State in the farther South where the prospects of the Republicans have appeared so promising as in Louisiana. The sugar interests of the commonwealth have inclined many of the most prominent and influential whites to desert the Democrats on the protection issue. If the Republican party were composed of men of the same class as the Democratic, there is little doubt that a majority of the whites would have joined it before this time. But the trouble is that about half of the men in Louisiana are blacks, and that these blacks not only as a rule are Republicans, but also insist that they shall be rewarded for their fidelity to the party precisely as whites are rewarded in the North. Demas, the negro who was recently appointed Naval Officer, has been for a quarter of a century one of the most influential Republican leaders in the State. His "claims" to recognition were so strong that, if he had been a white man, no politician would have thought of disputing them. He maintained that the fact that he was a black man had nothing to do with the case, and the President accepted this view.

The announcement of his appointment, however, has been followed by such indignant protests from white men who have been voting the Republican ticket, as to show that the party stands no chance of carrying the State hereafter. Mr. A. A. Maginnis of New Orleans, who went over to the Republican party some years ago on account of its national policy and principles, and who is a member of the State executive committee, says that "the appointment of Demas destroys any hope for a Republican party worthy of the name in Louisiana or in the South for a long time to come." Mr. W. S. Parkerson, who became a Republican on the protective issue, declares that "the white Republicans of this State can do nothing under such leadership or such a policy." A prominent Republican who has been active for years in endeavoring to build up an organization that would command the respect of the people, predicts that at the next election for Governor the Republicans will not poll 10,000 votes in the State, notwithstanding the fact that Capt. Pharr polled 90,000 votes when he ran for Governor only eighteen months ago, and he does not expect that the Republicans will have a single delegate in the constitutional convention to be chosen a few months hence.

It is true that Demas is a disreputable fellow in private life, and corrupt in politics; one of the charges against him, which seems to be proved, being that he secured his election as a delegate to the Republican national convention last year as an avowed supporter of Reed, and then "sold out" to the McKinley men. But he is no worse than many white men who have been given office by the President, and while his bad character aggravates the offence of his appointment, the selection of any negro would have been offensive. The white Republicans, especially those who have joined the party in recent years, and still more those white Democrats who must yet be won over if the party is to carry elections, might have stood a "decent sort of darky" in the place, but they would never consent to a policy by which even respectable negroes should be given as many important offices as they are entitled to receive on the basis of the colored vote. Mr. Parkerson puts the case bluntly and clearly when he says: "For my part, I believe in white supremacy, as much as any Democrat. I don't believe any race should dominate except the whites."

That this is the attitude of Southern whites generally appears from the Georgia attempt to shoot a black postmaster simply because he was black. There was no charge in this case that the official was disreputable or corrupt. The only objection to him was his color, but that was enough to endanger his life. While some whites in Atlanta are ready to take office if they can get it under a negro as internal-revenue collector, the overwhelming majority of the race throughout the State cannot stand the idea of a black official.

The feeling seems to be about as strong in Maryland, on the very northern edge of the South. Nobody pretended that the negroes who aspired to nomination on the Republican legislative ticket in Baltimore were not qualified in point of ability and character. Their only weakness was in the matter of color. Many white Republicans would not vote for any negro member of the Legislature, and the many white Democrats whom the Republican leaders hope to attract would be driven off by such nominations. So the black aspirants were "turned down" because they were black.

The situation appears almost hopeless for the Southern Republicans. The party managers must either "recognize" the negroes by giving then their fair share of prominent offices, or they must snub them because of their color. If they recognize the blacks, they drive off so many whites that they stand no chance of carrying elections. If they snub the colored politicians, they disgust the colored voters, whose hearty support is always essential to success. The situation is most unfortunate, both for the South and for the nation. A division of the white vote is most desirable on all grounds, and yet the black official, even when he has a right to the place he is given, solidifies the whites against the party which he represents.

WHAT IT MEANS.

Why are the Platt Republicans fighting so desperately against the candidacy of Mr. Low? There has never been but one reason, and that is because he stands for the honest government of the city. Lauterbach put the position of the Platt machine with plainness and force in April last when he said:

> "I know that you are, as one man, resolved that the battle of November shall be waged under the banner of partisan Republicanism; that the man who shall be elevated to the high office of Mayor should be a true Republican. If we cannot succeed in bringing about that result, better far that there should be placed in power a true Democrat, even a Tammany Hall Democrat, than that we should aid to elect to that state of power and place a man of no party, whose administration is responsible to no party, and who has no party at his back."

There has been no wavering from that position. Platt said virtually the same thing a few weeks later, and Quigg has been saying it, more or less guardedly, at every opportunity for the past three months. It has been said in resolutions by the county committee many times, and on Saturday Platt had it said once more by his State committee. As Lauterbach, Quigg, the county committee, and the State committee are simply Platt in all their thoughts and deliverances, what all this denunciation and threatening means is merely that Platt is bitterly opposed to Mr. Low because his candidacy threatens the overthrow of Platt's business and of Platt's government of the State. Honest government of the city, honest and fearless and just treatment of all corporations, the removal of all the great municipal departments from the control of partisan politics, would be a very serious blow to the Platt machine and to many of the influences which are behind it in its present contest. There should be no misunderstanding in the public mind on this point, for the issue involved is a momentous one for the city. It is simply a question of whether the government of the city shall be administered in the interest of the whole people or in the interest of corrupt politics.

What Platt is seeking to do is not to get concessions from the Citizens' Union which will enable him to accept Mr. Low's candidacy without "humiliation," but to frighten Mr. Low out of the field and get in his place some man whom he can hope to use in case of election. He has not a shadow of a chance of doing

this, but he cannot believe that he has not. If he could induce Mr. Low to withdraw, he would get himself out of the worst "hole" of his political life. He does not dare to run a "straight ticket," for nobody knows better than he how weak his machine is and how insignificant a portion of the Republican vote of the city it would be able to hold away from Mr. Low and in support of such a ticket. For the past ten days or more he has been using his full power—and it is undoubtedly supreme in the machine—to crush out all Low sentiment therein and to keep Low delegates from getting into his county convention. Left to itself, his own machine either would have gone for Low or would have come so near doing so that a refusal to accept him would have been impossible. If there is so much Low sentiment inside this organization, what must be the condition of the party outside of it? Everybody who is in a position to form a judgment on this question knows that an overwhelming majority of the party is in favor of Mr. Low, and will vote for him in preference to any candidate whom Platt can induce to take his nomination.

How has Platt succeeded in suppressing Low sentiment inside the machine? It is said that he has compelled Worth to abandon Low in Brooklyn, and the way in which he has been able to do this, if he has succeeded in doing it, is no secret. What defeated Worth in the Brooklyn county committee was the street-railway influence. Why Platt should be able to get that assistance it is not necessary to explain. Everybody knows why the corporations which are at the mercy of the Legislature are on Platt's side. Is he using like influence here? What is the attitude of the street-railway powers in New York towards Mr. Low's candidacy? Does anybody suppose that they are in favor of it? Would they prefer to have an absolutely honest and fearless man in the office of Mayor, or a man who would listen to their wishes?

There should be no mistake about the present crisis. All the influences which profit by corrupt government are fighting against the candidacy of Mr. Low. If he remains in the field (and he will remain in spite of all efforts to get him out), he will force all the promoters of rascally government out into the open. They must either consent to support him or go over to the side of Tammany. His candidacy will compel the selection of a far better Tammany nominee than would be possible were he not in the field. This will be the case whether the Platt machine shall consent ultimately to acquiesce in Mr. Low's nomination or not. Indeed, we share fully in the doubt of the managers of the Citizens' Union as to whether a Platt approval now will help more than it will hurt. It is a toss-up whether Mr. Low will not prove a stronger candidate without Platt's approval than with it. What remains of the machine except Platt? His long and bitter fight against the Union has revealed with perfect clearness that he is himself the machine, that he is virtually destitute of respectable following in the party. His chief lieutenants are mere puppets of his, who are prominent in the affairs of the organization only because he has lifted them into positions of publicity. He has not a reputable party newspaper in this city on his side, and has been obliged to get his support from the old Tammany organ. He cannot induce any Republican of eminence to accept his straight nomination against Mr. Low, and it is extremely doubtful if he would himself be able to hold any such candidate in the field, if he were to nominate him, in the face of the party pressure which would come from all over the country to take him out. Under these conditions, it is small wonder that he is making such a disturbance, or that all the corrupt influences in the city are wishing him godspeed in his fight.

A SPANISH SUGGESTION.

Mr. Henry C. Lea of Philadelphia has an interesting article in the last number of the *Popular Science Monthly* on "Spanish Experiments in Coinage," which is full of suggestion for our bimetallists. It appears, according to Mr. Lea, that the Spanish Government was engaged from 1537 for the next two hundred years, in attempts to keep copper, silver, and gold at ratios fixed by the state, independently of the market value of the metals. These attempts were extremely numerous, and consisted each of a decree, or *pragmática*, changing the relative value of one or two of the metals. Sometimes it lowered the mint's legal value of either silver or gold, in order to make it meet copper, but the larger number of these *pragmáticas* were directed to raising the value of copper. We need hardly say that copper resisted all efforts to raise it with wonderful success. Sometimes it was hoisted up for two or three months, till debtors had got their debts paid, when it dropped down again, and another *pragmática* was then issued increasing its value, or directing a fresh issue of different weight. All this time, we need hardly say, Spain, although beginning its work on copper as the richest country in the world, and receiving a constant flow of gold and silver from the American mines, was steadily declining in both strength and wealth. Justice to copper, or a desire to do something for copper, or to restore copper to its proper place in the currency of the world, was for two centuries the leading feature of Spanish financial policy. The Government never would believe that a nation which stood at the head of civilization in arts and arms, and had more true religion than any other, could not make copper circulate at any ratio it pleased. It used all its resources, too, to enforce its decrees. After the establishment of each fresh ratio it was made punishable with confiscation, imprisonment, the galleys, and finally with death, to refuse to receive coins at their new valuations, or to fail to bring in the old ones in exchange for the new issue. Even foreign ambassadors were made liable to some of these pains and penalties.

Now the financial history of nearly every other European country resembles that of Spain. Playing tricks with the coinage, by altering its legal value or by adulterating it, was the favorite mode of escape from financial difficulties with all the European states, except the republics of Holland, Venice, and Genoa, down to the eighteenth century, when they began to have the power of borrowing. They differed from Spain, not in the greater rationality of their expedients, but in the greater mildness of the punishments inflicted for disregarding their decrees. Ever since the days of John Locke—that is, for two hundred years—instructed men have been laughing at them, and especially at the penalties they tried to impose on people who chose to put their own value on the precious metals. It has been supposed for these two hundred years—say until 1873—that this power of governments over money had been banished, with witchcraft and religious intolerance, to the garret of worn-out mediæval superstitions. But instructed men were mistaken. The close of the nineteenth century will be for ever memorable in history for the revival of one of these superstitions during the lifetime of John Stuart Mill, Herbert Spencer, Thomas Huxley, John Tyndall, and Charles Darwin. It is again believed by legislators of modern democracy that value is given to a thing not by the desire of mankind to possess it, but by the agreement of cabinets and emperors. It is now proposed to do by treaty between foreign Powers what these Powers tried for five hundred years to do by penal legislation, and failed miserably. It is announced solemnly, by men in modern clothing, that as soon as the peoples hear that cabinets and monarchs think silver, for instance, ought to be worth double its market rate, they will tranquilly accept it at such valuation, although if any one nation tried to give it this valuation by an act of Congress or Parliament, it would be greeted with roars of laughter.

It is but right, therefore, to point out to the bimetallists that their mediæval experiment, if it succeeds at all, will not succeed unless *all* the mediæval conditions are revived. The treaty will not double the value of silver unless persons are punished by domestic legislation for refusing to receive it at its

treaty price, in payment of debts or in payment for goods. The notion that two metals can be kept in concurrent circulation by mere governmental agreement or declaration, without regard to the play on them of the individual mind, is a delusion, strange to say, which any one can dissipate in a moment by interrogating himself. If a man wants to borrow money of me, I should never think of leaving it to *him* to decide whether he would pay me in silver or in gold. If I have goods to sell, I should never think of allowing the would-be purchaser to pay me in which metal he pleased at some legal ratio. I would fix the metal and the ratio to suit my own convenience and mercantile needs. If at this moment a bimetallist were to enter my store and say, "My good sir, do you not see you are, in preferring the payment of your debt in gold, preventing the concurrent circulation of the two great metals and doing injustice to silver?" I would call my porter, and ask him to conduct this bimetallist to the door. In other words, "concurrent circulation" and a "double standard" are things which must be in the minds of the people before there is any use in putting them into treaties or acts. You cannot have two metals or two of anything circulate at values fixed by law; still less can you have them fixed by treaty. All schemes for such purposes need, therefore, to be supported, as they used to be, by penal legislation. A man who refuses to let a debtor choose which metal he will pay in, or a merchant who asks either metal exclusively for his goods, must be punished if the two metals are to be kept afloat at the same time. We would not kill him, as Philip II. of Spain proposed to do, but we would imprison him and confiscate his goods. We do not say that this would succeed, but we do say that severe legal penalties are a necessary part of the bimetallic plan. Never in the history of the world has any nation done business in two standards. One metal at a time is all the dealer or lender has ever accepted. If silver is now to have a chance, the jailer and executioner must stand behind it.

THE ISTHMUS CANAL.

In a few pages it would be hard to find a better summary of our canal diplomacy than is given in the current number of the *North American Review* by Mr. James Gustavus Whiteley. It is interesting in many ways, but in none more so than as an illustration of the difficulty which confronts diplomatic adventurers who attempt to substitute for a settled national policy some new "craze" or "fad" of their own, quite at variance with it.

With every year's discussion it becomes more and more clear that the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, the compact over which the canal controversy has raged, far from being a novel canal scheme got up by two expert diplomatists, was little more than a joint declaration by England and the United States that they would honestly apply to any canal that might be built across the isthmus a general principle of international dealing. For this principle—the freedom of the seas—the United States has fought one war, and stoutly and successfully contended in the diplomatic field for sixty years. Without going into historical details, every one knows that the idea of the ocean as common property is extremely modern. It is only three centuries since the Portuguese claimed an exclusive trade to the East, through the South Atlantic and Indian Oceans, and Grotius wrote a pamphlet to prove that they were wrong, and that the open sea was not capable of private dominion. Selden answered him, and showed by the laws and practice of all nations, ancient and modern, that the sea was in fact capable of private dominion, and Sir Matthew Hale considered the title to the narrow seas adjoining England to be vested in the King.

As commerce drove these primitive ideas out of people's heads, it began to be perceived that if the ocean itself was a common highway, interoceanic communication must also be free, and hence any interoceanic canal must be neutralized for the benefit of the world's commerce, so that no nation could have any exclusive control of it. This idea happened to be in harmony with the foreign policy of the United States, which had been that of a pacific and neutral Power. When England became a great pacific free-trade Power, her interests became almost identical with those of this country, and hence when Mr. Clayton and Sir Henry Bulwer sat down to draft their treaty, they found that they could really do very little more than announce to the world that any canal between the Atlantic and Pacific should become part of the ocean. This was what neutralization meant. This was their "general principle" of "interoceanic communication," which was actually, however, to be applied to the Suez Canal while the Isthmus Canal was still uncut.

This view of the matter remained the American view and the English view and the view of every rational man down to about fifteen years since, when Mr. Blaine began to insist that the Clayton-Bulwer treaty was "obsolete," and that any canal which might be opened would be part of our "coast line." Now, waiving all other difficulties, this was virtually a notice to England that as soon as the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans should be united we would claim an exclusive title to the highway between them. We would make it part of the ocean, but would own it ourselves. In other words, the claim really was not that a particular agreement between the United States and England had become obsolete, but that the whole modern view of the ocean as common property was obsolete. Very likely Mr. Blaine had never heard of Grotius's pamphlet, nor of Selden's, but his view of the subject (and he set up a very similar claim to Bering Sea) belongs to the mediæval world, not that of to-day.

Blaine's little venture was, therefore, doomed from the start. To make it worth trying, we should first have to convert the United States into a great belligerent Power, something like Russia, without any commerce worth protecting, armed to the teeth, and with its coast defended at all points. We should, in fact, have to give up, for the sake of the canal, all industry and commerce, and devote ourselves to that. And mark the fatality which has pursued it. England found it in the first place very easy to show that the Clayton-Bulwer treaty was not obsolete, really because it embodies a vital principle of international law, and we had to give up attempting to persuade England that we could not allow her to neutralize what must be in its nature neutral. Next, the ingenious statesman and his successors turned their attention to the negotiation of a treaty on the subject with Nicaragua, and, of course, had no difficulty whatever in getting Nicaragua to agree to a sort of protectorate. But unfortunately about this time Mr. Cleveland was elected President, and he not only withdrew the treaty, but in course of time began to make use of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, which Blaine had declared obsolete, to induce Great Britain to refrain from intervening on behalf of the Mosquito Coast. So that, when the dispute begins again, the argument that the treaty is obsolete has ceased to be available to us.

It is, of course, impossible to say what the State Department, as at present organized, may or may not do; but it is hardly conceivable that Mr. Blaine's extraordinary canal venture can be tried over again. One thing is evident, that it is a total mistake to imagine it merely an Anglo-American dispute, like that as to the Maine boundary or the Venezuela frontier. It involves, just as Clayton and Bulwer said it did fifty years ago, a great principle, that of the freedom of the sea, and applies to the commerce of the world. The pretension of a protectorate is directly contrary to the history and traditions of this country, and was given diplomatic life only through the extraordinary combination of qualities which made Mr. Blaine a successful demagogue. But, after fifteen years, its present status to conservative people must be encouraging. Far from succeeding in making any headway with it, we have made it ridiculous, and should a Nicaragua or Panama Canal be cut through the isthmus, we shall almost certainly see it neutralized by the common consent of mankind, whether

we contend that the Clayton-Bulwer treaty is in force or dead. Against some things even a strong nation is impotent, and one of them is the *mare liberum* of the modern world.

THE BRITISH ASSOCIATION AT TORONTO.—I.

MONTREAL, September 1, 1897.

The British Association for the Advancement of Science held its second Canadian meeting in Toronto August 18 to 25. The experiment of coming to the American side was made first in 1884, when a very successful meeting was held in Montreal. In every way successful, too, was the Toronto meeting—surprisingly so to Americans, who have come to consider geographical distance an insurmountable difficulty. There seem to be two reasons why this did not prevent a good English attendance: the first, that the American meeting is the exception. Such an ocean voyage must be the exception to most people, especially scientific people; and an exceptional call always meets with an exceptional response. The second reason, however, is more intrinsic: it is the remarkable *esprit de corps* of the British Association—the remarkable loyalty and unselfishness which actuate the officers and members. It is not to cast a slur on the members of other organizations, especially those of a similar kind in this country, to say that here is an example for scientific men to follow. The greatest men in England, those who have their duties to the Royal Society, to their professional positions, etc., still attend the British Association as a matter of course, and prepare elaborate papers, slides, etc., for its general and sectional meetings, beside the youngest aspirant for scientific recognition. A very prominent English physiologist, for example, said to the writer that he wished very much to attend the medical congress at Moscow, but felt that he must come to the British Association in support of Sir John Evans. Another factor of great moment to the success of the meetings of the Association is the committee system. Through the committees the programmes of the sections are kept corrected up to the very beginning of the daily session. This again requires great care and devotion on the part of the secretaries.

While speaking of these general matters, it may be well to refer to the practice, on the part of the officers of the sections, of inviting visitors and local men of scientific standing to become members of the sectional committees and even of the general committee, thus enlisting the interest and presence of desirable people at this meeting or that. This was especially appropriate at the Toronto meeting, in view of the presence of so many American men of science, some of whom came direct from the Detroit meeting of the American Association, and some from their vacation places. The international feature was marked, indeed, at Toronto. Besides the very remarkable number of the best-known British workers in many branches of science—whose names would fill a page—there was a sprinkling of German and French savants whose names are known in their subjects everywhere. Dr. Dohrn of the Naples Marine Biological Station, and Prof. Richet of the Faculty of Medicine of Paris may be mentioned as among those who were in regular attendance on the zoölogical and physiological sections, respectively. American science was very well represented both numerically and in quality.

In the meetings themselves there was nothing but cordiality and friendship, from the international point of view. Many public expressions of what Michael Foster called "English in a broad sense," Anglo-American, sentiment—possibly the phrase *All-English* might find American users—were made. Even more striking than the remarks of Prof. Foster in the address to be referred to again were the direct expressions of Mr. Bryce at the official banquet. His address on "Jingoism" has already gone—may it continue to go—the rounds of the press, and I need not summarize it; but, far as the speaker was from meaning it, many Americans nevertheless must have hoped that it would come home in our country with the same force with which Mr. Bryce's appreciations of our national life have come home to us on earlier occasions. It must be said, however, if one is to be frank, that the Canadians are not taking the international situation humorously. This was apparent even in this scientific meeting. They feel that American friendship is precarious, American policy capricious. The present writer has lived enough in Canada to feel the chill of the extraordinary change of sentiment which has come over Canadians of all stations in the last four years. It is not expressed formally, far less personally; but it is in the air—a general tone of un-American, pro-British and imperial feeling. The Dingley tariff seems but a climax to the reasons for irritation, a new stirring up of the vigorous reaction called out by the Venezuelan message. Readers who see the Toronto *Globe* and know its editorial position will appreciate the remark that, from Lake Simcoe to the Saguenay, I found no one who did not give its platform his approval. This is a digression from science; but it may be the more suggestive as being the pronounced impression of one visiting Canada on a purely scientific errand. A certain Canadian university professor hit this feeling off neatly; he called it "an eruption of self-respect." *

As to Toronto and its people, the city was most beautiful and its people most hospitable. Toronto citizens may say, apropos of lawns, flowers, and temperature: "It is an ill *rain* that brings nobody any good!" Toronto in August is not usually the flowery, bowery Toronto that the British visitors saw! But as much cannot be said of the people or of the civic authorities. The committee had their arrangements so well in hand that only the spark of actual arrival was needed to set off the mine. All the guests, American no less than British, will remember the untiring energy and the boundless kindness of those on whom the burden of the home arrangements fell—President Loudon of the university, Mr. B. B. Walker of the Canadian Bank of Commerce, and the local Secretary, Prof. A. B. Macallum. Among the publications of the "Publication Committee" (Prof. R. Ramsay Wright, chairman), the 'Handbook of Canada,' a volume of 400 pages by numerous writers, is of permanent value. The functions of a quasi-social character were a convocation at the University, at which honorary degrees were conferred upon Lord Kelvin, Lord Lister, Sir John Evans (Dr. Gibbs, the President of the American Association, was also to have been thus honored); a similar function at Trinity College (a Church-of-England institution); a reception by the Governor-General, Lord Aberdeen; a conversazione at the University; an official banquet to Kelvin, Lister, and Evans; and garden parties, excursions, etc., in all the intervals. At a special meeting the city authorities also welcomed the association. In addition to all this, private citizens vied with one another in showing kindness to those visitors whom they wished to entertain. The speeches made at the banquet were of a high character, international sentiments being expressed by Lord Aberdeen, Mr. Bryce, and others. The American Association was represented among the speakers by two of its officers, Prof. Putnam and Dr. McGee.

In another brief letter I shall speak of the scientific meetings. J. M. B.

*A distinguished cabinet minister of the Dominion, a man of most liberal views, was not long ago kept waiting in the antechamber of one of our Houses in Washington, and forced to hear an intemperate and insulting discussion of himself and his country pending his admission as a guest. No doubt such incidents are more widely published in Canada than in the United States.

THINGS NEW AND OLD IN MODERN GERMANY.

BERLIN, August, 1897.

What in contemporary Germany most forcibly strikes one who has been out of its reach for some time is its intense modernness. It seems as though within twenty-five years the country had completely changed its moral complexion, as though it had leaped at a bound from a comparatively patriarchal condition into the very midst of modern capitalism and industrialism. That the very rapidity of this development has destroyed a good deal of what constituted the principal charm of German life in the time of our fathers, it would be idle to deny. The average German of to-day, at least if he be selected from the higher classes, is not any more the youthful enthusiast and idealist of the old liberal type; he is rather a shrewd observer and a cool-headed manager of affairs, who despises the Greeks for having gone to war without having provided themselves with the necessary wherewithal. And the average German home of the same stratum of society, far from being distinguished for its simplicity and frugality, is rather marked by a degree of high living and display that would have astounded the contemporaries of Freiligrath and Platen. Whatever one may think of the present Emperor, he certainly is an adequate representative of an age full of restless ambition, overflowing with vitality, seeking new avenues of activity in every direction, luxurious, revelling in success and enjoyment, but somehow lacking in the finer aspirations and feelings. And no truer artistic index of this newest phase of German life could have been found than the gorgeous monument which, by his Majesty's decree, has been erected in front of the austere old Hohenzollern castle in memory of Emperor William I.—the "Wilhelm in der Löwengrube," as Berlin popular humor has dubbed it, on account of the roaring lions that surround the equestrian statue of the Emperor himself—a work so pompous and supercilious that one rubs one's eyes to realize that *this* is meant to be the simple, good old man

whose sole ambition it was to perform his daily duty well.

Fortunately signs are not lacking that all this outward display has not yet deeply affected the nation as a whole, so that, as it has been the result of the sudden accumulation of wealth, it will pass away with the gradual absorption of this wealth by the masses. For alongside of the great industrial and commercial prosperity there has come an intellectual awakening also which, although it has not had the same outward effect thus far, cannot fail to exert its influence on the future. I refer to the educating and humanizing work done by the Socialist workmen clubs; to the extraordinary advances made by the woman movement; to the realistic wave in educational methods that set in with the school legislation of 1892; to the new public activity of the church, as shown on the one hand in the great philanthropic undertakings of the conservative Pastor von Bodelschwingh, and on the other in the efforts of the liberal Pastor Naumann to create a national workingmen's party, and, above all, to the new literary movement.

It is, indeed, a matter for national rejoicing that just at this time two men of such profound earnestness of purpose and of such signal ability to grasp the one thing needful have come to the front as Hauptmann and Sudermann. Both men are now approaching the zenith of their power; both may look back upon a career of constantly ascending achievements. Hauptmann has risen from the hopelessness of "Vor Sonnenaufgang" to the *vita nuova* of the "Versunkene Glocke"; Sudermann, from the bitter sarcasm of "Sodoms Ende" to the Messianic forebodings of his "Johannes." Both seem predestined to conciliate the ideals of the old patriarchal Germany with the unruly claims and strivings of the new industrial Germany. And even now they seem to be nearer that harmonious view of life which is the indispensable condition for the creation of truly great works of art than their master Ibsen, who, by his uncompromising radicalism, is prevented from ever fully gratifying that most natural and most human demand of the ordinary man, the desire to be elevated and edified.

While youngest Germany is thus working out its destiny under auspices upon the whole encouraging, old Germany is by no means dead. Some days ago I had a glimpse of it, when Herman Grimm gave me a drama written by his wife, Giesela von Arnim, the daughter of Bettina, which he himself, since her death some eight years ago, has edited with loving care. Herman Grimm himself is a noble representative of that golden age of letters at the beginning of this century, when it was still possible for the man of culture to develop all his faculties into a harmonious whole; and as he sat opposite me in his study, talking in his fascinating manner—a combination of frankness, melancholy, gracefulness, benignity, and humor—about his hopes for America, about the formalism of modern philological learning, about his uncle Jacob, his father, Bettina, and other noble shades of the past, it seemed to me that I had never seen a man who was so perfect an embodiment of mental and moral refinement, or such a living protest against the materialism of the day. Giesela must have been a woman in every way worthy of a man like Herman Grimm and in every way worthy of the noble traditions implied by the name of Arnim. And it is probably not too much to say that it is partly the inherited longings and aspirations of the Arnim family which in this posthumous drama of hers (the work of decades, as her husband tells us) have found a supreme poetic expression.

Its title is "Alt Schottland"; its plot centres around the futile efforts of Charles Edward, the last Stuart pretender, to reconquer the throne of his fathers. The conflict which pervades the action is similar to that now being waged between the old Germany and the new: on the one hand, chivalrous old Scotland, with its mountains and lakes, its legends and songs, its secluded country homes, its faithfulness and devotion; on the other, commercial England, with its highly developed city life, its party struggles, its popular freedom, its selfishness and greed. In the midst of this conflict there stands a figure of wonderful impressiveness and pathos: Lord Jacob MacOrn, an old Scotch nobleman whose house is drawn into the ruin of the luckless dynasty with which all his best feelings are associated. Herman Grimm makes it probable that this Scottish lord is a composite portrait, as it were, of Giesela's father, Achim von Arnim, and of Jacob Grimm. Like Jacob Grimm, he is a silver-haired patriarch, revelling in the traditions of the past and feeling nowhere happier than in the quiet realm of his library. Like Achim von Arnim, he is an uncrowned king, undisputed lord of his estate and his family, with every fibre of his being bound to his native soil, but his face turned toward the regions of the infinite and the eternal. A cousin of his, instigated by an English wife, intrigues against him, seeking to put himself in possession of his estate. The lawsuit about the ownership of this estate, which has been going on for some time, would undoubtedly have been decided in Lord Jacob's favor if the perfidious English woman had not managed to destroy the documentary evidence; so that the case cannot be settled by the courts, but has to be submitted to the good pleasure of the King. And since Lord Jacob is reported to have given shelter in his castle to the fugitive Charles Edward, the King decides against him.

The scene where the old nobleman, upon receipt of the fatal news, takes leave of the home of his ancestors, and, surrounded by his family and his servants, goes out into the world, is the climax of the play and one of the most affecting in dramatic literature. The faithless cousin and his wife are staying as guests in the house, for it is the old patriarch's birthday and a gay festival has been planned by the household. But now the guests have suddenly become the owners, and the festival is changed to a funeral, It seems as though the old squire could not tear himself away from the spot where his whole life has been spent so honorably and fruitfully. He stops at every nook and corner of the ancestral hall; he addresses the chairs, the tables hallowed by sacred memories; he lingers over the thought of the beloved ones that have passed beyond from out these walls. At last, when he comes to the place where, years ago, he pressed the last kiss upon the lips of his wife, he faints away. He is thought to be dead. The children and the household burst into cries of mingled grief and wrath. Only Elinor, his heroic daughter, feels it cannot be the last. She kneels down at his side; she throws her arms around him; she calls up before him the form, the voice of her mother; she strikes on the harp the tune of "Old Scotland," an ancient national hymn which seems to voice the feelings of this family in all great crises. And now the old man rises as in a trance; he grasps the harp himself and fingers it mightily; the whole household breaks out with fervent passion in the beloved hymn, and thus, supported by his sons, and followed by his faithful folk, he strides away, a Cæsar, a conqueror of worlds invisible!

Truly, the whole Ibsenite company of cynics, modern prophets, and would-be reformers seem to sink into nothingness if brought face to face with characters of such genuine grandeur as this simple-minded country nobleman of the old school; and it is devoutly to be hoped that the rapid modernization of her social conditions through which Germany is at present passing, will not lead her away from the ideals of life which this man so superbly represents.

KUNO FRANCKE.

HANSEN'S FRANCO-RUSSIAN ALLIANCE.

PARIS, September 8, 1897.

M. Jules Hansen has undertaken to write the genesis of the Franco-Russian alliance, and has condensed in a small volume, 'L'Alliance Franco-Russe,' all that he could find on a subject which at the present moment is engrossing the attention of the whole world. Let me say first a few words respecting the author. M. Hansen is a Dane by birth. I believe he is a native of the provinces of Schleswig-Holstein, which were added by force to Prussia; he made himself very obnoxious to Bismarck, and had to leave his country. He found an asylum in France, where he has resided for many years; he became at the same time a diplomat and a journalist. The Foreign Office employed him not in the regular routine of what is called the "carrière"; he was a foreigner, and could serve only in a semi-official capacity. He wrote also in a number of papers and reviews, became an active correspondent of foreign newspapers. He knows many languages, and is probably one of the best-informed men in Paris in all matters which concern the general politics of Europe. He published his recent volume immediately after the two toasts read on a French man-of-war, the *Pothuau*, by the Emperor of Russia and by the President of the French republic. For the first time, the world was distinctly informed that France and Russia were "des nations amies et alliées." The pamphlet is dedicated to the memory of Alexander III.; for "I have," says M. Hansen, "a profound conviction that the Franco-Russian alliance is his personal work."

M. Hansen published in 1880 a book, 'Les Coulisses de la Diplomatie,' in which he reproduced some declarations made by Gortchakoff (the Prince was not named at the time, but his name is now given). Prince Gortchakoff said to his interlocutor: "The understanding, first between Prussia and Russia, and afterwards between the three Emperors, has ceased to exist, and is buried. The latent but ardent personal struggle which began some time ago between the two Chancellors of Russia and of Germany, is still a secret, but will some day be revealed in the memoirs of our time." Prince Gortchakoff prided himself on having persuaded Alexander II. that, by helping the

policy of Germany, Russia was merely playing the game of Bismarck.

I confess that I don't very well see that there could have been any difference between the policy of Germany and that of Bismarck; the German Chancellor was working for Germany, though he might have had his personal likes and dislikes. During his short ministry, Gambetta put himself in communication with Count Chaudordy, who knew well Prince Gortchakoff, and was on the point of sending him as Ambassador to St. Petersburg when he was upset by a vote of the Chamber. Gambetta had long spoken of the Franco-Russian alliance as an empty dream. He wrote to Madame Adam, the editor of the *Nouvelle Revue*, in 1876: " Il faut être effronté pour rêver l'alliance russe" (see number of September 1, 1897, page 144). He changed his mind, and, in his conversations with M. de Chaudordy, he went so far as to say: "I foresee that at St. Petersburg they will ask you to determine the French Government to take severe measures against Russian Nihilists in Paris. Well, you can assure them that I will do in this respect all that the Russian Chancellor asks me to do."

M. Jules Ferry, who was at the Foreign Office from November, 1883, to April, 1885, was generally thought to be favorable to an understanding with Germany and adverse to Russia. M. Hansen says that this opinion was not well founded, and that M. Ferry said to him personally: "I am profoundly convinced that France and Russia are destined to have some common understanding, as they have common interests not only in Europe, but in Egypt, in China, and in the Pacific Ocean."

In April, 1884, Prince Orloff was replaced in Paris by Baron Mohrenheim. The new Ambassador had known Prince Bismarck well in Berlin, and he had at Copenhagen often seen the future Tsar Alexander III., who made frequent visits to his father-in-law, King Christian. He found in Paris M. Hansen, whom he had known at Copenhagen. When Alexander III. ("the most Russian of Russians") ascended the throne, he became his own Minister of Foreign Affairs. He was persuaded, says Hansen, that the preponderance of Germany in Europe was a danger to Russia; but if he, the autocrat, was to place his hand in the hand of republican France, it was at least necessary that France should express her desire clearly, and should prove by actions that Russia could really trust her." An occasion came. On the 7th of January, 1887, three Bulgarian delegates came to ask the French Government to help Bulgaria in the choice of a prince and in the arrangement of her difficulties with Russia. M. Flourens, Minister of Foreign Affairs, told the delegates that, in his opinion, the Bulgarians ought to take great account of the feelings of Russia, to whom Bulgaria owed her existence. This declaration gave great satisfaction at St. Petersburg. On the 14th of March, 1887, was published a ukase of the Tsar, which forbade all foreigners to buy land in the occidental provinces of Russia. This measure gave great dissatisfaction to Germany; in answer to it, and in consequence of the friction which was more and more felt between the Governments of Germany and Russia, the text of the treaty of the Austro-German alliance was published *in extenso* (the date of the treaty is October 7, 1879) in the *Reichsanzieger* and the *Wiener-Abendpost* on February 3, 1888; and shortly afterwards the German Chancellor negotiated with Italy a military convention. Alexander III. was unmoved and changed his attitude no whit.

One of the difficulties which rendered the genesis of the Franco-Russian alliance so slow and seemed to make any understanding impossible, was the ministerial instability in France. In April, 1888, M. Floquet became President of a new ministry, and M. de Freycinet took the portfolio of War. There was a legend current in Paris which represented M. Floquet (then an unknown lawyer), at the time of the visit of Alexander II. to the Emperor Napoleon, screaming on the steps of the palace when the Tsar passed near him and some other lawyers, "Vive la Pologne, monsieur!" M. Floquet thought it necessary, when he became President of the Chamber, to get himself presented to M. de Mohrenheim; the legend was forgotten—somebody else had cried, "Vive la Pologne, monsieur," the Tsar had never heard the exclamation.

Under the ministry of M. Goblet there was an unfortunate incident. A war-ship, commanded by Admiral Olry, threw some shells at a band of Cossacks who, under the leadership of Atchinoff, had established themselves in a territory belonging to France, under pretext of a mission to Abyssinia. The incident had no consequences of importance, as the French minister believed that Atchinoff was an adventurer, who had no real mission. The successor of M. Goblet was M. Spuller, of whom M. Hansen says that " his personal character and his somewhat slow mind did not incline him to any great enterprises in the domain of foreign policy. . . . He considered prudence and reserve as the principal duties of a Minister of Foreign Affairs."

M. Ribot assumed the portfolio of Foreign Affairs on March 17, 1890, and on March 18 Europe learned with surprise that Prince Bismarck had resigned, after having conducted the affairs of Prussia and afterwards of Germany for twenty-eight years. The young Emperor was not disposed to accept an almost dictatorial direction, and "Bismarck had forfeited the friendship of Russia, which did not forgive him his ingratitude after the services which the Russian Government had rendered the German policy." On March 29, 1890, several Nihilists, denounced to the French Government by M. Durnovo, Russian Minister of the Interior, were arrested in Paris by order of the French Government, and Alexander III. offered his thanks to M. Laboulaye, the French Ambassador in St. Petersburg. This incident had probably much to do with the succcess which M. Laboulaye obtained when the Tsar consented to receive a French squadron at Cronstadt. For forty years no French man-of-war had been seen in the Russian waters of the Baltic. On July 25, 1891, the squadron of Admiral Gervais entered the port of Cronstadt, where it was visited by the Tsar, accompanied by the Empress and by all the members of his family. The Emperor of Russia heard bareheaded and standing the " Marseillaise." Popular demonstrations took place in St. Petersburg. It was felt that the Franco-Russian friendship was assuming the character of an alliance. M. de Laboulaye and M. de Giers, after the visit to Cronstadt, set to work to give a concrete form to these friendly relations. After negotiations, several times interrupted, final signatures were exchanged before the close of the year. They were given by M. de Mohrenheim and by M. Ribot in the name of their respective governments. "From this historical hour," says M. Hansen, "it may be said, the two countries emerged from the isolation in which they were before."

It was thought necessary to complete this accord by a military convention, as it was notorious that, since 1888, the Powers of the Triple Alliance had signed military protocols providing against all the eventualities of a war. Prince Bismarck and Moltke had taken a personal part in the negotiation of these conventions. In case of mobilization, these conventions gave an advantage to the Triple Alliance. M. de Freycinet in France and Gen. Vannovsky in Russia prepared the terms of a dual military convention, which was signed *ad referendum* in the autumn of 1892. In 1893 the Tsar decided to send to Toulon a squadron under Admiral Avellan, to return officially the visit to Cronstadt. Meanwhile negotiations were continuing between the two governments. M. Casimir Périer affixed his signature, at the end of 1893, to a new diplomatic document, which was signed in Petersburg by M. Giers; at the same moment the military convention received its definitive signatures, and thus, says M. Hansen, was accomplished "one of the most important acts of this century."

Here the account of M. Hansen stops. Great events have followed: the tragical death of M. Carnot and of Alexander III., the visit of the new Emperor, Nicholas II., and of the Empress to France in October, 1896, and lately the visit of M. Faure to Russia; but they have brought no change in the situation in its diplomatic aspect. The Franco-Russian alliance has existed since 1893.

Correspondence.

AN EMENDATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a recent issue, you mentioned that a law had been passed lately by the Iowa Legislature which imposed a tax upon the premium income of European insurance companies greater than the tax imposed upon the premium income of American companies, and that such discrimination is forbidden by an article of the Treaty of 1850 between the United States and Switzerland. This article you quoted, with less than your usual care, as follows:

"No higher impost, under whatever name, shall be exacted from the citizens of one of the two countries residing or established in the other country in which they reside, nor any contribution whatever to which the latter shall not be liable."

Between the words "other" and "country" should be inserted the words "than shall be levied upon citizens of the." Even then, the sentence is not quite a model of precise expression. Somewhat clearer is the French version, which parallels the English in the Statutes at Large, vol. xi., p. 587.

Yours truly, F. J. B.

Baltimore, September 16, 1897.

GORDON AND HIS MISSION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The God of things as they are has

not had His dues in Gen. Gordon's case. Will you kindly insert a correction as to matter of fact? Your issue of September 2 remarks that when Gordon reached Khartum "he began to cry out that the Mahdi must be smashed up and that *evacuation* would be an indelible disgrace." What he really said was that *abandoning the garrisons* would be an indelible disgrace; a very different utterance, for evacuation meant the safe withdrawal of the various garrisons, which made one-half his mission; Mr. Gladstone's words in the House of Commons being that he had been sent "for the double purpose of evacuating the garrisons and reconstituting the country." Gen. Gordon's honesty of purpose and of deed is plain enough for those who take the trouble to investigate the *facts*.

LOUISE KENNEDY.

SEPTEMBER 18, 1897.

[Gordon's mission, however, was intended to be a peaceful one, and his conversion of Khartum into the base of operations for a ruthless war was neither in the spirit of his instructions nor calculated to relieve the garrisons whose abandonment he thought would be "mean." In short, his policy was non-evacuation.— ED. NATION.]

DANTE AND HIS COUNTRYMEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: "Dantophilist's" explosion of righteous wrath, in your issue of September 16, against the notion that "in Italy itself the great poet is a name to worship conventionally more than elsewhere," reminds me of a like explosion on the part of Byron. I note in his journal, Jaunary 29, 1821:

"Read Schlegel. Of Dante he says, 'that at no time has the greatest and most national of all Italian poets ever been much the favourite of his countrymen.' 'Tis false! There have been more editors and commentators (and imitators, ultimately) of Dante than of all their poets put together. *Not* a favourite! Why, they talk Dante—write Dante—and think and dream Dante at this moment [1821] to an excess which would be ridiculous but that he deserves it."

The cheap two-volume Murray edition quotes, in a foot-note, this parallel utterance from Medwin's 'Conversations':

"I don't wonder," said Lord Byron, "at the enthusiasm of the Italians about Dante. He is the poet of liberty. Persecution, exile, the dread of a foreign grave, could not shake his principles. There is no Italian gentleman, scarcely any well-educated girl, that has not all the finer passages of Dante at the finger's ends; particularly the Ravennese. The Guiccioli, for instance, can almost repeat any part of the Divine Comedy."

J. M. H.

ITHACA, September 21, 1897.

TOKENS OF WOE ONCE MORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Having but just returned from a sojourn of more than a year in Greece and Europe, I have been overhauling the periodicals that have accumulated in my study during that period. Consequently, I have just discovered Mr. Ridgeway's learned article in the *Journal of Hellenic Studies* for 1896, entitled, "What People Produced the Objects Called Mycenæan?" An outline or announcement of this article had already appeared in the *Academy* in July, 1895. Mr. Ridgeway examines the ancient authors to see if they supply us with accounts of any people which (1) occupied Peloponnesus, Attica, Crete, Thessaly, Bœotia, Thera, Asia Minor, Egypt, Rhodes, Cyprus, Italy, and (2) used a form of script which was intelligible to people who lived in places distant from each other; for instance, in Peloponnesus and in Asia Minor.

The following is a survey of the results of Mr. Ridgeway's profound study:

(1.) An ancient people called Pelasgi inhabited Greece.

(2.) A class of remains are found not only in Hellas, but in Asia Minor, Egypt, Rhodes, Thera, Crete, Italy, and Sicily, all of which places, according to Greek tradition, were occupied by Pelasgians.

(3.) The Pelasgians were the primitive inhabitants of Mycenæ and Tiryns, and were conquered by the Achæans only a short time before the period of the Homeric epos.

(4.) The Pelasgians were the builders of Mycenæ and Tiryns.

(5.) The palace of Menelaus at Sparta was built by the Pelasgians.

(6.) The same is true of the palace of Alcinoos.

(7.) The prehistoric walls at Athens are Pelasgic.

(8.) The prehistoric building at Cnossus in Crete is Pelasgic.

(9.) The Tokens of Woe are mentioned by Homer in connection with Proetus, the Pelasgian King of Tiryns.

(10.) The Tokens of Woe were understood in Lycia at a time when there were absolutely no Greek colonies on the seaboard of Asia Minor.

(11.) Symbols resembling the Hittite have been found on gems of Crete and Peloponnesus, and on vessels from Peloponnesus and Attica.

(12.) Legends show contact between Greece and the East in three quarters: (1) Egypt (Io, Danaus), (2) Lycia (Cyclops, Bellerophon), (3) northwest end of Asia Minor (Argonauts, Telephus, Pelops).

(13.) There are serious discrepancies between the civilization of the Homeric poems and that of the Mycenæan age.

The Pelasgians were the only race that answers all the conditions; it was, therefore, the creator of the Mycenæan art and the inventor of the Tokens of Woe. Mr. Ridgeway is but carrying out the view held by Thucydides in regard to the Pelasgians, who yielded to the superior valor and weapons of a kindred but less numerous and less civilized race.

J. R. S. STERRETT.

AMHERST, September 13, 1897.

A UNIQUE REFERENCE LIBRARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Grosvenor Library of this city is a reference library from which books cannot be taken away. It is in receipt of a small income from the city. I wish to draw your attention to the way in which its money is being expended. As I cannot trespass upon your valuable space to any great extent, I take one subject—the human intellect. The following works, all of them of the first class, are not obtainable at the Grosvenor: Maudsley's 'Physiology of the Mind,' the same author's 'Pathology of the Mind,' Bastian's 'The Brain as an Organ of Mind.' The following books have been bought *this year:* Fowler's 'Self-Instructor in Phrenology' (published in 1857), Combe's 'Elements of Phrenology' (published in 1835), Grimes's 'Etherology and the Phreno-Philosophy of Mesmerism and Magic Eloquence' (published in 1851).

I presume that the excuse for buying the last three books is that there has been a demand for them. A suitable answer would be that it is the duty of the trustees of a library aided by the city to try to turn the minds of readers in the right direction, and that a person who asks for a book upon phrenology should be referred to a cyclopædia, where he will learn the truth, and not to an antiquated treatise which contains virtually nothing that is true. The library of which I am writing has no money to waste upon books that have no value beyond some trivial historical interest, and the absence of standard works by recognized authorities reflects no credit upon the institution. Since the beginning of the year, more than a dozen out-of-date pseudo-scientific books have been placed upon the shelves, while true science has, in my opinion, been neglected, although some scientific works have been bought.

If any of your readers know of any other reference library, aided by city funds, where a similar policy is pursued, I should be interested to learn the name of it.—Yours, etc.,

LAWRENCE IRWELL.

76 WEST TUPPER STREET,
BUFFALO, N. Y., September 14. 1897.

Notes.

Preliminary autumn announcements of D. Appleton & Co. include 'Industrial Freedom,' by David MacGregor Means, with an introduction by David A. Wells; 'Evolutionary Ethics and Animal Psychology,' by E. P. Evans; 'The Psychology of Suggestion,' by Boris Sidis, with an introduction by William James; 'Bibliography of Education,' by Will S. Monroe; 'Punctuation, and Other Matters of Form,' by F. Horace Teall; 'The Story of the Cowboy,' by E. Hough; R. Lydekker's 'Natural History,' illustrated; 'French Literature,' by E. Dowden; 'A History of Dancing,' by Gaston Vuillier, copiously illustrated; and a translation of the 'Suppressed Letters of Napoleon' just edited by Léon Lecestre.

Edward Arnold will bring out 'Recollections of Aubrey De Vere'—*of* in the subjective sense; 'The Autobiography and Letters of the Right Hon. John Arthur Roebuck,' edited by Robert Eaton Leader; 'A Memoir of Anne J. Clough,' principal of Newnham College,' by her niece, Bertha Clough; 'Style,' by Prof. Walter Raleigh; 'Old English Glasses,' drinking vessels, by Albert Hartshorne, illustrated; 'Rowing,' by R. C. Lehmann; 'The Art of Deer-Stalking,' by William Scrope; 'Reminiscences of a Huntsman,' by the Hon. Grantley F. Berkeley; 'Benin, the City of Blood,' by Commander Bacon, R. N.; and 'The Chippendale Period in English Furniture,' by K. Warren Clouston.

Fleming H. Revell Co. have nearly ready 'Seven Years in Sierra Leone,' by Dr. A. T. Pierson, who records the missionary service of William A. B. Johnson from 1816 to 1823; and 'The Gist of Japan,' by the Rev. R. B. Peery.

The new firm of book publishers in this city, Doubleday & McClure Co., begin with a

series of "Little Masterpieces," edited by Prof. Bliss Perry of Princeton; 'Tales of the Real Gypsy,' by Paul Kester; 'The Open Boat, and Other Tales of Adventure,' by Stephen Crane; 'Character Stories'; 'Taken from *Life*,' verses by J. Whitcomb Riley, etc., from that periodical; and 'Bird Neighbors,' by Neltje Blanchan, with an introduction by John Burroughs and fifty full-page pictures in color. They will also control the New York market for Mark Twain's forthcoming work, 'Following the Equator.'

Macmillan Co. will have ready next month 'Social and Ethical Interpretation in Mental Development,' by Prof. James Mark Baldwin of Princeton.

George W. Jacobs & Co., Philadelphia, have in press 'The Latimers,' a tale of the Western Insurrection of 1794, by Henry Christopher McCook, and 'Ole Rabbit's Plantation Stories,' collected from original sources by Mary Alicia Owen, with illustrations.

'The New Man: A Chronicle of the Modern Time,' by Dr. Ellis Paxson Oberholtzer, will be published by the Levytype Co., Philadelphia.

'Memorial Day, and Other Poems,' by Richard Burton, and 'Free to Serve,' a tale of Colonial New York, are to be issued next month by Copeland & Day, Boston.

The fifth volume of 'Harvard Studies and Notes in Philology and Literature' (Ginn & Co.) will be a Child memorial volume, with contributions by Profs. C. E. Norton, A. S. Hill, F. B. Gummere, G. L. Kittredge, Kuno Francke, and others.

William Doxey, San Francisco, will issue a new and enlarged edition of 'The Purple Cow,' a collection of vagaries from Gellett Burgess's *Lark;* the *'Lark* Almanac,' thirty-two cartoons from that periodical of blithe memory, with decorated cover; 'The Little Blue Fox, and Other Creatures,' by President Jordan of Leland Stanford University, illustrated by child readers; and 'The Art of Little Children,' by Corrado Ricci, translated by Louise Maitland.

There is much that is mediocre in 'Voices of Doubt and Trust,' selections, in prose and verse, by Volney Streamer (Brentano's), yet it is a fresh compilation that will commend itself to many. It has not overlooked such late appearances as Goldwin Smith's 'Guesses at the Riddle of Existence' and William James's 'Will to Believe.' Huxley and Morley are freely drawn upon, and here is Darwin's famous confession of perplexity on the subject of the existence of a supreme being. Good judgment has been shown in what has been taken from Whitman; the Browning excerpts are not remarkable in themselves. We have observed some and suspected more carelessness in the proof-reading—"thou *are*," p. 8, "new-pledged hope," p. 163, and punctuation that needs rectifying even if true to the original.

In the "Heroes of the Nations" Series (G. P. Putnam's Sons), Col. W. C. Church gives the 'Life of Gen. Grant.' It is a somewhat larger volume than most of the similar series, and the author has used his space judiciously to introduce occasional quotations from others. It takes the strongly eulogistic view of every phase of Grant's life, military and civil, as seems almost a necessity in the conception of such a class of books. Its variation in method from the preceding lives of Grant will, however, give it a distinct and useful place.

'Tom Moore in Bermuda' is the title of a little brochure privately printed at Lancaster, Mass., by the author, J. C. Lawrence Clark. It gathers up the facts and some of the legends connected with Moore's residence in the "bright little isle," which, with liberal citations of his verse and a good supply of illustrations, make a not unpleasing whole. Moore continued to hold the office of Registrar in Bermuda for many years after his return to England, his actual discharge of its duties having been limited to less than four months. In 1844 he was removed from office by an unfeeling government, on the ground of non-residence—a non-residence which had then continued for forty years! Truly those were the pre-Adamite days of the civil service.

Mr. R. Van Bergen's 'The Story of Japan,' published by the American Book Company, is an extremely accurate as well as entertaining sketch of the history of Japan for school or home reading. Its numerous pictures are very valuable for a history, and are intelligible specimens of Japanese art. Map, index, and print are unexceptionable, and in the whole work we have been able to discover but one misprint, that of *Lagoda* for *Ladoga*, the name of an American ship. Mr. Van Bergen's position, as a teacher in the Nobles' School in Tokyo, and his knowledge of Dutch and Japanese, make this a trustworthy sketch of the history of Japan, and it is rendered attractive by a good many characteristic anecdotes and classic stories. Besides dealing not too roughly with the ancient mythology, he brings the story down to the present time, showing clearly, also, that the moving force in Japan and the creator of public opinion is still, as for a thousand years past, the gentry, who constitute about one-tenth of the nation. The style is suitable for young people.

The thirty-second annual issue of the 'Jahrbuch der Schweizer Alpenclub,' just published by Schmid & Francke at Berne, is a volume of 452 pages, with thirty-nine illustrations and a *Beilage* containing four maps and a catalogue of the library of the club. The contents are chiefly records of excursions with their scientific results, and reviews of recent works on Switzerland. Especially interesting are Dr. A. Zschokke's "History of Mountain-Climbing," H. Correvon's "The Flora of Switzerland and its Preservation," and a paper on "The Periodic Variations of the Glaciers of the Alps," by F. A. Forel and L. Du Pasquier.

Irma von Troll-Borostyani's 'Das Weib und seine Bekleidung' (Leipzig: Spohr) is an earnest and urgent plea for a thorough dress-reform as one of the essential conditions of woman's success in higher education and in the realization of her present aims and aspirations. The author's strictures on female apparel as unhygienic, unæsthetic, and unpractical are sensible, and ought to be effective at a time when the supremacy of the bicycle has already begun to emancipate the fair sex from the tyranny of fashion.

In its fore part the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for September is emphatically a memorial number. Here are to be found the three addresses in commemoration of Col. Robert Gould Shaw, with a photographic view of St. Gaudens's masterpiece; and here also are portraits of the late Prof. Lane and Prof. F. D. Allen, with brief sketches. Prof. Hart, by the way, calls attention to the rule at Harvard that members of the faculty die in vacation rather than in harness. Mr. T. W. Higginson contributes some highly interesting correspondence with his father on the part of Dr. Cogswell, Ticknor, and Everett during their stay at Göttingen. In the abundant provision of university news are to be noticed the formal transfer and taking over of the Peabody Museum, and the movement to erect a suitable memorial to the late Charles Eliot, "to associate his name with some permanent feature of that Metropolitan Park System which is so largely his creation." Contributions may be sent to C. S. Rackemann, No. 23 Court Street, Boston. The committee to determine the application of the fund is headed by Charles Francis Adams, and embraces Prof. C. S. Sargent, Messrs. Olmsted, Mr. H. S. Hunnewell, and other apt counsellors of both sexes.

The October number of the *American Historical Review* will contain a series of interesting letters from and to Eli Whitney, displaying more perfectly than has hitherto been possible the history of the invention and early promotion of the cotton gin—an invention which has been groundlessly supposed to have arrested the groundlessly assumed tendency of Southern slavery, at the close of the last century, to terminate of its own accord. The same number and the succeeding will print a posthumous chapter of the late Prof. Herbert Tuttle's 'History of Prussia,' covering nearly the whole of the campaign of 1758.

We are glad to notice, among the numerous signs of a revival of historical study in the South, the appearance of the first of an annual series of Historical Papers, published by the Historical Society of Trinity College, Durham, N. C. A sub-title, "Reconstruction and State Biography," is descriptive only in part of the contents, which range as far back as "Raleigh's New Fort in Virginia, 1585." Still, the most recent topics treated are the most profitable, particularly the opening paper on "Fort Hamby on the Yadkin," a striking picture of local demoralization on the break-up of the Confederate army in 1865. Among the several biographies is one of the late zealous antiquarian, Edward Graham Davis, whose portrait accompanies it. The papers are the work of students, and are purposely not severely revised for the literary form.

The Yukon gold fields and Alaska are the subject of a very useful note in the September Bulletin of the Boston Public Library relative to a list of the works, practically complete, which it contains on this region. There is also a list of fifty-one titles of the most valuable magazine articles which have appeared from 1870 to the present time.

The project of constructing a railway from the Mediterranean to Aleppo, which twenty-seven years ago excited so much interest, has been revived, this time by the son of the Governor-General of the district. He is making strenuous efforts to obtain a concession to build the road, and does not ask for an indemnity, believing the traffic would be amply sufficient to enable it to run on a paying basis. The American Consul at Alexandretta, the Mediterranean terminus of the proposed line, and the only natural harbor on the Syrian coast, estimates that caravans numbering half a million animals annually come to this port from Bagdad and the country beyond the Euphrates. There are shipped to the United States alone 60,000 camel-loads of licorice root yearly. The port is served by twenty-four regular steamers a month, besides "numerous 'tramps' and sailing ships."

According to recent news from Athens, Kavvadias has found an inscription which assigns the building of the temple of the Nike Apteros to the middle of the fifth century B. C. with absolute certainty. This is very gratifying to Dörpfeld, who has maintained, against Furtwängler and Wolters, that this temple was older than the Propylæa.

Recently an inscription was found in Megalopolis concerning Diæus, the Megalopolitan General who is mentioned at length, but with disapprobation, by Polybius and Pausanias. He was General of the Achæans repeatedly during the period of the capture of Corinth, and summoned the Achæans to the hopeless struggle against Mummius. He was censured because, after the defeat, he fled from Corinth to Megalopolis, where, after killing his wife to prevent her being made prisoner, he committed suicide by drinking poison.

When the Jubilee honors were distributed, it was announced that Queen Victoria had awarded a peerage to Sir Donald Smith, a wealthy Canadian, who represents the Dominion in London as High Commissioner. Much curiosity arose as to the title the new peer would choose. Some hundreds of telegrams went to Sir Donald from Canada, saluting him as Lord Glencoe; but, if that had been the new peer's selection, he would have raised the whole clan of the Macdonalds against his presumption. Then, there was the chance of Montreal being taken for the title, for it is with that city that Sir Donald has been particularly identified. Here, again, there was an objection, for that place had already been annexed when Mr. Powlett Thompson, a former Governor of Canada, was raised to the peerage as Baron Sydenham and Montreal. The existence of these difficulties, no doubt, caused the delay in the gazetting of the grant of the peerage, which was done only on the 24th of August, when it was made known that the High Commissioner for Canada had become "Baron Strathcona and Mount Royal, of Glencoe in the County of Argyll, and of Mount Royal in the Province of Quebec and Dominion of Canada." The result is a compromise, which shows that the junior nobleman of the United Kingdom had one eye upon Glencoe and the other eye upon Montreal.

F. Gutekunst, the well-known photographer of Philadelphia, has issued copies of a striking imperial portrait of Mrs. John Drew, taken in 1895. The distinguished actress is represented as she appeared in private life, and the entire absence of theatrical accessory or affectation is one of the most noteworthy and pleasing characteristics of the picture. The facial expression is admirably natural, and is strongly suggestive of the mental and bodily vigor with which Mrs. Drew was endowed almost to the very end of her long life.

—Houghton, Mifflin & Co. announce for early publication the third five-year supplement (1892-96) to 'Poole's Index to Periodical Literature.' The late Dr. Poole's associate and successor in this work, Mr. W. I. Fletcher, has been assisted in the present new issue by Mr. Franklin O. Poole of the Boston Athenæum, a nephew of Dr. Poole. The volume, as the first issue since Dr. Poole's death, will contain his portrait and a brief biographical sketch. This supplement will be nearly one-third larger than either of the preceding ones, and will contain references to 1,355 volumes, belonging to 185 distinct periodicals. These are all that have survived of the 404 publications which have been included in Poole's Index, all the others having been suspended. Of the sixty-four oldest periodicals in the Index, beginning with the *Edinburgh Review* in 1801, just one-eighth survive, three of the eight being American, namely, the *North American Review* (1813), *American Journal of Science* (1819), and *Journal of the Franklin Institute* (1826). While only three-eighths of the survivors are American, forty, or nearly two-thirds, of the original sixty-four were such. The following tabular statement is interesting:

Decade.	No. of "Poole" sets started.	No. stopped.	Net gain.
1801-10	6	0	6
1811-20	18	2	16
1821-30	22	15	7
1831-40	29	23	6
1841-50	47	21	26
1851-60	31	14	17
1861-70	57	29	28
1871-80	49	45	4
1881-90	90	37	53
1891-96, 6 years	55	23	32

As these figures relate only to the periodicals included in 'Poole's Index,' which is always decidedly conservative as to the inclusion of new ventures, they show but a part of the truth as to the rapid rise and fall of periodical publications.

—Some dozen or more years ago a separate department of classical antiquities was created at the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, and an expert was appointed as its curator. The wisdom of this step soon made itself apparent in the numerous and well-chosen additions to the collection of casts of Greek and Roman sculpture, and still more in the publication of an excellent catalogue of this collection. Such a catalogue is indispensable to every serious student in the earlier stages of his progress, but to this day no other considerable museum in the country has anything valuable of the sort to offer. The greatest forward stride, however, has been made by the Boston Museum within the past three years. Generous bequests have put the institution in possession of funds, no small portion of which has been devoted by the Trustees to the purchase of original works of Greek art. Opportunities for such purchases do not lie in every one's way, but they may be hunted out by alert and experienced connoisseurs, as new objects of value are unearthed or as old collections in private hands are dispersed. Such opportunities have been skilfully seized in the interest of the Boston Museum. The acquisitions of the last two years have been for some time installed, and a third lot is, we understand, soon to arrive. If measured by comparison with the great museums of Europe, the collections in Boston are still small. Only a beginning has been made, but such as already exercises a potent attraction upon students and lovers of Greek art, far and near. Here, as nowhere else in America, fine examples of almost every branch of Greek art may be seen and enjoyed. Thus there are excellent specimens of the beautiful coinage of Greece, as well as of Greek goldsmiths' work. The collection of Greek vases is more extensive, and bids fair to become, in quality at least, one of the famous collections of the world. There are already in the cases pieces of which any one is worth a long journey to see, and we hear that a vase more magnificent than anything previously acquired, a great crater, well known to specialists as one of the most superb productions of the Greek potter's art, is soon to be received. To crown all, there are pieces of sculpture in bronze and in marble of such beauty that they would be eagerly coveted by any museum in the world. Photographs and casts, indispensable as these are, can never take the place of such original masterpieces. The Trustees of the Boston Museum, by their enlightened and liberal policy, have earned a gratitude which will be more and more widespread as the facts become more generally known and as the serious study of art history develops among us. Should they go on in the path upon which they have entered, Boston may come to take rank, if not with Athens, Rome, Paris, London, and Berlin, at least with Vienna, Munich, and Florence, as a centre for the study of Greek art.

—An Anglo-American sends us the following note from London:

"When in the neighborhood of Oxford recently, I looked in at the Bodleian Library. The Assistant Librarian, Mr. Falconer Madan, was so good as to draw my attention to the fact that, among the Clarendon manuscripts calendared by him, there were interesting papers relating to the early colonies in North America. Fellow-students of the history of English Colonies in America will welcome the following extracts from Mr. Madan's work:

"16188. Papers relating to the colonies of New England between 1661 and 1713. The places or subjects specially prominent are New York, about which there are many papers, 1667-1713; and the Five Nations of the Indians, 1701-08. There are also papers about the Bermudas (1661: fol. 1.), Rhode Island (1664-5: fol. 5), Connecticut (1660: fol. 10), Pennsylvania (1694 1701: fol. 24, cf. 160, 'State of the case between William Penn and the Fords,' 1707), Canada (1702: fol. 38). Among the separate papers are: (*a*, fol. 19) 'Copy of my L[d] Bellomont's letter to my L[d] Summers, N. York, 12th May 1698'; (*b*, fol. 67), 'Journal of the General Assembly for . . . New York, . . . 5 Oct. 1703 to 23 Oct.'; (*c*, fol. 77), 'An Act for the defence of the Frontiers,' 1704; (*d*. fol. 217), 'Proposal as a means for the Advancement in the province of New York . . . ,' by the Rev. John Sharpe, 11 Mar. 1712-3, suggesting a public school, library, and chapel, and giving a list of books 'given towards laying the Foundation of a Pu lic Libra y at New York.' by Sharpe, May 15, 1715 (fol 225) Some of the documents are petitions to the first Earl of Clarendon; many are connected with the administration of his grandson, the third Earl, as Lord ornbury, Governor of New York (1701 08). At fol. 205 is a letter from the latter (Apr. 28, 1710), alluding to his 'escape' from New York, and at folio 150. 'Extracts from some letters & memorials relating to the Rt. Hble the L[d] C. . . . ' 1702-07, testifying to his care for the Church. These papers appear, from fol 8, to be partly at least lots 105 (and 106 8?) on the second day of the Radcliffe sale, 1764 Now MSS. Clarendon 102

"16189. 1 (p. 1) 'A briefe Narrative of the late Negotiation between his Majestjes Colony of the Massachusetts, and . . . his Majestjes Comisioners,' 18 May 1664—4 Mar. 1664-5, followed by a comment on it. 2 (p 113) A briefe description of New England, the present Gouvernment & the Townes therein,' written in about 1670; beginning 'Westward from Pennobscott.' The writer fortified a house in 'Winnisime' near Boston in A. D. 1625 (p. 6). 3 (p. 141) A Latin report, by Sir Walter Walker, on the claim of France to the restoration of Nova Scotia (Acadia), written in about A. D. 1665, and signed by the author; beginning, 'Recepto omni cum reverentia.' Now MSS. Clarendon 103"

—K. Waliszewski's 'Peter the Great' (Appletons) has been translated from the original French by Lady Mary Loyd in the most admirable manner, with very few exceptions. The author is very decided in his views, and, as a whole, eminently fair in his handling of disputed points, and in his inferences

from the facts which he draws from widely chosen historical sources. Occasionally, he seems inclined to take the ground which a Pole and a Roman Catholic would naturally occupy where questions of national character and religion are concerned, and the reader feels that the matter in hand might, possibly, admit of a diametrically opposite interpretation. The point which he does succeed in setting forth with praiseworthy force and clearness is, that Peter was the heir of his ancestors' ambitions and strenuous efforts to obtain Western civilization, and not exclusively an original genius in any direction, although in all directions he was the typical Russian. This is, in fact, the text upon which the author insists, and rightly. "Peter," he says, "was not a great man only—he was the most complete, the most comprehensive, and the most diversified personification of a great people that has ever appeared," and he shows how his hero aroused the slumbering talents and the spiritual powers of his now mighty empire. A very excellent feature, which greatly facilitates the difficult task of making a satisfactory portrait of such a man, is the division of the book into major and minor topic-parts. Another very valuable feature, especially for those who have access to foreign libraries and can read the necessary languages, lies in the detailed and exact references to the historical sources of information. The style is graphic, and the volume is as easy to read and as entertaining as a sensational novel, to which class of literature such a biography seems inevitably akin, at times. One or two serious misprints and errors should be corrected in future editions; such as, 1728 instead of 1718, on p. 281; and the statement on p. 443 that the Patriarch Philaretus ruled the country, in the name of his *brother* Michael, the first of the Romanoffs. Michael, elected Tsar at the age of sixteen, was the son of the Patriarch Philaretus. We may add, with a view to helping the English reader over the difficulties of pronunciation, that the accents upon the Russian words refer to the quantity of the vowels in French, not to the emphasis upon syllables in the original.

—'Le Sifflet et la Claque' is the title of a curious historical study, full of research, which M. Louis Schneider contributes to the *Revue Bleue* of July 24. M. Schneider holds that both applause and hissing, in modern civilization, date from an epoch not more remote than the seventeenth century. In the Middle Ages and during the Renaissance, theatrical representations were organized by the Church, and so were for the most part sheltered from criticism. Hissing was, in fact, a novelty to Racine, who attributes its origin to a comedy of Fontenelle's, "Aspar," which was played in 1680:

> "Mais quand sifflets prirent commencement,
> C'est (j'y jouais, j'en suis témoin fidèle),
> C'est à l'*Aspar* du sieur de Fontenelle."

Up to that time, he said, an audience when bored at the theatre had the choice only between going to sleep and going away. The claque is of even later date, an offspring of the eighteenth century, born at the epoch when actors, becoming of more and more importance, and also more and more "cabotins," found the need of assured and constant applause. The public, almost from the beginning, resented the demonstrations of the "Romans," as claquers were then called, and a long contest began. This was particularly lively during the First Republic, and continued under the Empire. In 1809 it had become of sufficient gravity to occasion the arrest of the leader of the claque, a certain Leblond, a wig-maker, with forty of his followers. The police report on this occasion shows that Leblond received tickets and jewels and money from dramatic authors, as well as from the actors and actresses. It would be long to follow out the steps of M. Schneider's interesting history. It is enough to say that the claque still survives throughout Europe, and is really as flourishing as ever in spite of all attempts to abolish it. In 1877 the Théâtre-Français attempted its suppression, but in vain. The Théâtre-Historique actually suppressed it; but it was the Théâtre-Historique, and not the claque, that died. In Vienna last year a fierce campaign was carried on against it, but the singers at the Imperial Opera threatened to strike in case this were not given up, and only some months ago the jubilee of Schoentag, for twenty-five years the leader of the opera claque, was celebrated at Vienna. Schoentag, however, has a certain quasi-critical authority: he is a judge of playgoers, if not of plays, and is able often to give valuable advice to authors and actors. As to the vexed question of the right of the spectator to express his feelings by hisses or applause, French law appears to lay down as a rule that one may applaud as much as he likes, but hisses at his peril.

—According to the *Berlingske Tidende* of Copenhagen, Dr. Edvard Ehlers's study of leprosy in Iceland is soon to have a practical result. The members of the I. O. O. F. of Denmark were so impressed by the statement of this specialist as to the increase of the disease that the order undertook, last year, to raise a fund for building a hospital on the island where those suffering might receive proper treatment without exposing others to contagion. Last May, when a large part of the required 100,000 kroner ($27,000) had been subscribed, Messrs. Beyer and Thuren, respectively physician and architect, were sent to Iceland to decide on the site and the character of the building, and to make arrangements with the local Government. They were received by the latter with the greatest enthusiasm, and everything was done to facilitate their work. The city of Reykjavik has presented for the site the peninsular Langarnaes, which is about two miles out of town, and all running expenses are to be borne by the Government of Iceland. Should the building for three consecutive years be put to any other use, it is to revert to the Order; and in case at any time leprosy should die out on the island, its future disposition is to be determined by joint agreement of the Order and the Althing. A contract for the foundation has been made, and the building, which is to be of wood, as offering a better protection against earthquakes than either brick or stone, will be built either in Norway or Sweden and sent in sections. Not the least important feature in this new movement in the battle with disease is the power given to the authorities, by a recent act of the Althing, to compel the isolation of patients that are unwilling to leave their homes. The only source for regret is the fact that the new hospital will accommodate only a quarter of the 250 lepers in Iceland.

RAMSAY'S CITIES OF PHRYGIA.

The Cities and Bishoprics of Phrygia; being an Essay of the Local History of Phrygia from the Earliest Times to the Turkish Conquest. By W. M. Ramsay, D.C.L., LL.D., etc. Vol. I., Part ii., West and Central Phrygia. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1897.

In a recent issue the author of the article on the British School at Athens mentioned the timorousness of British archæologists in the face of the classical and ecclesiastical traditions that prevail among British scholars. The above title of Mr. Ramsay's book illustrates the point in question, for on the continent of Europe the secondary title would be regarded as exactly descriptive of the scope of the work. But Mr. Ramsay has to pacify the conservative element, which is more or less hostile to archæology, pure and simple, and consequently the primary title of the book becomes 'The Cities and *Bishoprics* of Phrygia,' whereas, in point of fact, the Bishoprics of Phrygia play a small rôle in this and the preceding volume, and even then they are disposed of in a summary manner at the close of the several chapters. Again, the latter part of the title, "from the Earliest Times to the Turkish Conquest," is open to criticism, because, in spite of its many conceded merits, the book cannot be regarded as a consecutive chronological history of Phrygia. The little that can be said of the *earliest* times Mr. Ramsay says, but, roughly speaking, the book deals with the period from about 400 B.C. to 400 A.D.; the Byzantine period is more or less ignored, and a few words at the end of each chapter serve to do up the Turkish conquest; the evident object of the author being in some fashion to justify the broad title which he has chosen for the book. The book is not a *history* of Phrygia; an exact title would be, "Scraps from the Local History of Phrygia," for that characterizes it precisely.

The book is marred by polemics. Mr. Ramsay seems to have the unhappy faculty of making enemies of nearly all those who have travelled in Asia Minor in recent years; not only of those who have worked in coöperation with him, but of men who travelled in entire independence of him. When he began his work in Asia Minor, some sixteen years ago, he owed much to the friendly suggestions of Gustav Hirschfeld, the specialist on Asia Minor, the polished gentleman, the brilliant scholar, who, after a sadly disappointing sojourn in the New York Cancer Hospital, of which the fame had brought him all the way from Königsberg in Prussia, went back to Europe two years ago to die miserably. But Mr. Ramsay succeeded in making a deadly foe of Hirschfeld, who was disgusted at the treatment his work in Asia Minor received at Mr. Ramsay's hands, and he said so, in clearest terms, in his painstaking review of Ramsay's 'Historical Geography.' Consequently, Mr. Ramsay's work for some years thereafter bristled with polemics against Hirschfeld, whom he constantly scored.

Latterly Mr. Radet, author of 'En Phrygie,' has taken the place formerly occupied by Hirschfeld in Mr. Ramsay's books. The chief reason is that Radet makes the same charges against Ramsay that Hirschfeld made (we shall not repeat them here), and consequently Ramsay pours hot shot into Radet throughout this book. Mr. Radet, in his brilliant but hurried and unbalanced

work just named, reasons on incorrect principles in regard to the difficult questions of Phrygian topography, which in his hands seem simple enough, for the reason that he complacently leaves the difficulties entirely out of sight, because his knowledge of the topography of Phrygia is insufficient or incorrect. In the historical part of his book, however, he is more successful, because he is more at home. Now, we believe that Mr. Ramsay is always right in his criticisms of Mr. Radet's topographical work. He tries hard, too, to conceal his temper and write in courteous terms of Radet, but not always successfully. Not only in his preface, but throughout the book as well, Mr. Ramsay claims that the world is quite wrong in charging him with failure to do justice to his co-laborers in the exploration of Asia Minor. And yet, for all that, the world is right on that question, at least, and Mr. Ramsay seems to be blind to the fact that he seldom mentions his co-laborers except in disapproval. That, however, might be easily excused by the necessity for brevity, but for the fact that his remarks of disapproval are often couched in terms that cannot fail to wound and offend, because they are curtly dogmatic and oftentimes hardly called for by the exigencies of the case. It must be confessed, however, that in the present volume Mr. Ramsay is more courteous than formerly, for the criticisms of his earlier works have not failed to point out this sin, and he has been taught to be more circumspect in regard to his fellows, all of whom, he declares, are "his valued friends if they will allow him to say so."

The present volume, then, is much better than its predecessor, and it treats of more important subjects. Besides that, Mr. Ramsay knows his ground better, having travelled over it repeatedly in successive years in order to verify, add to, or correct the work of former journeys. And yet, in spite of these many journeys, we read with surprise, which almost approaches dismay, that there are still districts of Phrygia which he has not explored properly (*e. g.*, the Karamyk Ora); and that in places which he has visited repeatedly (*e. g.*, the Sebaste region) future travellers may confidently hope to make epigraphical and topographical discoveries. But still, certainty is oftener reached in this volume, which, he tells us, was written and printed under more favorable circumstances, *i. e.*, less hurriedly, for the former unfavorable circumstances were due, after all, to Mr. Ramsay's great hurry to get into print—a hurry that made it impossible for him even to put his manuscript in proper order. This unfortunate hurry has marred all of Mr. Ramsay's work, from start to finish, brilliant though it be and lasting though it be.

In spite of the greater certainty attained, a great many places are located conjecturally, though, in the absence of positive documentary proof, this must not be reckoned against Mr. Ramsay, for we feel that in such cases he has made the very best use of the evidence before him. His books fairly bristle with interesting and suggestive facts, most of which may not be controverted, and must therefore be the basis of the work of every student of Anatolian matters, as of every future traveller in Asia Minor. Ramsay's books are clearly the offspring of genius; they are live creations, because created by a powerful and ingenious mind that is stored with marvellous special learning. And by this special learning we do not mean simply a command of the entire literature of the subject, for that is supplemented by an intimate acquaintance with the topography of the country, which, of course, is quite independent of book learning. All this is backed by judgment, keen critical insight, masterful power of analysis and combination, and clear-cut originality.

In chapter x. we find a lucid discussion of Eumeneia, the earliest Christian city of which record remains, its religion, history, monuments, government, tribes, and people. In chapter xi. the immensely important Kelænæ-Apameia-Kibotos is treated fully and satisfactorily. Every school-boy has read of Kelænæ in his 'Anabasis,' for there the palace of Cyrus was situated, and in its park Cyrus used to hunt wild animals when he needed exercise. Ramsay's discussion of this locality, which has been so interesting from the earliest dawn of history to the present day, involves a dissection of the views entertained by Arundel, Hamilton, Hirschfeld, Hogarth, and Weber, all of whom have discussed the topography of the venerable site. But all of these men wrote without accurate and intimate knowledge of the topography, whose many difficult problems, as we confidently believe, have been settled definitely by Ramsay's knowledge, ingenuity, and astuteness. It is interesting to note here that, with the help of Mrs. Ramsay, he discovered the Laughing and the Weeping Fountains. Equally interesting is the discussion of the fair Aulokrene, across the mountain east of Kelænæ. This celebrated fountain will not fail to inspire the traveller because of the hoary legends associated with it. Of it Mr. Ramsay says:

"One lingers by this beautiful fountain, as loath to quit it as the traveller is to leave the shade of its trees and the murmur of its waters, and to go on over the shelterless plain on a hot day in summer. Hardly in Greece itself is there a spot more consecrated with legend. Here Athena sat on the rocks playing her newly invented flute, and saw her distorted face mirrored in the water; here she threw away her flute, and Marsyas picked it up; here Marsyas contended with Apollo, and on that large plane-tree he was hung up to be flayed; in the plain below, Lityerses was slain by the sickles of the reapers; and so on. The physical features of the plain are so remarkable that we need not wonder to find so many legends attached to it."

Then on he goes to a discussion of other Kelænæan matters, such as Kelænæ under Lydian rule, historical myths, Eumenes and the great landholders, the Pergamenian and Roman conquest, under the Roman Republic, under the Roman Empire, the public buildings, sepulchral monuments, national and imperial cultus, popular assemblies, societies, guilds, magistrates, and officials, the Byzantine period, the Turkish conquest, the territory of Apameia. Let the above serve as an indication or specimen of the contents of the succeeding chapters.

For the student of the history of the early Church the interest begins with chapter xii., which, along with chapter xvii., will be studied with equal care and delight by geographers, archæologists, and Church historians. For Mr. Ramsay is clearly right in his claim that, for the future, the Christian antiquities of Phrygia are not to be a field for vague guessing: for instance, the theory of St. Paul's North-Galatian travels must henceforth be banished from scientific works on Church history, and the Christian origin of the grave-stone of St. Abercius must cease to be a matter of controversy. The Church historian will be astonished at the flood of light which innocent and unpromising stones from the graves of men who had been incited to a new and better life by the converts of St. Paul, can be forced by the expert scholar to shed upon the history of early Christianity. We learn, among numerous other things, that Christianity did not immediately remake the whole life and manners of its converts, who continued to live in many respects as before, being characterized by most of the habits, and some, or even many, of the faults of their old life and of the society in which they lived. They did not break with all their old habits, thoughts, feelings, and friends when they were converted. Externals remained the same; they continued to live in company with the pagans, similar in respect of food, dress, surroundings, and appliances, frequenting the same forum, market, baths, shops, fairs, etc.; they observed the same laws of politeness in society; their houses were the same; they kept up the same family names, and when they died their graves, tombstones, and epitaphs were in the ordinary style at the very first, though soon slight variations in the epitaphs were introduced in order to avoid using the too pronounced pagan forms, while preserving the general character of the pagan epitaphs (pp. 485-6). Epitaphs were not openly Christian until a comparatively late date, for in order to maintain their legal status in the state the Christians had to "keep dark." But as time went on, even early epitaphs began to be full of *double-entendres*, or hidden meanings, full of words or phrases that had an exoteric and an esoteric meaning by which they might easily be recognized by the faithful. Indeed, their epitaphs often express publicly the deepest facts of the Christian faith, in language that would not offend pagan feeling, and that, too, on monuments which stood plain before the eyes of the world as witness to the faith.

The elucidation of these esoteric phrases, formulæ, symbols, and the general criteria of the Christian epitaph makes intensely interesting reading. In the fourth century, which for Mr. Ramsay is late, all this was changed, for then the Christians, as such, had a legal standing; but still instances of open avowal of Christianity in epitaphs occur as early as 180-200 A. D., *e.g.*, in the case of Avircius Marcellus, Bishop of Hieropolis. One curious fact in connection with the early Christian inscriptions is this, that the parentage of the deceased is rarely mentioned, probably in strict compliance with the injunction of Matthew: "Call no man your father upon the earth, for one is your Father which is in heaven." The early martyrs disclaimed not only their parentage, but all the other relations of ordinary life, country, occupation, and rank, though this does not appear in the epitaphs of ordinary society until later (pp. 487-500). It thrills one to know that the bishop's chair and the bema that belonged to the earliest Christian cathedral, that of Eumeneia, are still in existence in the neighborhood of that city. They ought to be in some museum, instead. Another interesting fact is this, that to the present day the Moslems who live in the neighborhood of Pepouza, the home of the fanatical Montanists of antiquity, are the most fanatical people in Phrygia, and probably no Christian dog can get through the region without having to

submit to insults in great variety. Deeply interesting, too, is the account of the tombstone of St. Abercius, which was found by Ramsay and Sterrett in 1883, at the hot springs created by St. Abercius with the help of the devil. Nothing in all the history of the exploration of Asia Minor has ever created such a furor in Church circles, mostly Catholic, as did the discovery of this stone, for it proves that what apparently was one of the most outrageously mythical Lives in all the 'Acta Sanctorum' had nevertheless an astonishing foundation in fact. A small library has been created by the numerous discussions of this stone, which now rests, as a priceless relic, in the Lateran Museum in Rome. The Pope estimated so highly the great importance of the stone for early Church history that he had a special medal struck with which to reward the labors of Mr. Ramsay, but we believe that his co-laborer, who did the most of the work, received no recognition at the hands of the Pontiff.

Mr. Ramsay's commentary on the many (515) inscriptions which he prints in this volume as documentary vouchers for the views expressed in the text, is superb, and may well serve as a model for all future editors of inscriptions, though few indeed will have the ready learning wherewith to equal, much less to excel, Mr. Ramsay's fine treatment. And yet we have several criticisms to make precisely upon these inscriptions. They do not form a corpus for any given region. The uncial text of inscriptions is always helpful to the scholar, and yet Mr. Ramsay has always sinned in regard to uncials, though he rigidly demands them in others. Above all, no references, except in special cases, are made in the text to the vouching epigraphical documents, which the reader has to search for painfully in a distant portion of the volume. In this connection we feel that we are justified in asking whether the great body of inscriptions in Mr. Ramsay's hands will ever be published in a corpus with the uncials and commentary. As it is, Mr. Ramsay doles them out to the public only as his various writings demand, so that inscriptions that were copied by him and Sterrett as far back as 1883 are only now seeing the light of day, while others are still hidden away in his desk in distant Aberdeen. It must be confessed, however, that Mr. Ramsay uses them with effect when he does publish them.

In this volume, the Addenda and Addenda to Addenda are far less conspicuous than in Mr. Ramsay's former efforts. The references in the footnotes to books or articles are often made simply by means of the names of the authors, whereas a little additional trouble in giving titles and pages would have spared the reader exasperation and the laborious task of searching for the authority in question. Again, great numbers of villages are mentioned in the text though they are not on the maps, and it happens very often that a perfect understanding of the author's words is absolutely dependent upon knowing the exact location of a given village. The earnest reader consults the map and is disappointed, to put it mildly, when he finds that it is not to be found. Another source of vexation is Mr. Ramsay's spelling of Turkish names, though that is a point upon which he has always been open to criticism. He sticks stubbornly to English symbols in expressing sounds unknown to the English tongue, or for which there is no symbol in the English alphabet. For instance, who could imagine that his *keui* (the frequently recurring Turkish word for *village*) should be pronounced *kiöi?* A host of similar vexations might be adduced against Mr. Ramsay, but we could in time become reconciled to his many idiosyncrasies if he were only consistent in his spelling. Yet that, too, were a small matter if he would only preserve on the map the spelling of the text, but he does not. For instance, in the text we find *Ahar Dagh*, but the map gives *Aghar Dagh;* in the text we read *Geuzler* and *Geuzlar*, but on the map we find *Giozler;* in the text we see *Köpli-Su*, but the map knows only a *Koplu-Su*. Such criticisms might be multiplied. Mr. Ramsay does not often display ignorance of the literature of his subject, but he seems to have forgotten that a portion of the inscriptions of Sebaste were published by Sterrett in the *American Journal of Philology* in 1883.

MACLEOD'S HISTORY OF ECONOMICS.

The History of Economics. By Henry Dunning Macleod. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Perhaps the most pathetic figure among the writers of books is that of the man who, with real ability and with intellectual work of good, though not at all the highest, quality to look back upon, refuses to be content with the recognition the world gives him; who dreams that he is among the great geniuses of the race; and who spends the later years of his life in an unavailing demand for recognition. Such a one is Mr. Henry Dunning Macleod. He is the author of books, big and little, on banking which have gone through several editions; people have got into the way of saying that he knows so much of banking that we may charitably disregard a few extravagant ideas and exaggerated claims. But it is these ideas and claims that Mr. Macleod is bent on making us take seriously. It was in a case drawn up by him in 1853 that he tells us to find "the origin of the modern Science of Economics"; it was he who "raised Economics to the level of a great Inductive Science"; and a treatise of his on the 'Elements of Economics' we are bidden to look upon as "in every way entitled, so far as regards its subject, to rank with Newton's 'Principia.'" Some five years ago, he even printed an address to the (English) Civil-Service Commissioners, "claiming as a public right the Examinership in Economics, as being the only person fit to be intrusted with the fortunes in life of the selected candidates for the civil service of India." Too long had these guiltily careless commissioners allowed themselves to be "made the catspaws of," and "led by the nose" by, "young men in the universities"; too long had they disregarded a judgment of the Court of Exchequer confirming, so he declared, Mr. Macleod's doctrines, and "binding all universities, colleges, and professors" (in England) "who give instruction in Economics."

Such pretensions kindness would lead one to hear in silence were it not for two reasons. It chances that of late Mr. Macleod has been treated in some quarters with an unwonted degree of respect, because he has abided by the severest type of monometallism while other economists seemed to be making dangerous concessions. And, moreover, for this new book—new in name and arrangement only, for in substance it is a réchauffé of what he has printed over and over again—Mr. Macleod has hit upon a catching title. Not a quarter of it can, by any stretch of the term, be properly called a History of Economics. Nevertheless, the literature under that title is at present so scanty, and there is such a growing interest in the subject, that it is quite possible the book will find readers, and even confiding ones. It becomes a duty, then, to say one or two things with an explicitness otherwise brutal.

The book contains a good deal of information and a good deal of sensible criticism of other writers, which will repay perusal by those who have sufficient knowledge to be able to sift the wheat from the chaff. But we are bound to come at once to the positions which Mr. Macleod regards as fundamental. First, then, "the cause of all the mischief and confusion in the science" (p. 45) is that Economics has been treated as the science of the "Production, Distribution, and Consumption" of Wealth, as those words are commonly understood, instead of as the science simply of "Exchanges." It need hardly be said that the proposal to limit Economics to the problems of Exchange is not a new one: most text-books say something of Whately and "Catallactics"; nor is it necessary to enter upon the considerations, obvious enough, that have led economists to take a wider range. But Mr. Macleod declares, not only that this is the wiser conception of Economics, but also that it is the original conception of the science as taught by its founders, the French Economists of the eighteenth century. He furnishes us with the following astounding bit of historical and philological explanation: "Production, Distribution, and Consumption" was originally, according to him, a mere alternative phrase for "Exchange." "The true and original meaning of Production in Economics is to place anything in the market and offer it for sale" (p. 540), not "the process by which the product is obtained" (p. 544). "Distribution" meant nothing but "traffic" (p. 47; cf. p. 115); and "Consumption, in the language of the Economists, and also of Adam Smith, simply meant purchase or demand; it involved no idea of destruction." But unluckily J. B. Say "misunderstood" this formula (p. 45; cf. p. 113), and took it to mean—what we all take it to mean. This mistake has opened the floodgates of error.

The original meaning of the phrase has no real bearing on the question of the proper limitation of the scope of Economics. But this is just one of those parts of the book which produce an impression of profound learning; and so it must be bluntly said that the whole statement is a bit of philological moonshine. The writer who supposes that with the French Economists "Distribution" just meant trafficking, simply shows that he is unacquainted with their characteristic doctrines. It was they who first set going the idea, which has dominated most writers ever since, of an apportionment or allotment to each of the economic classes constituting society of their share or portion of the total produce; the idea of what Adam Smith, in the heading to Book I., calls "the order according to which the produce of labor is naturally *distributed* among the different ranks of the people." The writer who supposes that by Production the Physiocrats understood bringing into market, can never have thought of the meaning of

produit net, the key to their whole system. The writer who tells us that Consumption in Adam Smith does not mean what it means now, must have forgotten Smith's section on the taxation of "consumable commodities."

From the scope of Economics, Mr. Macleod passes to its subject-matter, *Wealth*. This he defines as all that possesses the quality of exchangeability (p. 48); and he calls attention, as others have done before, to the inconsistency of those who try to combine this with other criteria. So far, good; but now Mr. Macleod proceeds to enunciate his one great pet idea, that "Credit is Wealth" (pp. 49-66, and *passim*). This is "the solid and impregnable foundation upon which the majestic structure of Economic Science is to be erected." Not satisfied to let the proposition rest on its own intrinsic merits, he appeals to "the ancients"; from Aristotle, with his explanation of *chremata* as everything whose value can be measured in money, to Ulpian and the later Roman lawyers, who included debts and rights-of-action under *res*. Easily intelligible as are these citations, Mr. Macleod is never tired of insisting on their importance. He compares himself to a Layard or a Schliemann, for sweeping away the rubbish that has accumulated over these "doctrines of the ancients"; and, with an unexpected distrust of his own powers of translation, he makes "a knowledge of Juridical Latin and Greek" "indispensable" to those who would "comprehend Economics" (p. 166).

As Mr. Macleod goes on himself to point out, most people have always recognized the fact that *to the individual* a claim upon another, *if the other is solvent*, is as much "wealth" as goods or money in hand. But he goes a good deal further, and maintains that debts are a part of the wealth of society. He recognizes that "the word Debt has two meanings—both the Creditor's Right of Action, and also the Debtor's Duty to Pay" (p. 441); yet he actually supposes that the Rights of Action can be reckoned into the wealth of a society without being balanced by the equivalent negative quantities represented by the corresponding Duties to Pay. "Public Loans have augmented the Public Wealth," he says (p. 444); and when M. Gide, as a *reductio ad absurdum*, inquired whether France has added to her national wealth by contracting her debt to pay the German indemnity, he boldly replied, "Yes"; because "by this debt she redeemed her independence." With such an argument there is no reasoning. As well might we say that a family would become wealthier if one brother borrowed from another so that he might pay hush money to save the family honor.

Apparently, Mr. Macleod draws no practical conclusion from this doctrine of his that might not just as well have been reached without it. He does not propose that a government should run into debt as a way of increasing national wealth. In fact, one of the most surprising things in this bewildering book is to discover that even when he has laid his foundation he builds nothing particular on it. After the "Nature and History of Economics" have been disposed of in Book I., occupying 168 pages, then follow 520 pages of Book II., devoted to "Fundamental Concepts and Axioms." Never was there a more complete misnomer. Instead of an orderly exposition of a science, or even a thorough consideration of a few "fundamental concepts," we are given a series of articles arranged alphabetically as in a dictionary. These articles may be rearranged in two groups. There are a number of essays on well-worn topics, like Rent (though some, like Wages, are conspicuous by their absence); and there are a number of explanations of technical terms, chiefly in Roman commercial law, such as "Acceptilation." These explanations are useful, but their utility is absurdly overestimated, and there is a perfectly childish belief in the advantage to be derived from the decoration of the pages with a few signs of *plus* and *minus*. The other group—the essays—are worth looking over, but they contain nothing startlingly new, nothing that has not already been said in support or criticism of familiar doctrines, and certainly nothing that justifies the preliminary blowing of trumpets. The whole book is a case of much cry and little wool. Or, to change the metaphor, there is a novel and savage monster, by the name of Credit, on the canvas outside; but when we get inside the show we are disappointed to find the same old sleepy beasts—Gresham's Law and the Fallacy of Reciprocity and the rest—that have done duty in scores of shows before. And in this caravan they are not even particularly well groomed.

The Dungeons of Old Paris: Being the Story and Romance of the Most Celebrated Prisons of the Monarchy and Revolution. By Tighe Hopkins. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1897.

Mr. Hopkins essays to make up an entertaining volume from the records of past suffering. One detects no ulterior purpose or special moral in his pages. He is bent on furnishing amusement, partly for its own sake, and partly, unless we do him an injustice, because he is not indisposed to attract a certain portion of the purchasing public. He has skill enough to avoid the crude atrocities which disgust all but confirmed readers of the Newgate Calendar, and, by discoursing of the Marquise de Brinvilliers, Marguerite de Valois and La Môle, and the "Prisons of Aspasia," he will doubless collect an audience more or less large. Gaboriau's detective stories are not farther in advance of their English imitations than are the annals of French crime in advance of the heavy brutalities that crop out in Anglo-Saxon communities. Ingenious villany has its admirers, even its devotees, in every land, but the French have broken the Decalogue more artistically than any other race of modern Europeans save the Italian. A light and airy writer of fiction like Mr. Hopkins should find slight difficulty in filling out a book of reasonable dimensions with a choice selection from the *causes célèbres* of Paris. He writes with very apparent ease and is true to the broad facts of his subject. For instance, he is no supporter of the fiction which maintains that the state-prisons of the old régime were only fortified inns where excellent entertainment was provided at fair charges. The Ciceronian conception, "Carcer non ad puniendos, sed ad continendos homines haberi debet," was pretty well forgotten in the days of the *vade in pace;* and when Mirabeau at Vincennes blasted the *lettre-de-cachet* system, he showed that it, too, while not involving unmitigated distress, might mean much more than detention.

If one is bent on getting from Mr. Hopkins anything beyond a number of vivacious or of dreadful stories, one will observe how fully his material illustrates the mediæval idea that confinement in prison should entail acute hardship and anguish. Vengeance, not the reform of the culprit or the protection of society, was what was aimed at during those centuries between Louis XI. and Louis XVI., to which he mainly restricts his attention. "Justice," *i. e.*, the perversion of justice, is one of his leading themes. "Something is shown, it is hoped, of every kind of justice that was recognized in Paris until the days of '89, when everything that had been, fell with the terrific fall of the monarchy: feudal justice, the justice of absolute kings and of ministers who were but less absolute, provosts' and bishops' justice, and the justice of prison governors and lieutenants of police." The criminal procedure here referred to is presented in extremely popular form, but a sufficiently vivid impression is created of how imminent the prison was in an age of force. Mr. Hopkins discusses the most famous dungeons of Paris, one after another, in eleven chapters, including at one end of the scale such historic fortresses as the Bastille and Vincennes, and at the other such distressing mews as La Force and La Roquette. The particular prison with its vicissitudes is his unit. Matters petty and grave, local and national, romantic and sordid are huddled together according to the place of punishment with which they are associated. We must say that Mr. Hopkins, without being painfully technical, is happy in characterizing his various prisons. Before bringing his criminal or political offenders on the scene he uniformly describes the situation and origin of the forced abode where they are to play their parts in his little drama. Every prison has its distinctive quality. Vincennes holds the great Frondeurs and other noted rebels against the monarchy. The Luxembourg is "above all others the aristocratic prison of the Revolution." Bicêtre is "the Bastille of the canaille and the bourgeoisie." Saint-Lazare is both a place of durance and of asylum for female outcasts. A classification of this sort will illuminate many who scamper through French history without stopping to consider whether there may be any particular difference between the Bastille and the Conciergerie, between the Temple and Sainte-Pélagie.

Though all Mr. Hopkins's episodes may not wear the first flush of youth to the well-informed in French memoir literature, they are treated with ability and liveliness. It is apart from our business to say that his subject is distasteful to squeamish people. At least, we can commend this book to those who in comfortable circumstances find themselves afflicted with discontent. Familiarity with the real miseries of the past may lead them to admit that their own subjective woe is not "triste comme les portes d'une prison."

History of the County of Annapolis. With biographical and genealogical sketches. By the late W. A. Calnek. Edited and completed by A. W. Savary, M.A. With portraits and illustrations. Toronto: W. Briggs. 1897. 8vo, pp. xvi, 660.

The early history of this Nova Scotian county has a peculiar, almost unique, in-

terest. Its principal town, of the same name, originally known as Port Royal, was founded by the French three years before the settlement of Jamestown and sixteen before the landing of the Pilgrims. A border-town, it was subjected to more sieges and captures, probably, than any other place in the New World. Six times in the first hundred years of its existence it fell into the hands of the Virginian and New England colonists; and after it had finally become an English possession, its recapture was attempted more than once by the French and Indians. Nor do its annals lack in romantic and dramatic episodes—the strange fortunes of Charles La Tour and his heroic wife being an instance of the one, while for dramatic pathos few stories surpass that of the expatriation of the Acadians. This region can boast, also, of being the birthplace of American industries. On one of its streams was built the first mill on the continent, and in its Basin was launched the first of American vessels.

The early annals (1604–1605) are contained in the first eight chapters. The ninth is a defence of the Acadians, by the editor, against the charge, made by Mr. Parkman among others, that "they would neither leave the country nor take the oath." This statement, he says, "is contradicted by every record bearing on the question," and he certainly makes a strong case against Gov. Lawrence, the chief agent in their removal. He implies that had their "friend," "the gracious and graceful, but brave-hearted soldier," Gov. Mascarene, who "knew and understood them better than any of their other rulers," been in power, the English Government would have been spared the disgrace of this act.

The history of Annapolis and the other towns of the county, Granville, Wilmot, and Clements, after this time possesses little general interest, except in so far as they were affected by the wars of the Revolution and of 1812. A pitiful story is told of the privations and sufferings of the Loyalists, who came in such numbers as greatly to overtax the ability of the inhabitants to provide for them. In 1784 even "the court-house and every store and private building was crowded with people." Two settlements in the western part of the county, Waldeck and Hessian Lines, were, as their names show, the refuge of disbanded Waldeckers and Hessians, and the wild lands granted to them are still cultivated by their descendants.

The second half of the volume contains biographical memoirs of members of the provincial parliament for the county, and biographical and genealogical sketches of the early settlers and grantees. These show a vast amount of labor on the part of the author, Mr. Calnek, who died in 1892, leaving his work incomplete. His manuscript material has been revised, partly rewritten, amended and added to in some important particulars by the editor, Judge Savary of Annapolis, to whom a large part of the credit of the work—a valuable contribution to our history—belongs. The narrative is illustrated by some interesting portraits, of Mascarene, Gen. Sir W. F. Williams of Kars, a native of Annapolis, and Judge Haliburton, among others, and views and plans. We regret that a map of the county, showing the position of the different settlements, was not added.

Hannibal, Soldier, Statesman, Patriot; and the Crisis of the Struggle between Carthage and Rome. By William O'Connor Morris, sometime scholar of Oriel College, Oxford. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1897.

If there must be a "Heroes of the Nations" Series, Hannibal must have a place in it; yet his story has been told often and lately, and in the total absence of any new material a new life is hardly called for. Nor does his present biographer put the old material in any new light. Like most Oxford scholars, he swears by Mommsen, and, like him, puts Hannibal on a superhuman eminence, while he seems unable to discern the exalted greatness of Scipio. For this latter reason he cannot bring himself to accept entirely the judgment of Polybius, "who was under the influence of the Scipios." But Polybius would hardly have been more kindly disposed to Carthage and Hannibal if he had been under the influence of Cato, whom Judge Morris does not once mention. Repudiating with scorn everything Livy says against Hannibal's character, no words are too bitter for him in describing the Punic race and polity, from the bosom of which Hannibal sprang; nor does he notice that the charge of bad faith against Hannibal appears in Cicero, not as blind spite against a dreaded enemy, but in contrast with the honor and probity of the equally dreaded Pyrrhus. He is never tired of telling us that Carthage sent no reinforcements to Hannibal, yet he offers no explanation of the thirty-three elephants which appear unexpectedly at the siege of Capua in B. C. 211. He brings Scipio seriously down in the line of strategists for allowing Hasdrubal and Mago to slip by him; but he cannot see the real genius of that great man in carrying out his ancestors' conception, striking at the vitals of the Carthaginian power, and arraying their western subjects against them, as Hannibal had never been able to do with the eastern allies of Rome. Such questions are numberless and never will be settled, but it requires something more profound than Judge Morris's enthusiasm to master them.

One particularly teasing point in the book is the way places are dealt with as to the ancient and modern names. No sort of rule is followed. Carthago Nova is never called anything but Cartagena, while Garganus is most superfluously explained in a foot-note as Gargano. When Clastidium, a tolerably well-known Roman colony, is first mentioned, it is by the very obscure name Casteggio, the Latin name not appearing for many pages. Later, a whole string of Latin names in the toe of Italy are assigned to Calabria, which designation has been transferred in later days from the back of the heel.

The printing of the American edition is not all satisfactory; the Greek quotations in particular are sadly in need of proof-reading. The illustrations are many of them superfluous; in particular, Kiepert's plan of Augustan Rome appears as an illustration of Rome two centuries before Augustus, reduced to such a small scale as to be illegible, and the author's name printed in the list as Keippert!

The Book Worm. By Irving Browne. East Aurora, N. Y.: The Roycroft Shop. 1897.

Mr. Browne gives those whom the *Green Bag* and *Albany Law Journal* have taught to admire his peculiar humor, the opportunity of securing among them (according to the law of priority to the diligent) an edition of 590 signed and numbered copies of this little volume of essays. The subject is an old and trite one, but, treated in Mr. Browne's whimsical manner, and enlivened with his punning doggerel, it makes amusing reading. Some of his remarks on book-plates, binding, and extra-illustrating contain much sense, mingled with wit, a very fair example of which is the following observation on the ethics of bibliomania:

"It is singular how expenditure in books is regarded as an extravagance by the business world. One may spend the price of a fine library in fast or showy horses, or in travel, or in gluttony, or in stock speculations eventuating on the wrong side of his ledger, and the money-grubbing community think none the worse of him. But let him expend a few thousands in books, and these sons of mammon pull long faces, wag their shallow heads, and sneeringly observe, 'Screw loose somewhere.' . . . As Ruskin observes, we frequently hear of a bibliomaniac, never of a horse-maniac. . . . If a man in business wants to excite the suspicion of the sleek gentlemen who sit around the discount board with him, or yell like lunatics at the stock exchange with him, . . . let it leak out that he has put a few thousand dollars into a Mazarine Bible, or a Caxton, or a first-folio Shakespeare, or some other rare book. No matter if he can afford it, most of his associates regard him as they do a Bedlamite who goes about collecting straws. Fortunate is he if his wife does not privately call on the family attorney, and advise with him about putting a committee over the poor man."

The book is handsomely printed, with ornamental initials in red, and on good paper; but for work so pretentious the proof-reading leaves something to be desired.

A Ride through Western Asia. By Clive Bigham. Macmillan.

The greater part of western Asia is getting to be pretty well-known ground, where travellers can no longer look on themselves as explorers, and where a journey, though attended with hardships, is not apt to be particularly difficult or startling. And yet, when they come to write about their wanderings, it is often better that they should ignore their predecessors. Mr. Bigham is a little too much afraid of repeating what has been told already. He "was in Asia eleven months, during which time I travelled 8,217 miles, 4,008 of which I had ridden on horseback," visiting Asia Minor, Turkish Arabia, Persia, Russian Central Asia, Kashgar, and western Siberia; he saw many interesting people and things, and he has condensed his experiences into a very readable volume. Its weakness is that, as he covers a great deal of ground which he is conscious has been described before, he merely touches here and there, telling very little about any place, and taking for granted more knowledge than he will find in the general reader. It is hard to keep such a work from being rather scrappy and confusing. On the whole, however, the book is well written, as both matter and style are good, with every now and then an excellent bit of description.

In Turkey the author naturally heard much about the Armenian question. On pages 68 to 70 he quotes some interesting if not very original opinions of an intelligent observer in the country. As for himself, while not attempting to deny the atrocities, he seems to have no great sympathy for the victims, even declaring (p. 30), "The Kurds are in general far more attractive to the casual observer than the Armenians. In

spite of their brigand lives, they are more honest and straightforward, and they bear pain with remarkable fortitude. They probably suffer as much, if not more, at the hands of the Government, but their plaints do not reach so far."

The illustrations of the book are in the main discreetly chosen, but we question the taste of getting the crowd at an execution in Persia to pose for a photograph which is reproduced, including the corpse, for the benefit of the reader.

The Bulgarian Language. By W. R. Morfill, M.A., Reader in Russian and the Other Slavonic Languages in the University of Oxford. [No. XXIII. of Trübner's Collection of Simplified Grammars.] London, 1897. 12mo, pp. 108.

In 1844 there appeared a small pamphlet, privately and anonymously printed at Smyrna, containing in twenty-four pages the essence of the Bulgarian language. The author of it was the American missionary and scholar Elias Riggs, to whom belongs the honor of having written the first grammar of that tongue. It demanded then a great deal of courage and fine discrimination to speak of rules and laws, where several dialects were occupied in an impotent struggle to survive as a literary language. Meanwhile Bulgaria has been freed politically, and of late its language, too, is assuming more and more that uniformity which will insure it a healthy growth. There have appeared many grammars within the last fifteen years (the best are in German and Bohemian), which have treated in a masterly yet popular way the difficult subject of this Slavic language. Mr. Morfill thinks that the time has come when English "travellers or those engaged in commerce" may need one written in English. For this purpose he has consulted a large number of printed sources and natives, in order to make the book as complete as possible.

The mechanical execution of the work is, as in the Polish grammar of the same author and collection, very, very bad. Accents are wanting on hundreds of words, or are wrongly placed, many words are misspelled, forms belonging to one case are accredited to another. Should the student possess an unusual amount of ingenuity to overcome all these stumbling-blocks, he would discover that he has to know a certain amount of Old Slavic in order to comprehend why declensions and conjugations are mentioned by title when, under the respective headings, he is told that they do not exist in Bulgarian. The author has given almost verbatim the whole of the verb paradigms as they stand in Miklositch's Comparative Grammar—a commendable thing to do in a scientific grammar, but hardly in a "simplified" one, intended for travellers, etc. The examples for the declensions closely resemble those in C. F. Morse's 'Grammar of the Bulgarian Language,' published in 1859 at Constantinople. After the patient student has plodded through the grammar, he is regaled on the first page of the "Short Reading Lessons" with two extracts, in which there are a number of forms explained neither in the grammar nor in the dictionary. It was Oxford that exactly two centuries ago gave forth the first Russian grammar ever printed; this Bulgarian Grammar cannot be thought to sustain the reputation for Slavic studies earned by that institution so long ago.

Grundriss der Englischen Metrik. Von J. Schipper. Vienna: Wilhelm Braumüller.

Schipper's 'Englische Metrik' (3 vols., 1881-88) has been before the public for some years, and has been recognized as the most important work on the subject ever published, but it is too bulky for general use. Moreover, the investigations of Sievers made necessary a revision of the first part of that work, since Sievers's results have been accepted by nearly all Old English scholars. A revision and condensation has been supplied by Schipper in the volume whose title heads this notice. It is divided into two main books, the first treating of the structure of verses (lines), and the second treating of the structure of strophes (stanzas). These are still further subdivided, the first part of the first book discussing the national metre—that is, the alliterative long line—of all periods, and the second part, foreign metres. The stanza is also considered in its general structure and in its special forms during the Middle and Modern English periods. A summary is given of the old discussion of the *Zweihebungstheorie* and the *Vierhebungstheorie* of the half-verse in the Old English alliterative line, and Schipper adheres, with all the greater firmness since the studies of Sievers, to his former view endorsing the first theory. He sums up the whole discussion with a quotation from the Abbot Aelfric on another subject: "If any one does not believe this, he is *unbeliefful*," *i. e.*, incapable of belief.

As to the structure of the alliterative line, Schipper follows the five forms of Sievers. In treating the development of the alliterative long line in Middle-English poetry, he follows Luick, and will press this line also into the five forms, with certain modifications and combinations, but it is doubtful if such a Procrustean system will fit the facts of the case. The Middle-English line is descended from the Old-English line, but with much freer movement and much less regard to the quantity of syllables—accent, and not quantity, ruling; so that these efforts to lay more stress than hitherto on quantity in English verse cannot be regarded as altogether successful. They do not explain all the phenomena, and they necessitate a very involved system of verse.

The foreign metres that began to show themselves in English verse a hundred and fifty years after the Norman Conquest—iambic and trochaic, anapæstic and dactylic—are treated with considerable fulness. Of these the iambic was the only one that appeared in the Middle-English period, the others being of later introduction. Schipper adheres to the classical terminology, in which two iambic feet make a metre, though this has been abandoned by most writers on English metre, the Chaucerian line being regarded as iambic pentameter, not as iambic trimeter brachycatalectic. There seems no more reason in English metre, where accent is the ruling principle, for assuming that two iambi make a metre than for assuming that two dactyls form one.

The rhythm of the verse as variously affected, the measurement of syllables, and particularly the accent of words, both Germanic and Romanic, are all well treated by Schipper; but exception may occasionally be taken to his reading of particular lines. The usual occurrences that disturb the regular rhythm of English verse, such as reverse rhythm, variable accent, failure of thesis, double anacrusis, double thesis, all come into consideration in the several kinds of verse discussed. The earliest examples of the iambic pentameter Schipper finds, not in Chaucer, as is usually thought, but in two poems of the last half of the thirteenth century found in MS. Harl. 2253; in this he differs from Ten Brink. In the case of Shakspere's blank verse, Schipper differs from Abbott in assuming failure of thesis at the beginning or within the verse, where Abbott would prolong the monosyllable; here Abbott's view seems preferable. Many modern examples of iambic-anapæstic and trochaic-dactylic verse are considered. The effort to regulate the classic dactylic hexameter in English according to the laws of quantity, as recommended by Cayley and Matthew Arnold, is characterized as *ganz verfehlt* (p. 259). Extracts from Longfellow's 'Evangeline' are given as good examples of the use of the hexameter in English, but we miss mention of Kingsley's 'Andromeda.'

The second book, on the structure of the strophe (stanza), is very full and shows very wide reading. Every conceivable variety of stanza, and of rhyme within the stanza, seems to be included, and still each poet feels at liberty to introduce a new stanza or a new way of rhyming in an old one. Schipper takes exception to the common view that the term rhyme-royal was applied to the Chaucerian stanza because James I. of Scotland composed in it his 'King's Quair,' and he agrees with Guest that it was derived from the French expression *chant-royal*, a term applied to certain poems written in this stanza in honor of God or the Virgin Mary and repeated at the poetical contests at Rouen on the choice of a King (p. 327). This is an historical question, and can be settled only by the discovery of the first uses of the term in English as applied to this stanza. The Spenserian stanza and those of the Pindaric odes are taken up, but Gray's two odes are barely named. The sonnet stanza receives interesting consideration, and the work closes with mention of other Italian and French forms that have been here and there imitated in English.

We have noticed a number of errata, but they can be easily corrected; one of the most serious is *Senkung* for *Hebung* (twice) on p. 51.

Enfranchisement and Citizenship: Addresses and Papers. By Edward L. Pierce. Edited by A. W. Stevens. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

The late Edward L. Pierce was well known as a legal author and by his 'Life of Sumner.' This collection of papers, made a year ago, is chiefly valuable as a memorial of versatile activity in other directions. The most interesting part of the volume, which consists mainly of occasional addresses, will be found to be the first 141 pages; these are historical and autobiographical, and give an account of Mr. Pierce's services during the war. When Mr. Lincoln's first call of seventy-five thousand volunteers was made, Mr. Pierce, then a man of thirty-two, deeply

interested in the anti-slavery movement, enlisted as a private in the New Bedford City Guards (3d Regiment Mass. V. M.). "A Private Soldier in Virginia" tells the story of his soldiering, and throws some interesting light on the first days of the war. The writer was not merely a soldier; he was also a war correspondent, supplying news with regularity to the Boston *Traveller*. On May 31, 1861, we find him making a report to Gov. Andrew, at the latter's request, upon the condition of the troops at Fortress Monroe. While serving as a private soldier, he was requested by Gen. Butler to take permanent charge of the incoming negroes, but he preferred to remain with his regiment. His last days of service in Virginia, however, were passed in charge of negroes at Hampton, and an article contributed by him to the *Atlantic Monthly*, on "The Contrabands at Fortress Monroe," attracted a great deal of attention. It will bear rereading now. The writer predicted that the consequences of arming the blacks then so much dreaded would never follow, and they never did. Later in the year he was sent by Mr. Chase, then Secretary of the Treasury, to Beaufort, "in connection with contrabands and cotton," and he made two important reports. These have been combined in the present volume with another article from the *Atlantic*, making a paper called "The Freedmen at Port Royal." In this the author shows both good sense and foresight, vindicating the negro's right to freedom by the fruits of observation and experience. Another paper gives an account of the assault on Fort Wagner, of which Mr. Pierce was a witness.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allingham, Francis. Crooked Paths. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Bacon, Alice M. Japanese Girls and Women. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75c.
Balzac, H. de. The Seamy Side of History. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Barclay, R. A. Batch of Golfing Papers by Andrew Lang and Others. New York: M. F. Mansfield.
Bates, Prof. Arlo. Talks on the Study of Literature. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
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Borchers, W. Electric Smelting and Refining. London: Charles Griffin & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $6.50.
Bramble, C. A. Klondike: A Manual for Goldseekers. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.
Bridges, J. H. The 'Opus Majus' of Roger Bacon. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Brooks, E. S. The Century Book of the American Revolution. Century Co. $1.50.
China and Pottery Marks. Gilman Collamore & Co.
Coubertin, Pierre de. The Evolution of France under the Third Republic. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $3.
Cox, Major-Gen. J. D. The Battle of Franklin. Scribners. $2.
Davenport, H. J. Outlines of Elementary Economics. Macmillan. 80c.
Downing's New Tariff. New York: R. F. Downing & Co.
Evangelica. New York: K. Russell. $1.25.
Eves, C. W. The West Indies. 4th ed. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.
Fielde, Adele M. A Political Primer of New York State and City. Macmillan. 75c.
Guyau, M. The Non-Religion of the Future: A Sociological Study. Henry Holt & Co. $3.
Harte, Bret. Three Partners; or, The Big Strike on Heavy Tree Hill. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Hume, Fergus. Claude Duval of Ninety-five. G. W. Dillingham Co. 50c.
Illoway, Dr. H. Constipation in Adults and Children. Macmillan. $4.
Ingersoll, Ernest. Wild Neighbors: Out-Door Studies in the United States. Macmillan. $1.50.
Kingsley, Prof. J. S. Elements of Comparative Zoology. Henry Holt & Co. $1.20.
Knott, Prof. C. G. Physics: An Elementary Text-Book for University Classes. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.50.
Kuhns, Prof. L. O. Cary's Dante's Divine Comedy. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $2.
Le Conte, Caroline Eaton. The Statue in the Air. Macmillan. 75c.
Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. 50, Russen-Scobell. Macmillan. $3.75.
Lent, W. B. Across the Country of the Little King: A Trip through Spain. Bonnell, Silver & Co. $1.25.
Marden, O. S. Success. Boston: W. A. Wilde & Co. $1.25.
McGiffert, Prof. A. C. A History of Christianity in the Apostolic Age. [International Theological Library.] Scribners. $2.50.
Miller, Olive T. Four-Handed Folk. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75c.
Mitchell, S. W. Hugh Wynne. 2 vols. Century Co. $2.
Moore, C. C. The Visit of St. Nicholas. G. W. Dillingham Co.
Moule, Rev. H. C. G. Philippian Studies: Lessons in Faith and Love from St. Paul's Epistle to the Philippians. Armstrong. $1.50.
Muir, Dr. Robert, and Ritchie, Dr. James. Manual of Bacteriology. London: Young J. Pentland; New York: Macmillan. $3.25.
Muir, Sir William. The Mohammedan Controversy, and Other Articles. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark; New York: Scribners. $3.
Moore, F. C. How to Build a Home. Doubleday & McClure Co. $1.
Munroe, Kirk. The Painted Desert: A Story of Northern Arizona. Harpers. $1.25.
Nordau, Max. The Drones Must Die. G. W. Dillingham Co. $2.
Ordish, T. F. Shakspere's London. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Perry, Prof. Bliss. Short Stories by Poe. [Little Masterpieces.] Doubleday & McClure Co. 90c.
Pickering, Sidney. Margot. Putnams. $1.
Raine, Allen. Mifanwy (A Welsh Singer). Appletons. $1.
Rathbone, St. George. A Son of Mars. F. J. Neely. 50c.
Redway, J. W. Natural Elementary Geography. American Book Co. 60c.
Reid, Christian. The Man of the Family. Putnams. $1.
Ribot, Prof. Th. The Psychology of the Emotions. London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Russell, Prof. Israel C. Volcanoes of North America. Macmillan. $4.
Scudder, S. H. Frail Children of the Air. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75c.
Sears, Prof. Lorenzo. The Occasional Address: its Composition and Literature. Putnams. $1.25.
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Spear, J. W. Peg Bunson. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.25.
Steell, Willis. A Mountain of Gold. F. J. Neely. 50c.
Steell, Willis. Isadra, the Patriot Daughter of Mexico. F. J. Neely. 50c.
Tales from McClure's. Humor, Romance. Doubleday & McClure Co. Each 25c.
The Boston Browning Society Papers. Macmillan. $3.
Thurston, Mrs. I. T. A Genuine Lady. Boston: Pilgrim Press. $1.25.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 30, 1897.

The Week.

After considerable backing and filling, the Bryan Democracy of Ohio finally concluded to make their fight on the silver issue, and the campaign was formally opened last Thursday. The very day selected for the opening was significant of this issue. To the average citizen the 23d of September does not differ from the 22d or the 24th, but to the devotee of free coinage it is a day which stands out from other days in the month, and is, indeed, one of the great days of the whole year. It was on the 23d of September, 1780, that "the captors of Major André refused to set him free for a bribe of British gold," and, of course, there could be no better day than the 23d of September for opening a campaign to throw off the gold shackles in 1897. Fantastic as was this choice of a day, necessity really compelled the Bryanites to stand by the silver issue. They made it in their platform, and it is impossible to drop it now. The real contest is for the control of the Legislature and the senatorship which goes with it. Each party is ready to trade off the governorship for the greater prize, and charges of treachery are already heard on either side. There is nothing inspiring in the appeals for votes by one party or the other, and while the defeat of the Bryanites is to be desired, the success of the Republicans holds out no prospect of progress.

The National Democrats are the one body of men who have principles which are worth defending and courage enough to defend them. Nebraska is now added to the list of States in which they refuse to endorse the surrender to Bryanism. They have held a convention at Omaha, put a ticket in the field, and adopted a scund platform, in which they condemn equally the subserviency of their old party organization to Populism, and "the hypocrisy and double dealing of the Republican party in keeping a trinity of proselyters abroad pretending to solicit foreign governments to embark in the free coinage of silver, when it is known that the entire drift and tendency of all commercial nations is towards a universal gold standard as a measure of values, with a limited coinage of silver on a gold basis under suitable safeguards of law." Mr. J. Sterling Morton, Secretary of Agriculture under Cleveland, was one of the moving spirits of the convention, and was put on the ticket as a candidate for Regent of the University. He is one of those men who never shrink from leading a forlorn hope, and there ought to be enough Democrats of like mind with him to prevent the triumph of the fusion Bryanite ticket in November.

On the other hand, delightfully inconsistent were the proceedings of the county committee of the National Democracy in this city last week. They first gave formal approval of the candidacy of Judge Alton B. Parker for Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals, after listening to a letter from him in which he said he voted for Bryan last year. In defence of his course it was said that he voted as a Democrat, in accordance with his lifelong habit of always voting the party ticket, and that he should be forgiven for it. The assumption was that he could vote for Bryan without giving his approval to Bryan's platform, and it was declared that, since he was a candidate for merely a judicial office, his course on the silver issue of last year did not enter into the question of his fitness at all. This was certainly an extraordinary position to be taken by Democrats who had regarded the silver issue as one of such momentous importance last year as to justify them in leaving their party and doing their utmost to help elect the Republican candidate for the Presidency. They looked upon the issue then as one far above politics, being entirely one of morals and patriotism, and surely this is preëminently an issue which ought to appeal to a man holding one judicial office and aspiring to another. For a judge to vote for a candidate whose principles he disapproved, simply because of a lifelong habit of voting his party ticket, no matter what its character, is a curious qualification for higher judicial honors. After formally accepting such a candidate, and thus taking his position that platforms were of no account anyway, the committee turned about and adopted a strong gold platform. Could there be a nearer approach to burlesque than this?

Gen. Tracy's acceptance of Platt's nomination for the mayoralty, of course, is not due to any expectation of election. Of that there is not the remotest possibility. The only two motives we can think of are a desire to oblige Platt, of whose son he is a law partner, and a desire to "keep the party together." All Republican candidates in this city for forty years have been run simply to "keep the party together." What this means now is to sustain Platt's power over the Legislature, or, in other words, to maintain his boss-ship, and enable him, as the opposing boss, to make "deals," or use "diplomacy," as he calls it, with the Tammany boss, who may possibly win at the next election, for it is he only who can win if Mr. Low should be defeated. That Gen. Tracy should lend his aid to such a scheme will surprise some people, but it ought not to surprise them. It is the not unnatural result of being the partner of Platt's son, and engaging in a practice which must be largely semi-political—that is, must be due a good deal to the supposed influence of Platt himself on the government of the State. A gentleman connected in this way with the Platt family could hardly disoblige Platt unless he were willing to retire from business. It is extremely important, too, for Platt to prevent the success of such a nomination as Mr. Low's, as it would rapidly lead to the destruction of the system of nomination by elected convention, which is playing such havoc with free government all over the Union. In so far as Gen. Tracy's nomination, therefore, will have any effect on the election, it will be to help Tammany. The effect on himself personally, in the eyes of his fellow-citizens, will not be serious, because the discredit of the connection began to tell some time ago.

Official outgivings both at Washington and Madrid assure us that Minister Woodford has presented no ultimatum to the Spanish Government, has fixed no time within which Spain must either subdue the Cuban rebellion or acknowledge her inability to do so, but has merely tendered the good offices of the United States in the most friendly manner to aid in securing the restoration of peace and good order in the island. Notwithstanding these pacific assurances, all the organs of public opinion in Europe persist in holding the contrary view, and their comments have reacted upon Spain to such a degree that Minister Woodford himself has become uneasy, and, according to one account, has asked permission to publish the communication that he delivered to the Duke of Tetuan, in order to quiet the excitement. Despatches from Washington say that Secretary Sherman was in favor of publishing it, but that the President deemed it best to wait a while; also, that the Administration fears trouble at the reassembling of Congress, and aims to do just enough to keep the Jingoes under control and not enough to get into a war with Spain. This is a rational explanation of all that has been done and of all that has been published as yet. The Senate at the last session passed a joint resolution recognizing the belligerency of the Cuban rebels. The House was not organized for general business and Speaker Reed kept the resolution on the table. It was commonly supposed that if a vote could

have been taken the House would have passed it also. Then the President would have been compelled either to sign it or to veto it. It seems altogether probable that Mr. McKinley will still have to face the issue. That he desires strongly to avoid a foreign complication is plain.

We do not see why all this hubbub is made in the press over the question whether England has "backed out" of her agreement to take part in a sealing conference. Our position is eminently satisfactory, whether she has or not. If she confers, it is because Mr. Sherman frightened her into it by charging her with bad faith. If she does not, why, there is more bad faith in the act, and what better could we ask? Our diplomatic triumph is assured, as it always is, no matter what England does, no matter what the arbitration tribunal decides, no matter what it costs us, no matter what the facts are. This is of more value than many seals. In fact, the supposition that we as a nation care anything about the seals, except as animals which we reserve the exclusive right to slaughter, is grotesque in view of the sealing correspondence and the reports of experts. In December, 1894, when there was talk of prohibiting the killing of seals for one year, both on sea and land, Mr. Gresham objected; he said, and truly said, that such a course would "raise a great outcry in this country." No later than last year, when our Government was reproaching the British for pelagic sealing, with its danger of exterminating the herds, we allowed the killing of 30,000 seals on the islands, which cannot but be regarded, experts say, as an "exhaustive slaughter." Instead, therefore, of bothering about England's intentions, we think our press and State Department should give their time to a careful reading of the reply of the Colonial Office to the Sherman despatch. There are some pretty serious exposures in it of the misleading statements, the garbling, the misquotations of the document to which Mr. Sherman put his name.

The meeting and resolutions of bankers in London will probably do the directors, and especially the Governor, of the Bank of England a world of good. It has long been well known that there was more or less private pressure being brought to bear on these gentlemen to "do something for silver," or be "friendly to silver," by certain members of the Government, who shrank from any open declaration of their sentiments and who were rigorously kept in check by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Sir M. Hicks Beach. None of them, indeed, blurts out much on the subject except Mr. Chaplin, who fulfils one condition of bimetallic soundness in being hopelessly insolvent. Social influence, too, which under this ministry is very powerful in English politics, has done some work for the ill-used metal, and it is very possible that the wretched Smith (the Bank's Governor) got into his present scrape partly through a desire to stand well with "smart people," without committing the Bank to anything in particular. The good shaking up he is now receiving from business people will probably cure him and compel him to lead a strictly business life. The Government has already done much for impoverished land-owners, in granting them $12,500,000 to help them to pay their taxes. To ask it to enable them to pay off their mortgages at 60 per cent. discount is asking too much. A good many bright minds are at work trying to find out what good it would do the Manchester men to have free coinage in India, and they will report their discoveries in due time. Lord Farrer has assured us that his researches have been vain.

Lord Farrer sends a letter to the London *Times* in which he says that he has information that "a proposal has been made to the British Government by the Wolcott Commission to reopen the Indian mints to silver on the understanding that the United States and France shall open their mints to silver at a ratio of 15½ to 1." If Mr. Wolcott and his associates have made such a proposal as this they have much exceeded their authority. If President McKinley has authorized them to make such a proposal he has much exceeded his authority. Moreover, there is not the least probability that Congress, the only competent authority, will ever open the mints to the free coinage of silver without the concurrent action of Germany and England as well as of France and her monetary allies of the Latin Union. When the English delegate to the Brussels conference, Mr. Alfred de Rothschild, proposed that the European Powers should join in an agreement to purchase £5,000,000 worth of silver yearly on condition that the United States should continue her purchases under the Sherman act, Mr. McCreary, in behalf of the United States, said that such a plan could not be accepted. At the Paris conference of 1881 a proposal similar in substance was laid on the table by the representative of Great Britain, and it was pronounced unacceptable by Mr. Thurman on the part of the United States, and by other bimetallists. Mr. Thurman said that no plan could be considered by the United States which would expose the country to alternate drains of silver and of gold, according as one or the other might be higher or lower in the market, *i. e.*, above or below the legal ratio. There is no sign of any change of public sentiment in this regard since the Brussels conference, nor do we believe that Congress would tolerate any scheme of bimetallism based upon the coöperation of France and India merely.

The bimetallic flirtation in London has called forth an article from the pen of M. Leroy-Beaulieu in the *Journal des Débats* protesting against the plan of plunging France into the financial chaos implied by opening her mint to the free coinage of silver, either with or without the company of the United States and India. He can understand how the United States might find an advantage in bimetallism, being a silver-producing country, and being also very little exposed to the chances of war. For France, however, which produces no silver and is under the necessity of keeping up heavy armaments all the time, it would be, he says, sheer madness to plunge into such a venture. Why? Because, in the event of a war, gold would be the only money available for war purposes. It is the only kind of money that "goes itself," the only kind that is universally acceptable, the only kind that needs no propping up by international conference. To open the mint to the free coinage of silver would expose France to the loss of her gold. If 15½ ounces of silver becomes the legal equivalent in France for one ounce of gold, a steady stream of silver will flow there to be exchanged for gold at that ratio, because the largest stock of gold in the world is either lodged in the Bank of France or is in circulation among the French people. That France should part with that gold and take silver in exchange for it is simply unthinkable. Ministries may be upset on that issue, but the thing never will be done.

Dickens's treasurer of a charitable society, who read his annual report of expenditures with a coughing-fit over the pounds but coming out clear and strong on the shillings and pence, has evidently been employed by the *Tribune* to explain in a Washington despatch how the "Deficit is Vanishing." The way it is vanishing is by growing larger. Only about $3,250,000 added to it in September, begins the despatch. Then deeper in, and in a much quieter voice, it is stated that the total Dingley deficit for the first quarter of the fiscal year will be only about $28,000,000. Then in a whispered aside the despatch goes on, "estimating the deficit for the next three months at $17,000,000." The added hint is given, quite inaudibly and mostly in pantomime, that there will be "exceptionally heavy" expenditures in January; but still, and here the news is trumpeted, "the Treasury officials confidently predict" that soon after the turn of the year the receipts will equal expenditures. In other words, they confidently predict that the fiscal year will close with a deficit of at least $45,000,000. That is the way it is "vanishing."

The announcement that Gov. Stephens of Missouri has received an unsolicited offer from New York capitalists to fund the entire debt of the State ($4,900,000) at 3 per cent. interest, instead of the 3½ now paid, is only one of many signs that the rate of interest in the West is falling and that all borrowers profit by it. The head of the State Insurance Department of Missouri, who has served as chief clerk of the State Treasurer, has recently placed a batch of $150,000 bonds of Calloway County at 4 per cent., and he insists that there is no reason why all the counties should not refund their bonds at the same rate instead of keeping on at 4½ or 5, as in most cases, or even 6, 8, and 10, as in some. The same tendency affects farm mortgages. The rates on such mortgages have been 7 or 8 per cent., but Gov. Stephens says that he knows of many cases where farmers are securing a reduction to 6 per cent. without any difficulty. This will "spike another gun" of the silverites, who have told the farmers that, no matter how much the prices of farm produce might fall, they still must keep on paying a high rate of interest on their mortgages.

A host of Western farmers will be able to do much better this year than merely to get a lower rate of interest on their mortgages. They will clear off their indebtedness entirely, and a large share of this class will take pains never to have any more interest to pay. The loan companies of the East find a great difference in this respect between the agricultural element in the West and in the South. As the agent of one such company puts it, "These Western borrowers want to clean up and get out of debt as soon as they find themselves able, while the Southerner will go on year after year paying interest as if it is a natural condition with him." The Southern farmer has been slower than the Western to resist the passion for increasing his holdings of land beyond all reason or profit, and while a good wheat crop will lead its raiser to pay off his mortgage, a good cotton crop will often result in the planter's using his profits to enlarge his plantation, without paying anything on the principal of his old debt. There are signs that the advantages of small holdings are coming to be recognized in the South, but the Eastern investor who seeks permanency in a loan will long find it more easily secured there than in the West.

The decision of Judge Foster of the United States District Court of Kansas in the case of Greer, Mills & Co. vs. the Kansas City Live Stock Exchange is a severe blow at the live-stock monopolies that have grown up at various points in the West. Greer, Mills & Co. are themselves members of the Exchange. One of the rules prohibits a member from transacting business with any person violating any rule of the Exchange, or with an expelled or suspended member. This rule, says the Judge, "in practice, as amply appears from the testimony of many witnesses, shuts out all dealings and business intercourse between members and non-members of the association." Greer, Mills & Co. attempted to do business with an outsider, and were boycotted and posted on a blackboard kept for the purpose of displaying the names of such persons. The Exchange numbers 300 members. "The outcome is inevitable," says the Judge; "the combined opposition of 300 men against one can produce but one result. In vain does the outside dealer offer attractive bargains for the sale or purchase of stock; they will have no intercourse with him. This state of affairs is known and circulated among stock-growers and shippers, and they dare not ship their stock to the boycotted broker or firm." Such boycotting is held to be in violation of the anti-Trust law of Congress, and in restraint of interstate commerce also. The effect of the decision is to dissolve the Exchange, since it can no longer enforce its policy of exclusion. Of course, an appeal will be taken, but meanwhile the Exchange must give bonds to compensate the plaintiffs for damage done to them by boycotting.

The first effective step toward the punishment of lynching that we have noticed in any part of the country has been taken in Georgia. Some time ago a white man and a negro were arrested on charges of murder, and while they were in jail at Jonesboro a mob gathered one night and demanded that the Sheriff surrender his prisoners. Fortunately, that official had been warned in time to summon a large guard, and he was able to protect the prisoners until he could take them to Atlanta the next day. Although this was a case where lynching had been only attempted, not accomplished, the authorities resolved to bring to justice those who had sought to break the laws, and the grand jury has just found true bills against eight men who are charged with conspiracy to lynch. Of course, it still remains to try and convict them, but it is a great gain to get such offenders indicted. Even this step has not been taken in the case of any of the leaders of the mob who lynched a negro in the most barbarous manner a few months ago at Urbana, O. And yet that Northern community, with its dozen churches, its excellent private and public schools, its public library, and its university, doubtless considers itself much further advanced in civilization than Clayton County, Ga.

An equally encouraging sign of the times in the South is the attitude taken by the Sheriff of Palo Pinto County, Tex. A band of so-called "regulators" served notice on certain peaceable and law-abiding colored citizens that they must leave the county. No reason was assigned except the fact that they were "niggers," and that the white ruffians did not want to have them around. The "regulators" claimed to be 117 strong, and defied the authorities. But they soon found that the Sheriff was not the sort of man to be intimidated by their threats of vengeance in case they should be interfered with. He immediately issued a proclamation defying them, in which he said: "I recognize the right of an American to live in the home of his choice as one of the dearest privileges of an American citizen, and I know my duty is to protect them, and I will perform it." Similar outbreaks by "regulators" against the negroes of Fannin and Johnson Counties were met in the same spirit by the sheriffs of those counties. A pleasant sequel to this action by white officials was the holding of a mass meeting of colored people at Dallas, which adopted resolutions setting forth the injury done their race by the "regulators," many having been frightened from their homes by the threats and others kept in constant fear, expressing "the sincerest appreciation of the sheriffs and other officials and good white citizens who have denounced this outrage on the colored people," and declaring that "this course has had the effect of still further increasing the confidence of the colored people as to just treatment by the whites, and of determining them to improved and higher relations and to arouse in them greater desire to help have all the laws obeyed."

Peace is concluded between Turkey and Greece, or appears to be concluded, but Lord Salisbury cannot adopt Disraeli's grandiloquent phrase after the Berlin Congress, and say that he has brought back peace with honor. Lest there should be any misunderstanding of what has occurred, Mr. Gladstone is out with a biting characterization of "the pain, shame, and mischief of the last two years in the Eastern policy." He sums up the results as: (1) The slaughter of 100,000 Armenians, with no security against a repetition; (2) Turkey stronger than at any time since the Crimean war; (3) Greece weaker than at any time since she became a kingdom. All this, says Mr. Gladstone, is the proud achievement of the European Concert, which he happily defines as no concert at all, but "the mutual hatred and distrust of the Powers." The truth is, as Lord Salisbury's supporters are forced to confess, he has been driven by the Concert or the Sultan from nearly every position which he had publicly announced to be unalterable. The scene of operations is now transferred to Crete, where the Sultan is already preparing fresh humiliation for the British Premier.

THE DISCRIMINATING-DUTY CLAUSE.

The decision of the Attorney-General which annuls the discriminating duty in section 22 of the Dingley tariff act, whether sound in law or not, has probably saved the Republican party from deserved punishment for a rascally trick in legislation. It has certainly saved the country from serious complications with other maritime Powers. The opinion, we must admit, is not very intelligible. It is extremely obscure in its phraseology. Confusion of language usually springs from confusion of ideas. Yet it is possible to disentangle ideas from the words, and when this is done a substratum of common sense can be discerned. This substratum is found at the conclusion of the opinion, where the Attorney-General lays down the maxim that a law of Congress cannot be repealed by inference, but only by words appropriate to the end and as clear as those of the law to be repealed.

Section 22 of the Dingley act contains two entirely different provisions which are patched together in a clumsy way. As originally reported and passed by the House, it was the old proviso which has appeared and reappeared in numerous tariff bills. Prior to the Dingley act it read as follows, being section 14 of the Wilson tariff:

"That a discriminating duty of ten per centum ad valorem, in addition to the duties imposed by law, shall be levied, collected, and paid on all goods, wares, or merchandise which shall be imported in vessels not of the United States; but this discriminating duty shall not apply to goods, wares, and merchandise which shall be imported in vessels, not of the United States, entitled, by treaty or any act of Congress, to be entered in the ports of the United States on payment of the same duties as shall then be paid on goods, wares, and merchandise imported in vessels of the United States."

The first amendment to this section was made in the Senate, where Senator Allison moved to strike out the words "or any act of Congress." Mr. Allison had charge of the bill, and his motion was agreed to *nem. con.* The object of striking out these words was not perceived until after the bill had become a law. Then it was discovered that the aim was to impose a discriminating duty of 10 per cent. on all goods imported in foreign ships, except in cases where a treaty obligation would be violated thereby. Very few Senators could be expected to carry in their minds our navigation treaties with foreign countries, or to remember the various acts of Congress supplementary thereto, or to recall the history of our navigation laws.

The truth was, that as long ago as 1828 we had adopted the policy of admitting goods in the ships of foreign countries at the same rate of duty as those in American ships, provided those countries observed the same rule toward us. In other words, we had adopted the principle of reciprocity in the carrying trade. The act of Congress which embodied the principle was section 4228 of the Revised Statutes, which provides that upon satisfactory proof being given to the President by the Government of any foreign nation that no discriminating duties are imposed by it on ships or cargoes belonging to citizens of the United States, whether the cargoes are of domestic or foreign origin, the President may issue his proclamation applying the same principles to the ships and cargoes of such foreign nation. This is the law which was evidently intended to be repealed by dropping the words "or any act of Congress." So we are informed by the weekly paper *Seaboard*, edited by the Secretary of Mr. Arthur Sewall's Merchant Marine Association, which exists for the sole purpose of getting discriminating duties in favor of American ships enacted. This paper says:

"It was feared by the Republican leaders in Congress that to attempt to restore the policy of discriminating duties fully in the new tariff bill might cause the defeat of the bill. Hence, it was not attempted. But the Elkins bill providing for the restoration of the discriminating-duty policy was condensed as much as possible and incorporated in the tariff bill as section 22—all except the part which abrogated treaties exempting imports from the discriminating duty. This was purposely done, so as to facilitate at a future time the passage of such a measure as would fully restore the discriminating-duty policy, by abrogating such treaties as stood in the way of that restoration. In accordance with this purpose, the words 'by any act of Congress' were left out, because it was not the desire or intention of Congress that any act of Congress—but treaty or convention alone—should any longer entitle any imports to exemption from the discriminating duty. That having been the objective, and that being the accomplished fact, how can it be said that this was not intended?"

This is clearly an admission that an attempt was made to secure the adoption of a new policy in regard to an important matter by stealth, since otherwise there would be no reason for going about it in this slovenly, hap-hazard way, not knowing what treaties on this subject were in force or what would be the general effect of the repeal of section 4228, Revised Statutes. The Attorney-General tells us that on the same day that the Dingley act was passed, another law was passed on the subject of tonnage duties which recognized section 4228 as still in force—which rebuts the presumption that Congress intended to repeal it by inference.

Section 22 of the Dingley act contained another clause which was introduced at a later period in the committee of conference, and was intended to put a discriminating duty of 10 per cent. on foreign goods brought through Canada into the United States. On this point the opinion of the Attorney-General is not so clear as it is on the other. That an excellent law cannot be repealed by a mere inference is a sound proposition. Section 22 of the Dingley act must be read as though the section 4228, Revised Statutes, were still in full force, and, according to Dingley himself, the other clause in reference to Canadian railroads was inserted to carry out the principle embodied in the supposed repeal of section 4228. The Attorney-General holds that since the latter section is not repealed, the Canadian clause is of no effect. But this does not necessarily follow. There may be a debate on this subject when Congress assembles in December, but we should advise the parties who are responsible for the discriminating-duty clause to adopt the policy of modest silence and humility. The best thing for them is to turn the thoughts of Congress and the country into widely variant channels. "Least said soonest mended," should be their motto.

Meanwhile there is a general expression of surprise among intelligent people at the obscurity of the Attorney-General's opinion, in view of the fact that, though he is not well known to the nation, he has an excellent reputation on the Pacific Coast, and has served with credit as United States Circuit Judge. The Washington correspondent of the Philadelphia *Ledger* makes a statement that Mr. McKenna originally reached the conclusion that the section in dispute plainly imposed discriminating duties, and that, if he had been left to himself, the opinion put forth would have been to that effect; but that "representations were made to the President that such a decision would seriously affect political as well as commercial interests in New England," and that, after a discussion in the cabinet, the Attorney-General was required, against his vigorous protest, to change the opinion, in order "to meet the political demands of a geographical section." This theory accounts for the confused reasoning of the decision, but it involves a moral delinquency of the gravest character.

The sharpest critic of the Attorney-General is Steve Elkins. The West Virginia Senator ridicules the reasoning of the opinion, and announces his determination to renew his efforts at the next session of Congress to secure the passage of a bill which will impose the discriminating duties in unmistakable terms. Mr. Elkins is entirely justified in criticising the Attorney-General's arguments and in organizing a movement to secure openly, after due consideration, the legislation which he seeks. But he does not stop here. With almost inconceivable audacity, he confesses to the country that he was responsible for the section which, as Speaker Reed puts it, "slipped into the bill," and that he smuggled it in because that was the easiest way of accomplishing his purpose. Did ever a United States Senator boast of a worse performance than this:

"I am not ashamed of the part I have played; I am proud of it. The section would have meant for the ocean what the tariff meant for the land. I think it was Ameri-

can, and for that reason I pushed it. This country is bound to be the mistress of the seas just as soon as we get time to attend to it. I wanted to hurry it along. There was no trick about it at all. *I simply worked to succeed. Of course, I was not going to tell those opposed to the scheme all about it.*"

THE CANADIAN TARIFF.

Our neighbors on the north have apparently taken a leaf out of the McKinley tariff in framing a new fiscal policy for themselves, but have improved upon their model in some slight degree. It will be recalled that when the late Mr. Blaine went to the room of the finance committee in the interest of reciprocity, and denounced the McKinley bill and smashed his hat on the table, declaring that it would not make a market for an additional bushel of wheat or barrel of pork for the American farmer, the astute Mr. Aldrich prepared a scheme for reciprocal trade which was eventually incorporated in the bill. It provided that whenever and as often as the President should be satisfied that any country exporting tea, coffee, raw sugar, and raw hides to the United States, which articles were made duty free by the bill, was imposing duties on exports from this country which were reciprocally unfair and unjust, then he might by proclamation impose duties at fixed rates on such articles arriving at our ports from those countries. Here the principle of differential duties as regards different countries, to be determined and regulated by the executive branch of the government, was embodied in our law for the first time. We had had reciprocity treaties before, but the terms had always been embodied in the law of Congress. Now we had adopted the principle of a general tariff, with exceptions in favor of or against particular countries, according as those countries might treat us.

The new Canadian system is very ingenious and quite in accord with the McKinley precedent. As explained in the last number of the *Economic Journal* (of London), it consists first of a general tariff, and second of an offer of a reduction of one-eighth of the duties to any country which admits Canadian products on as favorable terms as Canada offers to them. This offer holds good till June 30, 1898. After that date the reduction is to be equal to one-fourth. The offer is not restricted to Great Britain or the British colonies. If Germany, for example, should admit Canadian products at as low rates as Canada admits German products, Germany would receive as good terms as England does, although the latter admits Canadian products free. A few articles upon which duties are imposed for revenue and not for protection are excluded, viz.: alcoholic liquors, sugar, and tobacco.

Another clause of the Canadian tariff is significant at the present time and is well worthy of imitation by us. It provides that whenever the executive branch of the government shall be satisfied that any article is monopolized by a Trust or combination, it shall have power to abolish all duties on the article so monopolized. This is a great step in advance of anything in our legislation. It is a real protection to the people against monopoly, whereas our anti-Trust laws are a sham. The virtue of the Canadian law lies in the fact that it is self-executing, whereas ours cannot be executed by all the powers of the federal and State governments combined. Although Senator Sherman declared more than once that every shred of protection ought to be removed from any article produced by a Trust or combine, neither he nor any other Republican Senator ever offered a bill to carry that plan into effect. The truth is that the Republican party dares not offend the monopolies which its own tariff laws have created. It is pursued and devoured by its own monsters.

The effect of the new Canadian tariff will be to put the United States at a disadvantage of 12½ per cent. as compared with Great Britain in the sale of manufactures to Canada. This may not countervail the advantage we enjoy in the way of nearness. Freight charges and loss of time are elements of cost to the Canadian importers. These can hardly be less than 12½ per cent. in the kinds of goods which we habitually sell to them. But next year the differential will be 25 per cent., and then we shall begin to lose trade in that quarter. We may make it up in other parts of the world, but with the Dingley tariff serving to stir up hostility everywhere, it is difficult to see where we shall gain anything. We have deliberately adopted the policy of curtailing foreign trade and irritating other nations. In so far as we succeed in "making foreigners mad," in so far does protection justify itself to its advocates. One of the most potent and oft-repeated arguments in favor of the clandestine clause in the Dingley bill which aimed to cut off imports by way of the Canadian Pacific Railway was that it would make the Canucks furious. Jingoism and protectionism are close allies. They act and react upon each other, for ever breathing hate, malice, and all uncharitableness.

The Canadian tariff is the more exasperating because we can avoid its consequences by our own act at any time. If we want to recover our position as sellers in their market, all that we need to do is to make our tariff as low on their products as theirs is on our products. We need not adopt free trade with them. It would be quite sufficient if we should go back to the Morrill tariff —the tariff of the war period, when we were taxing everything in order to save the nation's life. We have gone so far beyond Mr. Morrill now that we even impose duties that we do not want and that nobody asks for—duties on articles that we export—duties neither for protection nor for revenue, but merely to deceive our own agricultural classes and keep them submissive to the plunder of the Trusts and combines which prey upon them. If there is anything that we could easily dispense with, and should never miss, it is the tariff on Canadian farm products.

A USEFUL COMPARISON.

Tammany has such a bad name that a great many people naturally think that the worst thing which can befall the city is the triumph of the Tammany candidate for the mayoralty. At the risk of seeming to be paradoxical, however, we venture to assert that the worst thing which can befall this city and State is the perpetuation of the Platt system of government and political management, by whatever name we choose to call it. The personnel of Tammany is so brutal, ignorant, debased, corrupt, that its *full* rule, such as prevailed between 1889 and 1894, can hardly in any civilized community prevail very long. The first experience New York ever had of complete Tammany sway was under Grant and Gilroy, and we saw the result. After three terms of it men of all parties joined in putting an end to it, not simply for the sake of good government, but of decency and civilization. The use it made of the police bench, for instance, was one of the most striking scandals in modern days.

Now this sort of régime in our time cannot be very demoralizing. The man who says openly, "Evil, be thou my good," is never a very dangerous man. The man who beats his wife, gets drunk every night, and sends his children to steal, never sets a very bad example or shakes many people's faith in justice and order and law. He is generally a warning, not an example. The tales of horror, therefore, which were unfolded every day during the police investigation, had but little effect on public opinion, except to rouse shame and remorse over the tolerance and even support which had once been given to such creatures as Grant and Gilroy. We may be quite sure that the same thing would occur again. Four years more of Tammany would be a terrible calamity for our city, but it would nourish, not destroy, the seeds of better things. Tammany rule is a thing which provides its own cure by its monstrosity. It compels even the most hardened and cynical of those who do not profit by it, to take arms for social order, and proclaim by their votes their belief in a moral government of the world.

The Platt régime is very different. Platt is not a brutal Irish ex-prize-fighter or saloonkeeper. He is an American, who spent two years in Yale College, and has actually received an honorary degree from it. He is a Presbyterian, has a pew in a church, and a pastor to whitewash him and back him up. With

these advantages he deliberately set to work some years ago to pervert the government of this State from the sort of government which its written Constitution provides for, into something entirely different, pervaded from top to bottom by the two things freemen most abhor — secrecy and corruption. By means of a fund secretly raised as blackmail, he makes a nominating convention the expression of his, not of the popular will; he fills all the offices of the State with his creatures and not with qualified public servants, and offers steady but private opposition to all attempts to better the State, which he has not originated and does not control. Finally, he has taken legislation out of the hands of the Legislature in which the Constitution placed it, and frames it in his own office to suit his own purposes. In fact, he has effected a change in the government of New York which was never before effected in any country except by armed force. If this be a tribute to his ability he is welcome to it.

Now he has been enabled to do all this by disguising himself and his followers as what are called "Republicans." He gives out that he is doing it, not for his own sake, but in order to exert influence on the currency, Hawaii, and the tariff, especially the tariff; and he gets thousands and tens of thousands to believe him. Not only do they believe him, but they believe him so much that they agree, in order to help him, to put their police, their schools, their hospitals, and their taxes into the hands of such men as Charles Murray, Mike Kerwin, and Lem Quigg, and with permission to do what they please with them, as long as what they do is done for "Republican principles." What "Republican principles" are in the government of a city nobody knows but Quigg, and he never tells. What is the "Republican" way of sweeping a street, arresting a thief, or teaching a child to read, has never come out, and the only reason for believing that there is such a way is that Platt says so.

At this moment he is bitterly opposing a body of citizens who, whatever their faults, have confessedly only one object in view, the improvement of the city, not as a voting-place, but as a dwelling-place. And such is the effect on the imagination of a great many decent people, not tramps, not bummers, not fences, not saloonkeepers, not gamblers, but merchants, lawyers, brokers, artisans, of the "Republican principles," that they are ready to support this man in changing their government in city and State, and founding on the ruins of the old Constitution a despotism which for meanness, baseness, rascality, and decrepitude, for the discouragement of honesty, ability, for everything but cruelty, has had no parallel in the Western world. To find a match for it in pure shabbiness, we must go among the more indecent and harem-ridden Orientals. A man who can do this, who has done it, we call a dangerous man. We say it is ludicrous to compare him to Croker, or Tweed, or Kelly, or Sheehan. He does more harm in a week than they do in ten years. They rob and bribe and are filthy and ignorant, but they do not corrupt the soul of decent Americans. They disgust them. Does any one, for instance, suppose that ten years ago—aye, even five years ago—a man of Gen. Tracy's standing, an ex-cabinet minister, a leader of the bar, a man whose career has shown that he cherished high ideals through life, would have allowed his name to be used to help this man in conspiring for the defeat or obstruction of an honest effort of honest people to make their city a more beautiful and comfortable place of abode? We believe he would have repelled the suggestion with scorn, and yet he is out today as a Platt candidate, for "Republican principles," and thousands of respectable men are glad of it.

It must be borne in mind that the contest in which we are engaged is not a contest between two opposing schemes of city improvement. Platt has no scheme of city improvement at all. He does not propose to do anything for it except govern it on "Republican principles." "His accounts may not be straight, but his heart beats warmly for his native land." "He loves his country and his home, but he cannot live on wind." In short, he wants the city, wants us all, to submit to Tammany, or any sort of government that may overtake us, in order that he may "name" Governors and legislators, may draft legislation, levy blackmail on corporations, and sit sanctimoniously in his pew at church instead of joining Croker in a bar or a stable or a gambling-house.

AN INJUNCTION SYMPOSIUM.

The Chicago *Times-Herald* has made a curious contribution to the discussion about strike injunctions, by publishing a number of replies by "eminent jurists and prominent laymen" to four questions propounded by its editor. The questions were: "(1.) What are your views on the power and practice of courts in issuing injunctions in labor disputes? (2.) How is such power derived, and is it misused? (3.) Do injunctions interfere with the constitutional guarantee of trial by jury? (4.) Should Congress specifically define and limit the power of courts in issuing injunctions?" The answers obtained, if carefully examined, throw some light on the subject, but it is evident from the way in which they have been discussed by the press generally that they are not illuminating to the wayfaring man. The usual way of analyzing them seems to be to count up the number of eminent jurists and prominent laymen who think well of injunctions, and to offset them by the others who think ill of injunctions, and then to say, "There you are"—a process which cannot be thought to advance matters.

The value of such a symposium as this is seriously impaired by a fact which does not appear on the surface, viz., that those who are most competent to throw light on the matter—the judges of the highest repute—are precisely those who are restrained, by considerations of propriety, from answering newspaper inquiries. The necessary result is that the answers actually obtained, so far as they come from judges, are sent in by men of merely local and in some cases doubtful note, and whose opinion is of little consequence one way or the other. As a rule, the readiness with which a judge writes to the newspapers giving his "views" about questions which may come before him for decision, is in inverse ratio to the weight of his authority. That most of the judges whose replies have been obtained in this case are not great lights is made clear by the nature of their replies. The most curious thing in the whole symposium is that one only of the symposiasts, President Rogers of the Northwestern University, shows that he is distinctly aware of the fact that at least three-quarters of the questions put have been disposed of and left where they are beyond question by the unanimous opinion of nine far more eminent jurists than any whose replies are now published—jurists, moreover, whose opinions are enforced by the whole civil power of the United States.

Down to the year 1895 there was, no doubt, considerable difference of judicial opinion as to the proper use of injunctions in labor disputes, and it was an open question whether organized demonstrations, assemblages, trespasses, and interferences with property rights designed to promote a strike and calculated to lead to irreparable damage, but not necessarily producing violence or riot, could be enjoined, or whether they were solely within the province of the criminal law and the general police power. The matter came before the Supreme Court of the United States in the Debs case in 1895, was fully considered there, and was decided in an opinion delivered by Justice Brewer and concurred in by every judge on the bench. This judgment was reported in the regular series of reports (158 U. S. 564), and has been accessible to the public for two years; and if anybody wants to know what the law actually is about strike injunctions, the place to find it is not in his own head, nor in the "views" of other judges, but in this decision.

The law, then, as laid down by the Supreme Court, was substantially this: Wherever a strike agitation takes the form of serious, practical danger of ir-

reparable injury to property rights, an equity judge must enjoin, not the strike or the agitation, but the specific acts out of which the danger grows. His injunction he must enforce by all the power at his command; arrest, followed by fine and imprisonment after hearing, being the recognized method. The fact that the acts are criminal in their character was held to have no bearing on the question, and it was further decided that there was no invasion of the constitutional right of trial by jury (p. 594). The decision is, no doubt, binding only on federal courts, but no one can read it without seeing that the principles laid down are general principles of preventive relief, and that there is nothing peculiarly federal about the grounds on which it is made to rest. If any more proof were wanted, it might be furnished by the history of the recent coal strikes, during which the principles of the Debs case have been generally followed by the judiciary, federal and State.

The Debs case, then, answers conclusively the following questions: What is the law of strike injunctions? What is the power and practice of courts in issuing them? Whence is such power derived? Do such injunctions interfere with the constitutional guarantee of trial by jury? The case is of the first importance, because if the power is misused or liable to lead to abuse, the remaining question is, What is the remedy?

On this point the Debs case throws no light; but the Constitution of the United States (art. iii., sec. 2) provides that the judicial power shall extend to all cases "in law and equity" arising under this Constitution, and it is from this clause that federal courts get their jurisdiction to issue strike injunctions, as well as the power to enforce them by contempt proceedings. It is at least very doubtful whether Congress has any power under this clause to define and limit the power of courts in issuing injunctions, and the same remark applies to the summary power to enforce injunctions by contempt proceedings, without which injunctions would be waste paper. The enormous difficulty of suggesting any practical change in the law may be inferred from the fact that, although Senator Hill got a report from the Senate judiciary committee, a year or more ago, in favor of novel machinery affecting the judicial power to enforce decrees by contempt proceedings, his bill was found to threaten such a paralysis of the courts that it has not been heard of since.

Without going into the question, therefore, of whether legislation by Congress is or is not advisable, the points for practical men, and especially editors and politicians, to bear in mind are (1) that the law of the matter is perfectly well settled, no substantial difference of judicial opinion existing about it; (2) that if legislation is desired, some way must be found not yet suggested of overcoming the constitutional obstacles in the way; and (3) that the constitutionality of any legislative attempt to hamper the equity powers of courts or to curtail their summary power to enforce their own decrees, is a matter which can be finally decided only by the courts affected.

Another practical point about the present use of injunctions in strikes, which ought to be borne in mind, is the question of the alternative. In the Debs case the court commended the Government for asking for an injunction, instead of deciding the case for itself and calling in the police and military. At the time we took the opposite view, and expressed the opinion that efficient police measures were what the case demanded. But to nine out of ten of those who denounce "government by injunction" one alternative is as odious as the other. The essence of a strike agitation, as carried on by men such as Debs and the leaders of the coal strike this summer, is a terrorism ruinous to property and to freedom; and to men engaged in this work one sort of prevention is just as bad as another. There would be something, in fact, rather comical in a man insisting on his right to be policed, but denouncing an injunction as tyrannous, if we did not know that his real reason was apt to be a doubt as to the efficiency of the police. It is only twenty-five years since the corporations could deal with strikes only by hiring a sort of private constabulary furnished by a "detective agency" for the occasion. Injunctions issued and enforced by regular courts are better than this; and so, in the fulness of time, we may get beyond government by injunction, and rely, as other civilized communities mainly do, on the police. But injunctions will never be given up till we get something better. As John M. Palmer modestly says, "Speaking for myself, I prefer a government by injunction to anarchy."

THE BRITISH ASSOCIATION AT TORONTO.—II.

QUEBEC, September 6, 1897.

It would not be in place to report the details of the work of the sections of the Association in this journal. It may be in order, however, to note the sciences represented, seeing that a very broad and liberal meaning is given to the word Science. The sections, with their respective Presidents for the Toronto meeting (corresponding with the sectional Vice-Presidents of the American Association), are as follows: Mathematical and Physical Science, Prof. A. R. Forsyth (a very large section, taking in meteorology, seismology, etc.); Chemistry, Prof. W. Ramsay; Geology, Dr. G. M. Dawson; Zoölogy, Prof. L. C. Miall; Geography, J. Scott Keltie; Economic Science and Statistics, Prof. E. C. K. Gonner (in his absence, Sir Charles Freemantle); Mechanical Science, G. F. Deacon; Anthropology, Sir William Turner; Physiology, Prof. Michael Foster; Botany, Prof. H. Marshall Ward. The presence in this list of Economic Science and Statistics, as well as that of Anthropology, will be noticed. The last is given especial recognition this year in the person of Sir John Evans,* the President, a man who is without university connection or even university training. There is a movement toward the recognition of Psychology in the British Association; it took this year the form of a sort of sub-section of the section of Physiology—a classification to be expected in England, where experimental psychology proper is hardly known. It is through the interest of Prof. Michael Foster that so much was done; and it is a pity that the American psychologists did not come up in greater force and show what American psychology is doing. Possibly the classing of psychology under anthropology, as in the American Association, is preferable; but why should it not be given its own name and an independent place? No doubt a great step toward this end is made in the recognition of psychology, simply as such, in the Royal Society's scheme for the bibliography of science, to go into operation in 1900.

The features of most interest to the public at these meetings are the presidents' addresses and the popular evening lectures. Of these at this meeting the latter were, I think, disappointing. Prof. J. Milne lectured on "Earthquakes and Volcanoes" in a discursive and very popular manner. Sir Roberts Austen's lecture on "Canada's Metals" was well spoken of. I have no intelligence of the impression made by H. O. Forbes's lecture on Borneo for the workingmen, except that the class for whom it was intended did not largely attend—a common thing also in England, as I was informed. The presidents' addresses were, of course, of the high character to be expected from the men who delivered them. That of Prof. Foster was a broad survey of physiological progress since the last meeting in Canada in 1884. Among his points of emphasis, the one which especially interested the present writer was his optimistic prophecy of the probably rapid advance of brain anatomy and physiology by the method of Golgi. His description of the revolution wrought by Golgi's method, in the hands of Ramón y Cajal and others, painted upon the background of the obscurity which reigned in this realm before, was remarkably vivid and interesting. May his optimism be justified by the result! The literary charm and freshness of Prof. Foster's address were universally remarked.

Sir William Turner's address on "Some Distinctive Characters of Human Structure" dealt especially with the curvature of the human spine as compared with that of the anthropoids, and served to show the utility of the curvature with reference to upright walking. It is a useful summary of results in its field. The remarks upon the brain, however, with which he extended a paper already too long, were necessarily neither exhaustive nor critical, and readers who are acquainted with the work of Flechsig, to which Sir William referred, will wish that he had left the matter over for a separate paper. The other addresses of the presidents of sections, which fell

* Similar recognition of anthropology was made at the Detroit meeting of the American Association by the election of Prof. Putnam to the presidency of that body.

within the present writer's interests, were that of Prof. Miall on "Transformations of Animals" and that of Prof. Forsyth on the general value of mathematics. The latter can be read by people of intelligence generally who love what is clear when it is attractively presented. The President of the Association lectured on "Primitive Man." His address having already appeared on this side of the water in *Science*, I need not do more than refer readers to it in that periodical. It may also be obtained bound up in paper with the addresses of the sectional presidents (London: Offices of the Association, Burlington House. Price, 1 shilling.)

Of the sectional proceedings it is not in place here to speak. There were no sensations, it seems, unless the physicists so count their enthusiastic reception of the new Harmonic Analyser of Prof. Michelson of Chicago. The impression prevailed that the work was up to the usual level in quantity and quality, some of the sections, indeed (notably those of Physical Science and Physiology), having more papers than the time sufficed to accommodate. Among the "Reports" adopted were two which are likely to lead to important results. One was a recommendation to the home Government in favor of the establishing of a national physical laboratory, and the other a similar report urging the founding of a bureau of ethnology for England and the colonies, possibly in connection with the British Museum. A grant was made to assist the project of a lake biological station in Canada.

In conclusion, another general word. It must be a source of gratification to all workers in science in this country that this great body of our kinsmen has been in session so near our doors, traversing (not a few of them) our country, and becoming acquainted with our universities and teachers. It is to be hoped that the interests of science will be advanced, and it is also to be hoped—perhaps more earnestly, because the need is greater—that these men will use their influence in spreading in all three of the countries from which they came assurances that the political and social interests of our Anglo-American life are one as the interests of science are one.

J. M. B.

INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF ORIENTALISTS.

PARIS, September 10, 1897.

The number of Oriental scholars and of those who are interested in Eastern research is larger, perhaps, than might be supposed; and as the diplomatic and commercial relations between the East and the West daily grow closer, an International Congress of Orientalists is an incident not without importance. Such gatherings have been held every third year during the last quarter of a century, and Paris is the city that was selected for the eleventh Oriental Congress, which takes place this year, September 5-12. The halls of the Collège de France and of the Sorbonne are the scene of the scientific sessions; the Congress is under the patronage of the President of the French republic; and M. Charles Schefer, Administrator of the School of Modern Oriental Languages of Paris, is the presiding officer. Prof. Maspero, the Egyptologist, and Prof. Cordier, the Chinese scholar, have charge of affairs as secretaries of the Congress.

Oriental scholars from various lands have laid aside their books for a time, and have bidden adieu to their libraries, to assemble in France and meet their colleagues in kindred fields, in order either to discuss their common work or to gain advantage from travellers or diplomatists whose paths have led to the region of the rising sun. India and Persia, Egypt and the Levant, China and Japan, Australia and the far East, as well as the remote parts of Africa, are represented both by men busied in research into the history and civilization of these countries, and also by natives whose Eastern costume lends a certain charm in contrast to the Western scholar's dress. Among the Americans are President William R. Harper of the University of Chicago, Prof. George S. Goodspeed, Prof. Paul Haupt of the Johns Hopkins University, Prof. R. W. Rogers, New Jersey; Prof. Morris Jastrow, jr., Philadelphia; Prof. Hans Oertel of New Haven, and Prof. A. V. W. Jackson of New York. Special inquiries are made for Profs. C. R. Lanman, M. Bloomfield, and C. H. Toy, who were named as delegates, as well as for other American scholars who were prevented from being present.

The general attendance is larger than at any preceding Oriental Congress. Some of those present have come to offer the results of their latest finds in the way of manuscripts or of archæological treasures; others have contributions to add to the fund of knowledge of Bible lands; several can fill in missing paragraphs in the pages of ancient history; a number have suggestions to make which may prove serviceable in the future in dealing with special questions of Eastern life and civilization; one or two are in position to point out important corrections to be made in our ancient maps, or to corroborate identifications of localities on our modern charts. All are able to lend some help toward improving our acquaintance with the languages of the other hemisphere, or to give some aid which enables us better to understand the significance of the past with respect to the present.

The division devoted to India and its history is presided over by an Englishman, Lord Reay, and the opening session of the section was marked by an interesting essay in which Prof. H. Oldenberg of Kiel, Germany, showed how brilliantly the French critic Taine had presented to the public the essential features of Buddhism, in an article published years ago. The most important, however, of the communications made in this section was the presentation of a plan, proposed by M. Senart of Paris, for establishing a fund for exploration in India, similar to the Egyptian Exploration Fund. In the Iranian division, Prof. Jules Oppert discussed the ancient Persian calendar of King Darius, which he believed must have originated more than a thousand years before the Christian era. In the linguistic department, the French philologist M. Bréal proposed a new explanation of the Greek adjective *sophos*, 'wise,' the original meaning of which seemed to be 'sweet.'

Numerous sessions were held by special savants in the wisdom of China, Japan, and the Far East, and students of the ceramic art might possibly have gleaned interesting information from Dr. F. Hirth's dissertation on the early history of pictorial art in China. The Munich professor's long residence in the Celestial Empire enables him to speak with authority on special Chinese subjects. Arabic scholars and missionaries will be glad to learn that Prof. I. Goldziher of Budapest has completed the plan for publishing a great Mussulman Encyclopædia, and Prof. Ehrmann of Berlin has arranged to bring out a dictionary of the hieroglyphic writings of Ancient Egypt. This latter important work is to receive substantial support through the liberality of the German Government.

The meetings of the Semitic section were especially well attended, and the members had something to learn from the scholarly and spirited discussions of Profs. Haupt of Baltimore, Hommel of Munich, Halévy of Paris, when Hebrew and Assyrian questions came up for debate. The section devoted to Greece and the Orient enjoyed an interesting paper from Franz Cumont on the early worship of the Persian god Ormazd in Asia Minor. Among the topics announced in the African division was an ethnographic communication by M. Rey de Morande, on the primitive negroes and their ancestors; there were also a number of monographs presented which deal with the folk-lore of the East. When the printed Transactions of the Congress appear, they will be found to contain, besides, numerous contributions to the particular field of the science of religion or in the comparative study of Oriental literature; among these might be mentioned contributions by the English scholar Rhys Davids and by the Swiss investigator Eduard Hardy.

But the Orientalists do not merely meet for conference and discussion within the lecture-rooms of the Collège de France and of the Sorbonne; the circles of French literary society have thrown open their salons by tendering formal receptions to the visitors or by extending private invitations of hospitality. On Monday evening, M. Rambaud, Minister of Public Instruction, formally welcomed the representatives of various lands. On Wednesday evening, Prince Roland Bonaparte kindly greeted each visitor to his palatial residence, whose spacious walls recall, amid republican times, the days of the First Empire. One of the pleasures of the evening was a visit to the Prince's private library, which contains a famous collection of works on folk-lore and dialects, even more diversified than the polyglot and polyethnic assembly, his welcome guests. To-morrow the distinguished Indianist M. Senart and Mme. Senart expect similarly to entertain the representatives of Oriental studies. The social side is thus brought into happy harmony with the scientific side of the Congress, and the members are given a better opportunity of becoming personally acquainted and of feeling in closer contact than is possible through pages of long volumes of research.

There still remain two days for the presentation of learned disquisitions and for the friendly interchange of ideas; the Congress will formally close with a banquet on Saturday evening, September 12. The next international meeting of Orientalists will be held in the year 1900, the place of meeting to be decided upon before the members now disperse; the eleventh Congress at Paris, however, will certainly remain one long to be remembered.

A. V. WILLIAMS JACKSON.

FIRST IMPRESSIONS OF THE HAWAIIAN ISLANDS.

HONOLULU, August 29, 1897.

As the steamer draws near to Honoluiu, the traveller on board is struck with the beauty of the scene before him. Indeed, a seaport with mountains in the background can hardly fail to be beautiful from without, particularly if the line of the coast be jagged; and here, to add to the effect, we have the wondrous green of tropical vegetation breaking the mass of the houses, and forming the rich transition between the town itself and the bare mountain tops behind. The shipping in the foreground adds to the picturesqueness, as well as to the interest, even if the artist would not find much to admire in the Japanese man-of-war *Naniwa* and the American *Philadelphia* and *Marion* resting grimly near each other. Although the port is safe enough from trade winds, but for the reef it would not be well sheltered, in marked contrast to the almost land-locked Pearl Harbor a few miles away.

Honolulu, we can see at a glance, is a well-kept and thriving place. The roads and sidewalks are in good order, the crowds are busy, and several of the buildings are new and substantial. A little further inspection shows us that there is a large number of dwelling houses whose owners must be well-to-do; in fact, people are making money here, and there are many who would have little to complain of with existence were it not for the worries of politics. In the streets we see plenty of variety among the passers-by. The Europeans and Americans, whose white clothes remind us that we are in the tropics, though the absence of the sun-helmet proves that the heat cannot be intense, are the upper class, the business and professional men, the owners of the large stores and the employers of labor. It is true that the Portuguese, by far the most numerous of the people of European blood, still, for the most part, have modest occupations, such as market gardening, but they are to be found in the suburbs rather than in the heart of the city, and they are not always easy to distinguish at first sight from the half-breed Hawaiian.

The stranger looks with especial interest at the natives, the former masters and owners of these islands, now dwindling as rapidly in numbers as in importance. They are not an ill-looking race—in fact, we see some really handsome forms and faces, chiefly among the men, though the girls of mixed blood seem to have some of the beauty that can be found among our own mulattoes. The Kanaka has a bright brown complexion, his heavy, round features suggesting easy good nature rather than the qualities that help in the struggle for life. The civilized garb in which he is arrayed does not sit strangely on him; he even looks perfectly at home in the uniform of the conductor or the policeman. His womenkind usually wear a Mother Hubbard dress, called a "holoku."

John Chinaman is everywhere. He was imported to work in the fields, as he still does to a certain extent, especially in the rice fields, where he is hard to replace; but he has poured into the town, where, besides making one of the best household servants in the world, he has found scope for his talent for retail trade. Many of the smaller shops are in his hands, and in a few cases he is already rich. He has his son educated, and a short while ago, at the chief school here, the prize essay on an American patriotic subject was won by a young Chinaman. However, the small boys we see with pigtails are often the children of native mothers, for here, as elsewhere, John frequently finds it easier to get a wife of another color than to import a compatriot.

The Japanese, few of whom are in their native costume, meet the eye less. They are of more recent importation than the Chinese and have come into the city less, though their women are in demand as nurses. Still, besides occasional shops scattered among the Chinese, they have a small quarter of their own, patronized at the present time by the sailors of the *Naniwa*.

The architecture of Honolulu is not unsightly, at least judged by the modest standard of an American town. The Yankee in the tropics has adapted himself, learning from his English brother and from nature; the business buildings are low, and the projecting piazza roofs, even if they be of corrugated iron, make a grateful shade. We notice some new city blocks in a good-looking dark gray stone. Standing in the middle of a beautiful garden is the royal palace (now the seat of government), which, if it were that of a minor German prince, would be a creditable specimen. But the thing that glorifies the residences here is the splendid tropical vegetation, the cocoanut, the date, the royal and other palms, the poncianas, the banyans, the algarobas, the bananas, the countless kinds of other trees that have been introduced and have flourished. Every house with a pretence of a garden finds it difficult to be ugly. The horrors of American suburban architecture are softened. Queen Anne, half covered by tropical vines, falls in with the landscape. What really harmonizes with the surroundings is the low bungalow construction with the deep veranda from which, fanned by the breeze, we gaze on the intense blue of the sea or green of the land.

There are various excursions we can make from Honolulu, either in the gentle horse-car, not yet replaced by the trolley, to the charming suburb of Waikiki, for sea bathing, or rides into the hills, or in the train for thirty miles between mountain and ocean, amid rice and sugar-cane. The most famous drive is to the "Pali," six miles away from here, the top of a pass, from which there is a grand view to the sea on the other side across the plain lying sheer below.

As for the celebrated climate of the Hawaiian Islands, on the whole, I believe the praise showered upon it is well deserved, and that such phrases as "perpetual summer" and "never too hot and never too cold" are truer than usual, tempered, to be sure, by the mosquitoes—a plague introduced from South America about 1826. It is not merely that the winter differs from the summer chiefly in the amount of rain—something of the same kind could be said of Singapore, which is more trying than India. What makes the days here so delightful is the continual presence of cool breezes, the trade winds that blow almost all the year round. The nights appear to be a little more oppressive, but perhaps a hotel in the heart of the town is not the place from which to judge them. This is the climate of the plain. If one is enervated in the long run by its warm monotony, one can easily find lower temperature by going up into the mountains, four thousand feet high in this island, nearly fourteen thousand in that of Hawaii proper, where snow lies for the greater part of the year.

ARCHIBALD CARY COOLIDGE.

Correspondence.

THE COMMONWEALTH PARTY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In connection with the discussion going on in your columns regarding the formation of a new party and the selection of an appropriate name therefor, permit me to suggest that the name "Commonwealth party" be given some consideration.

Working upon the reasonable assumption that a new party is a necessity, to the above name certainly those objections could not be raised that seem to prevent the adoption of older names, of terms more frequently used, or of hyphenated abominations. Those who cling to the Republican party by reason of its past work and glory, and those who maintain their allegiance to the Democratic party through love for its length of years, its traditions, and its early service, need not feel that they are going over to the enemy by becoming members of the new organization. And for those who find in the word a shibboleth of strength, certainly as much may be said for the word "Commonwealth" as for either of the others.

Under its ample cloak might the limited protectionist and the conservative free-trader find common shelter. There too might meet in harmony the Radical and the Conservative, the Liberal and the Strict-Constructionist. In fact, all those who desire to escape the increasing woes of extravagance, paternalism, a taxation excessive in amount and uncertain in its bearings and its benefits, a government by party for its friends, the encroachments of corruption, and the burden of unwise and too many laws; all those who are actuated in their citizenship by love for the Commonwealth, by pride in its purity, in its good name at home and abroad, might make common cause against foes that endanger its life, and, with Commonwealth for shibboleth, and Commonwealth the end and aim, they might certainly move forward to a success as glorious, and a fame as worthy, as that which rests upon the achievements of the parties that have lived their day.

Yours very truly, HERBERT JONES.

DUBUQUE, IOWA, September 21, 1897.

A DISENCHANTED EXPLORER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Prof. William Libbey of Princeton seems to have been particularly unfortunate in his maiden venture into the wilds of New Mexico. He went thither valiantly and specifically to attack the time-honored Indian legend which relates that the rock of Katzimo, or "Enchanted Mesa," was occupied before the Spanish conquest by the Quéres Indians, who now occupy a similar position on the summit of the mesa next south—the Acoma, already vaguely heard of by Fray Marcos of Niza in 1539, and visited by Coronado in the year following. After a good deal of preliminary publicity for his projected expedition, Prof. Libbey reached New Mexico, cleverly got a life-line over the great rock, and went up in a boatswain's

chair. After two or three hours the clouds promised rain, and he came down and away. In a despatch to the New York *Herald*, as soon as he reached a telegraph office, and in various articles since (notably in the *Princeton Review* and *Harper's Weekly*), he has celebrated the "Disenchanted Mesa," as he facetiously terms it. The latter article (*Harper's Weekly*, August 2) is particularly witty over the downfall of the old tradition at his hands.

Six days later (September 3) Mr. F. W. Hodge of the Bureau of Ethnology, a field student of long and honorable record, mistrusting Prof. Libbey's conclusions, scaled the mesa for himself—a doubly plucky thing to do, in the face of so oracular a verdict. Mr. Hodge does not walk over Indian artifects without recognizing them. He found not only arrow-heads (which by themselves might only prove visitation and not habitation), but stone axes, fragments of pottery, of bracelets, etc., establishing beyond question that the rock was tenanted in prehistoric times. The wall vestiges have undoubtedly been swallowed up (as was suggested in the *Nation* of August 19) in the huge gulf which relatively modern erosion has hollowed in the southeastern end of the mesa. Mr. Hodge also found (what has before been noted, but Prof. Libbey seems not to have observed) numerous similar artifects in the talus just where the wash from this hollow has fallen.

This affair, rather curious in scientific annals for the swiftness and completeness with which the tables have been turned, is instructive to such as need to be instructed that actual Indian legends are not Mother Goose. They have a dignity and weight not to be carelessly run against by unprepared iconoclasts. CHAS. F. LUMMIS.

LOS ANGELES, CAL., September 16, 1897.

OREGON VEGETATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the instructive articles, "Glimpses of Southern Oregon," the writer makes the "salal-berry" a coarse vaccinium. That plant is closely allied to our aromatic wintergreen, and is known to botanists as *Gaultheria Shallon*. The Indians in Lewis and Clark's time called it Shallon.

Instead of *Symplocarpus fœtidus*, which I have never found on the Pacific slope, we have *Lysichton kamtschatcense*. The two plants are strikingly similar in appearance and habit, but the latter lacks the renowned odor of the former.—Yours very truly,

A. S. BERTOLET.

CHICAGO, ILL., September 22, 1897.

A NEEDED CLASSICAL MANUAL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Among the many desiderata for students of the classics, especially in secondary schools, is one which I hope some enterprising publisher will supply shortly, viz., a brief manual of mythology and antiquities of the Greeks and the Romans. There are many manuals of mythology, some good, more bad. There is at least one manual of the public and private antiquities of the Greeks and the Romans. There are classical dictionaries which range in price from the Pauly 'Real - Encyclopädie,' costing $100, to the new 'Dictionary of Classical Literature and Antiquities,' which sells for $7. But these books are too expensive. Few students in secondary schools and not many in colleges can afford to own them; and where they are found in the school libraries (and they are not found in many), only a few students have the time to consult them during school hours.

What is needed is a brief manual of about 250 pages, containing the essentials of the mythology and antiquities of the Greeks and the Romans—a book which could be sold for $1.25 a copy, perhaps less, if the publisher would be content with a small profit and large sales. It should be the constant companion of every student of the classics in our secondary schools if the greatest advantages are to be derived from the study of the masterpieces of the two great peoples of antiquity, and it would be a useful book of reference after school days were ended.

A TEACHER OF LATIN.

SEPTEMBER 16, 1897.

Notes.

Harper & Bros. will be the American publishers of the new venture of the London *Times*, viz., a weekly journal called *Literature*. This periodical, of which Mr. H. D. Traill will be the editor, aims to be at once an authoritative critical review of books and a "comprehensive and trustworthy medium of literary intelligence." It will invite correspondence on, and will itself deal with, any subject within the broad scope of its title, and will at frequent intervals publish bibliographies of timely topics. It will neglect worthless books, and seek to be prompt with the best. Most of the reviewing will be anonymous.

Macmillan Co. have in preparation 'Practical Idealism,' by President Hyde of Bowdoin College.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. will be the American publishers of Richard Le Gallienne's forthcoming book, 'If I Were God.'

Mr. Fred. Mather's angling sketches, 'Men I have Fished with,' in *Forest and Stream*, are to be made into a book by the publishers of that periodical.

M. F. Mansfield, New York, has in preparation the annual volume called 'The Pageant,' composed of specimens of the literature and art of the day, for the most part, with twenty-six full-page illustrations.

Among the works in preparation by the Clarendon Press are the concluding (third and fourth) volumes of W. L. Newman's 'Politics of Aristotle'; 'Indices to Andocides, Lycurgus, and Dinarchus,' by L. L. Forman; a translation of the Abbé J. A. Dubois's 'Manners, Institutions, and Ceremonies of the Hindus,' edited with a biography by H. K. Beauchamp; a 'Dictionary of Proper Names and Notable Matters in the Works of Dante,' by Paget Toynbee; 'Aetolia: Its Geography, Topography, and Antiquities,' by W. J. Woodhouse; 'Studies in International Law,' by T. E. Holland; and the second volume of E. J. Payne's 'History of the New World Called America.'

Conjuring anew with the name of "The Riverside Library for Young People," Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have reissued and placed in the above series, uniformly bound, Miss Alice Mabel Bacon's admirable monograph on 'Japanese Girls and Women,' together with Mrs. Olive Thorne Miller's 'Four-handed Folk,' Mr. S. H. Scudder's 'Frail Children of the Air (Excursions into the World of Butterflies),' and Alexander Black's 'Photography Indoors and Out.' No objection can be raised to this classification, with its appeal to many youthful tastes. The first book is highly susceptible of illustration, but it alone is without any. The same firm, in disregard of President Andrews, have ventured a new edition, now first at a low price, of the late Christopher Pearse Cranch's 'Aeneid of Virgil,' rendered into blank verse. The intervening twenty-five years have not, perhaps, done much to make the choice of metre more acceptable; Mr. Cranch's handling of it, and his poetic qualifications generally, will, on the other hand, be judged at least as strictly now as in 1872.

Two more little volumes in the "Temple Dramatists" (London: Dent; New York: Macmillan) are the "School for Scandal," edited by G. A. Aitken, with a portrait of Sheridan, and "Edward the Third," for which Mr. G. C. Moore Smith supplies the preface, notes, and glossary, and, discussing the authorship of the play, indicates those parts in which Shakspere's hand has seemed visible to many critics.

Seven of Poe's tales compose the first volume of Doubleday & McClure Co.'s "Little Masterpieces," edited by Prof. Bliss Perry. The form and the general air of the typography are here much to be praised for their attractiveness, and Prof. Perry's graceful introduction is full of insight.

We gave recent notice of the promised issue of the fourth edition of Mr. C. Washington Eves's 'West Indies.' The volume, which is published under the auspices of the Royal Colonial Institute by Sampson Low & Co., has now come to hand. It is a well-filled duodecimo of open and handsome letterpress, provided with numerous fresh and very interesting half-tone illustrations of the scenery of the archipelago and with the necessary maps. There is no index to this valuable reference book, but the chapters are quite capable of being read consecutively and with pleasure, for Mr. Eves's task has been performed *con amore*, particularly in the case of Jamaica—a sanitarium for the adjacent continent far from being appreciated or availed of.

Luzac & Co., London, send us a pocket 'Guide to the East Indies' produced under the auspices of the Royal (Dutch) Steam Packet Company, and translated by the Rev. J. B. Berrington. It is full of minute information for the tourist, and is well supplied with maps and plans, a certain number of views in not very good half-tone, and an index.

Of the merits of Baron Pierre de Coubertin's 'Evolution of France under the Third Republic,' as a convenient chronicle of contemporary French history, we spoke at the time of its first publication in French. An English version is now sent us by T. Y. Crowell & Co., with an introduction by Albert Shaw which does not err on the side of conciseness or restraint. The translation, which is by Miss Hapgood, appears, from such examination as we have been able to give it, to be adequate, though signs of carelessness resulting from haste are not wanting; for "four hundred years" (p. 56), read one hundred and four years; for "twenty-five years, and a residence in one commune of one year and six months" (p. 57), read twenty-one years, and a residence in one commune of six months; for "municipal communes" (p.

58), read municipal councils. "Mugwumps" is a well-meant but perverse and misleading translation of *ralliés* (p. 266).

The success of Mr. T. H. S. Escott's book, 'England, its People, Polity, and Pursuits,' some twenty years ago, and the present Jubilee demand for Victorian retrospects, have suggested to that writer another venture in the same direction, 'Social Transformations in the Victorian Age' (Scribners). The result is disappointing. The present book is not only slighter than its predecessor, it is in every way inferior in substance and quality. From a writer of Mr. Escott's large experience, there cannot fail to come an occasional shrewd observation, such as those on the relation between the County Councils recently established and the new classes of residents in the rural districts (pp. 95-96), on the effect of club life upon the drinking habit (p. 117), on certain characteristics of "the new journalism" (pp. 383-387). There is even an epigram here and there. But, on the whole the judgments of the author are superficial, the information scrappy, and the style awkward.

Part ii. of the Civil Judicial Statistics of England and Wales for the year 1895, edited by Mr. John Macdonell, contains a wonderfully detailed enumeration of the particulars of litigation. It is not easy to describe these statistics, because we have nothing of the kind with which to compare them. We can, however, assert in a general way that the volume of litigation in England is far less than with us, and we should probably not be mistaken in laying the difference to the pernicious activity of our legislatures. The total number of proceedings begun was 1,245,659, but of these no less than 1,130,274 were in the county courts, and some 25,000 were in other minor courts, so that the number of really important cases was not very large. The amount for which judgment was signed in the county courts was only £1,765,306. The petitions in the divorce courts numbered only 735, and it is remarkable that of 573 petitions for dissolution of marriage about 62 per cent. were by husbands. Improved business conditions have had their natural effect in reducing the business of the insolvency courts in England, both petitions in bankruptcy and liabilities declining. The experiment of establishing commercial courts appears from these returns to be more successful than was anticipated, the business of these courts attaining a very considerable volume. Some new features have been introduced by the editor, and his tables would seem now to afford all the statistical information that could be desired.

The September Bulletin of the New York Public Library prints a letter of Franklin's from its MSS. (Adams papers) to the Massachusetts provincial leaders Thomas Cushing, Sam. Adams, John Hancock, and William Phillips. It is dated London, February 2, 1774, expresses concern at the destruction of the tea in Boston harbor, and bespeaks a "speedy reparation," conformably to a given precedent. How many of our school text-books suggest the existence of this contemporary view of the famous "Tea Party"? In the same number is begun a check-list of American genealogies.

Mr. Thomas Meehan, in *Garden and Forest* for September 15, makes the interesting revelation that he this summer discovered, in the vault of the American Philosophical Society in Philadelphia, the collection of serviceable plants made by Lewis and Clark on their expedition to the Pacific in 1804-1806, in accordance with Jefferson's instructions. Time and the museum beetle have wrought much damage to these specimens, which Mr. Meehan thinks might well embrace edible plants that would bear cultivating and improving for our tables as they graced the Indians'.

A very precious find is described, with illustrations, by Mr. Charles Henry Hart, in *McClure's Magazine* for October. These are life busts, made from casts upon the living person, of many eminent men of the first and second quarters of the present century, by a New York sculptor, John Henri Isaac Browere. The secret of his process has died with him, but the results as here shown are remarkable for their spirit and minute fidelity. Both Jefferson and Adams were thus imaged on the eve of their simultaneous dissolution, and with undeniable lifelikeness. Madison, Charles Carroll of Carrollton, and Lafayette complete the present group, but the busts of Clay, John Quincy Adams, Charles Francis Adams as a youth of eighteen, De Witt Clinton, Van Buren, Commodore David Porter, and other celebrities are in the possession of Browere's descendants, and it is clear that some if not all of them should be cast in bronze without delay. They might well adorn the National Library at Washington. Mr. Hart's story of his discovery is not very skilfully told, but it is curious reading.

The October number of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography* has to record the death not only of its own founder and editor and the Historical Society's librarian, Dr. Frederick Dawson Stone, but also of Mr. William Spohn Baker, whose Washingtonian researches have been as valuable as they have been indefatigable, and whose diary of "Washington after the Revolution, 1784-1799," chances to be concluded in the present issue of the magazine.

Commenting on the rather whimsical ministerial notion to promote in foreign countries the establishment and proper filling of chairs of the Italian language, a lively writer in the Milan *Corriere della Sera* of September 6 advocates a different line of defence of the mother tongue. Mewed up by bad weather in an Alpine resort in German Switzerland this summer, he warded off ennui by examining a handy dictionary, Italian-German, published by Teubner at Leipzig in the Feller collection. Though intended for daily needs, he found it crammed with "Ostrogothic creations," and with a most extraordinary technical and commercial lingo, out of which he constructs an amusing commercial letter relating to the sale of a horse. The writer proposes a prohibitory duty on such works (all the more pernicious because small), and asks if the Government, instead of emulating the Eritrea fiasco with its founding of foreign chairs, might not better patronize the editing of international dictionaries in which the Italian shall not be caricatured.

The *Revue Pédagogique* for July gives some space to a conference held at Bastia in Corsica in April last upon the suppression of the vendetta and banditism. M. Poletti, professor in the lyceum at Bastia, was the principal speaker. He denied, and supported the denial by abundant proof, the statement often made that the Corsican banditti are, apart from this one failing, respectable men. They are criminals who escape justice because respectable men gloss over their crimes. He estimated that during the present generation a hundred thousand men, mostly in the flower of their age, had lost their lives through the vendetta. He would correct the evil by early instruction in the family and the school, such as might come through publicity and honesty in dealing with these crimes, and an earnest effort to suppress them.

The general diffusion of popular education in Bavaria is shown by the fact that of the 25,712 recruits for the army in 1896, only five were unable to read and write. The deficiency in these cases was due to unusual and untoward circumstances; one of the five had been sickly from his birth, and was rather weak mentally, while the others had passed their youth in foreign countries, one of them as the child of itinerant acrobats, and were thus beyond governmental control.

—The two latest volumes of the invaluable 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) advance the alphabet well into S. In volume 50 are to be remarked Leslie Stephen's sketch of Bolingbroke (St. John); and the notice of William Sacheverell, the "ablest parliament-man of Charles II.'s reign," as being the first that has found its way into any dictionary. Here it fills more than three pages, and furnishes a good instance of the service the present work renders to students of history for men prominent in their time, but lost to view in the competition for place in general biographic collections. Saint-Évremond makes a somewhat unexpected appearance here; but has not that loose fish burial and a bust in Westminster Abbey? Timely are the sketches of Sir R. H. Sale, the heroic defender of Jalalabad, and of Sir R. Schomburgk, whose "line" has fallen in the pleasant places of diplomacy. And American in their aspect are the accounts of the Saltonstalls; of Robert Sandeman, the sectarian who numbered Faraday among his followers, established congregations in New England, and died in Connecticut; of the too lately deceased W. Noel Sainsbury; and of Tom Sayres. Volume 51 opens, and is liberally besprinkled with, names that would have made Quintilian stare and gasp, but in the range from Scoffin to Sheares embraces Sir Walter Scott and Shakspere, to whom respectively are allotted twenty-five and fifty pages. These articles, moreover, proceed from the former and the present chief editor of the Dictionary, and well exemplify their individual ability. Mr. Leslie Stephen had virtually a closed book to condense in the sketch of Scott, and who so well fitted as he to make a story compact without dryness, and omitting no essential detail? His judgments of Scott and his works are purely incidental to the narrative, and his tone is less enthusiastic than would have marked a writer from beyond Tweed. Mr. Sidney Lee, on the other hand, had the enormous task of presenting Shakspere up to date in but twice the space devoted to Scott. His sketch may well be put on the shelf for revision a quarter or half-century hence, when more will perhaps have been learned, and when Mr. Lee's too frequent "doubtless" has been tested by documentary certainty. The article closes with a list of portraits and memorials, a bibliography and a survey of Shakspere's reputation, both contemporary and posthumous, in all countries. The Bacon-Shakspere controversy brings up the rear of the customary footnote, occupying little more than a column of fine print. There are

other great names, like Selden and Granville Sharp, between these covers, and Crusoe Selkirk is fitted out with all his latest discovered wills. Here, too, in fit companionship, are two New England worthies, Judge Samuel Sewall and Captain Joshua Scottow, on whose death Sewall wrote in his diary, "Thus the New England men drop away." But the notice of Sewall is written from the outside, without the personal note.

—It is eminently fitting that such companion-pieces as Boswell's 'Johnson' and his 'Tour to the Hebrides' should be printed within one set of covers, but it is done for the first time in the edition undertaken by Percy Fitzgerald (Whittaker). Seldom have intelligent book-making and good editing wrought together so effectively for the production of a popular edition of a classic in a single volume. Though the book is large, it is not unwieldy, and a clear, full-faced type spares the eyes of the reader. Mr. Fitzgerald's editorial labors are limited, but most useful. He adds few notes to Boswell's own, his innovations being a half-page pointing out, by way of guide to the inexpert, the passages in the 'Life' and 'Tour' which are richest and raciest in the reading, and short biographies of persons mentioned in the 'Life.' This does not mean absolutely all the persons mentioned—on p. 15, for example, there are five names which do not figure in Mr. Fitzgerald's list; but we judge that all the really important persons are there. This is a great convenience, and, of course, a distinct addition to the value of the edition. Perhaps as great value, in another way, resides in the index. This is of Mr. Fitzgerald's own construction, and is most enlightened. It is no machine-made thing, but an intelligent key to the best things in Boswell, provided by one who himself knows and loves them. In other words, much of the perfunctory rubbish of a perfunctory index is omitted altogether, and the reader put on track of what he really wants to find. For example, under Burke there are twelve entries, each with some catchword or phrase to awaken and guide the memory. Of course, one finds omissions—the striking phrase about Burke's mind winding into a subject like a serpent, is left out—but the method followed is most praiseworthy and helpful. Speaking still of Burke, the entry under his name in Mr. Fitzgerald's biographies may serve to illustrate the somewhat jejune, and occasionally perverse, nature of his performance in that department. Here it is in full:

"Burke, Edmund, b. 1729, d. 1797. Perhaps the most solid and generally distinguished of all English orators. He was born in Ireland and never lost his brogue. He was affectionately regarded by his friends. He wrote 'A Treatise on the Sublime and Beautiful.' "

But, with every allowance made, the edition is a remarkable achievement, and the astonishingly low price at which it is put upon the market should insure its popularity.

—Amateurs of humorous verse and collectors of political pamphlets will do well to procure 'Sir Wilfrid's Progress through England and France in the Jubilee Year' (Montreal: Sterling Publishing Co.). In this little brochure, now very popular in the Dominion, Mr. A. M. R. Gordon has pleasantly and effectively hit off the intense satisfaction felt by all Canadians in the attention paid to their representative in England and on the Continent. In form the 'Progress' is a monologue, in which one French Canadian describes to another, in *habitant* English, the triumphs of "Sir Wilfrid de Great." The Queen, in sending out invitations "for mak' some jubilee," insists particularly on the attendance of Mr. Laurier:

"If Wilfrid Laurier will not come,
I not be glad no more!"

Whereat Wilfrid—"not bad fellow, him"—replies:

"Ma Reine, you must not fret
'Bout little t'ing like dat.

"To Londres, on de day in June
You tole me, I will come,
And show you w'at is like de French-Canadian gentilhomme."

The knighting of Laurier follows, and the great figure he cut next day, riding "on state and in *chapeau de coque*," the greatest man in England "excep' de Queen," is enthusiastically described. Sir Wilfrid then crosses the Channel and shows President Faure and the ladies "w'at de kin' of man dis co'ntrie represen'." The tale concludes with the triumphant and really felicitous stanza:

"En bref, our Wilfrid capture France,
He's capture Anglan' too!
I t'ink he will annex dem bot'
To Canada.—Don' you?"

The whole is full of spirit and good feeling, and, in its loyalty to England, fondness for *la patrie*, and pride in Canada, is thoroughly characteristic. The sketchy illustrations interpret the verses and have just the right touch of caricature. We should be glad to see some "political poetry" of equally good quality on our side of the line.

— Among the papers of the gentlemen of England that are being calendared under the direction of the Historical Manuscripts Commissioners, are those of Mr. Leyborne-Popham of Littlecote, Wiltshire. Some of these old documents cannot but have an interest for Americans, as members of this family lent a hand in establishing the early English colonies in North America. Chief Justice Popham, of the time of Queen Elizabeth and James the First, was himself a "favourer of Plantations." Moreover, it is probable that some of the family papers may disclose something fresh about Sir Walter Raleigh, as Chief Justice Popham was the judge who sat in judgment upon him for his share in the transactions relating to the attempt to place Lady Arabella Stuart upon the throne of England instead of James. The Chief Justice's descendants became extinct, in the male line, in the last century, when the heiress of the family married an officer of the name of Leyborne, of an even more ancient family than were the Pophams. Gen. Leyborne assumed the name of Popham, in consequence. He became Governor of the southern Caribbee Islands, in the West Indies, and, while holding that office, died on the island of St. Vincent. His descendant, Mr. Leyborne-Popham of Littlecote, is a very large landowner in Wiltshire and Somersetshire. His promotion of the schemes of Capt. Wiggins for opening up trade with Siberia by navigation cannot but be regarded, by believers in heredity, as an instance of revival of the old spirit of promoting plantations that was manifested by his predecessors in their American ventures.

—The meeting of the eighth Evangelical-Social Congress, held last June at Leipzig, was signalized by the address of Prof. Schmoller on the present position of the middle classes in Germany, which is now to be obtained in a separate form ('Was verstehen wir unter dem Mittelstande? Hat er im 19ten Jahrhundert zu- oder abgenommen?" Göttingen: Vandenhoeck). Outspoken as have been the recent attacks on Prof. Schmoller, they have been less bitter than those directed against the Congress; and it was evidently a feeling of chivalry which led him to take this opportunity to show his sympathy with its general purpose. Many of his hearers must, however, have been surprised to find him arguing (and, if figures can prove anything, proving) that the last twenty-five years have not been characterized, as the Social-Democrats maintain, by the gradual disappearance of the middle classes; that, on the contrary, they have maintained themselves in their numerical relation to the rest of the population. If certain old crafts have suffered, new occupations providing at least equal comfort and independence have come into existence. Of especial interest is the evidence, derived from the last Prussian census of employments, that the peasant proprietor has borne the strain of agricultural depression better than the large landowner. The general result of Schmoller's argument is not unlike that of Mr. Charles Booth in relation to London. He thinks it necessary to guard himself, in his preface, against the charge that he has modified his opinions to satisfy official pressure. He recognizes that his conclusions to-day differ from those he expressed in 1870 in his well-known book on the 'Small Industries of Germany'; but he explains this partly by the fact that better statistics are now available, partly by the circumstance that the outlook is actually a more cheerful one; and he points to various writings of his during the last few years to show that he has not suddenly come to new conclusions. The recent election of Prof. Schmoller to the Rectorship of the University of Berlin is the reply of the faculties to the proposal to limit academic freedom.

CONTEMPORARY EUROPE.

Histoire Politique de l'Europe Contemporaine: Évolution des partis et des formes politiques, 1814-1896. Par Ch. Seignobos. Paris: Armand Colin. Pp. xii, 814.

This book is remarkable for its range, its precision of statement, and its insight. Seignobos has not undertaken more than he could accomplish—praise which cannot be given to others, like Gervinus and Stern, who have wished to write the history of the nineteenth century. To spend a lifetime on a work of which the first volumes must be obsolete before the last are printed—if, indeed, the conclusion be reached at all—indicates a grave defect, we had almost said a disqualification, in a writer of history. Equally serious a defect is the choice of a second or third-rate subject. What a waste of energy and of talents often rising to genius in Kinglake's 'History of the Crimean War'! Probably not ten persons a year read his work through—for the theme has, in a single lifetime, sunk into hopeless insignificance, and one can no more afford to read eight volumes on the siege of Sebastopol than on the war of the Austrian Succession. M. Seignobos, on the contrary, has gauged his subject and his capacity so nicely that he has produced an important work on what must be to all of

us the most important period of recorded time. Of the political development of each European country since the Congress of Vienna he gives us a summary which is clear and synchronous; we do not feel that since writing the earlier portions he has changed his mind, or discovered new material which invalidates the point of view with which he began. We insist on this merit because so many historical works fail for lack of it.

Equally noteworthy, however, is the fact that, so far as the present writer is aware, M. Seignobos's work stands alone. Fyffe's 'Modern Europe' covers the same period, but aims at the rapid narration of outward events rather than at the dissection of the many-stranded lines of causation. Mr. A. L. Lowell's recent study, excellent within the limits its author marked out for it, begins only in 1848, pursues a different method, and treats only five countries instead of all Europe. Of briefer manuals, like Müller's and Maréchal's, it is unnecessary to speak, because they do not enter into competition with M. Seignobos's history at all.

The importance of an adequate review of nineteenth-century Europe need not be urged. M. Seignobos has several qualifications which fit him to succeed in his task. He sees with almost an engineer's precision the rack-and-pinion play of cause and effect. He states with unfailing impartiality the principles of political sects and parties. He discerns the first symptoms of party disintegration, the earliest premonition of new movements, the eddies as well as the currents of evolution. His style has generally the lucidity if not the charm peculiar to French scholarship. He writes with the compactness of a geometer, and yet manages to avoid the vagueness which belongs to general axioms. Specialists will find his summary of their chosen themes remarkably distinct and vital, instead of the desiccated pith which epitomizers often purvey.

After chronicling the internal political evolution of each European state, beginning with England, the pioneer in constitutional progress, M. Seignobos devotes an important section to the description of the recent material changes common to all civilized countries, another to a statement of the position and diplomacy of the Catholic Church, and a third to a brief account of the international revolutionary movements. Finally, he summarizes the international relations of the various countries since 1815, showing how the Holy Alliance and Metternichism naturally followed the Napoleonic upheaval; how, next, the rivalry of England and Russia became the pivot on which European diplomacy turned; how Napoleon III., having engrafted his dynastic ambition on this Eastern question, and helped England to reckon with Russia, became the active fautor or passive witness of national wars; and how, since 1870, the ascendency of Germany has meant the conversion of Europe into an armed camp. By these various methods of treatment, following now the geographical, now the logical, and now the chronological order, we penetrate the century in its length, breadth, and thickness, and, from witnessing its evolution, we form what idea we can of its import and of the future.

The chief business of the nineteenth century in Europe has been, of course, the spread of democracy; but there are almost as many varieties of democracy as of Christianity, and it is one of the merits of this book that it distinguishes clearly among them. The Greek Boulé, the Spanish Cortes, the Prussian Landtag are all representative bodies, but they are representative in a very different sense from the British House of Commons. Indeed, a review of the process of democratization since 1815 shows how the habits and instincts of race transcend, or at least structurally modify, mere political forms. Thus, M. Seignobos points out that conservatism, one of the strongest political traits of the Anglo-Saxons, has dominated Saxon England, while Liberalism has advanced upon it from Wales, Lancashire, Yorkshire, and Scotland. Thus, too, he is careful to distinguish between constitutionalism and parliamentarism, between the substance and the shadow of free government.

There are many points which we should like to comment upon if space permitted. M. Seignobos would persuade us, for instance, that the convention of Olmütz was not so ignominious for Prussia as it has generally been regarded. Still more interesting is his diagnosis of French Republicanism, which he holds to be too firmly rooted now to fear monarchical assaults. From 1792 to 1870 the Republicans seized France four times, "always by the same means, a *coup de main* at Paris," and, being always in a minority, they were subsequently displaced by a restoration; but now the great majority of Frenchmen are Republicans, and neither Bonapartists nor Bourbons have a formidable backing. Popular government in France is in jeopardy, not from monarchical intrigues, but from the frequency of interpellations and from the meddling of Deputies in the business of legislation; the former causes the rapid overturn of cabinets, the latter perpetuates a "spoils system" which would delight a Pennsylvania Republican or a Tammany Democrat.

Especially interesting is M. Seignobos's chapter on the Catholic Church: it would be difficult to refer to any other book on this subject containing so much information in so small a compass. M. Seignobos concludes that the Church exerts a far greater influence in Europe at the end of the century than it exerted at the beginning; and this despite the fact that the privileges and immunities, not less than the direct political action of the Church, have been abolished in nearly all Continental countries. He would not imply, however, that the Church has been strengthened through the strengthening of the faith of its members—on the contrary, the number of believers in Roman theology is constantly decreasing; but the conservative forces of society are rallying more and more to the Church as the most conservative of all institutions, and the one most likely to withstand the storm of Socialism which has long been looming ominously over Christendom. Belgium offers a striking example of the way in which intermediary groups have been swept away, leaving the two irreconcilable parties of the Church and Democratic Socialism to confront each other. Is this to be the political evolution elsewhere? And, in the ultimate conflict between these irreconcilables, which will win? M. Seignobos does not predict. For the present, he says, "the practical direction of political life belongs everywhere to the intermediary parties, whether parliamentary or liberal conservatives, parties of compromise, occupied with practical affairs rather than with doctrines, parties which, deadening the shocks between two opposite conceptions, maintain, amid heated polemics, a social peace and a liberty which Europe had never before known."

As an offset to this conclusion, one should read the epitome of the International Revolutionary Parties, in which the ideals of the latter-day Utopians and Anarchists can be compared with those of the men who represented Radicalism in the first half of the century. M. Seignobos does well to point out that all the important schemes of social regeneration which are now agitated were broached long ago. Several of them were experimented with in the days of our fathers—the city of Paris especially having made one memorable attempt, in the spring of 1848, to pay an army of loafers out of the public funds. But the dreams of French and English Utopians have passed through the brains of German doctrinaires and Russian fanatics, and have been transmuted into the politico-social principles which now alarm conservative Europe. Even anarchy is no new thing—it has always existed in the form of murder, pillage, and arson—although Bakunin is credited with the invention of "philosophic anarchy." Any comparison of the Radicals of to-day with those of 1840 is greatly to the disadvantage of the former. From Mazzini, for instance, to Bebel and Kropotkin what a fall! So in economics, what a fall from John Stuart Mill to Messrs. Kidd and Bellamy! In 1840 the watchword was liberty—individual and collective liberty. Every generous soul believed that to dignify men and nations they needed only to be free. But in 1897 Radicalism has turned its back on liberty to proclaim the gospel that the able and industrious must be brought down to the level of the idle and incompetent. Absolutism, too, has degenerated. Wilhelm, the beau-ideal Absolutist of 1897, makes but a sorry figure beside Metternich, the leader of Absolutism two generations ago. Nevertheless, despite the menaces of socialism, the truculence of the German Emperor, the mad acts of political assassins, we have only to see the course of European destiny as M. Seignobos sees it in order to be reassured. He does not anticipate a sudden or a widespread revolution; on the contrary, he finds the governments of Europe more firmly established than at any time in the past, and he believes that our improved means of communication as well as latter-day arms and explosives add to the resources of the preservers of social order instead of making its would-be destroyers more dangerous.

Although M. Seignobos writes throughout, as we have intimated, with the objectivity of a scientist, and although his work is a remarkable record of apparently impersonal forces, still he is too sane not to recognize the supreme influence of a few individuals on recent history.

"A natural tendency," he says, "to attribute great effects to great causes leads us to explain political evolution, like geologic evolution, by deep and continuous forces, larger than individual actions. The history of the nineteenth century accords ill with this conception. . . . The Revolution of 1830 was the work of a group of obscure Republicans, served by the inexperience of Charles X.; the Revolution of 1848, the work of some Democratic and Socialist agitators aided by Louis Philippe's sudden loss of courage; the war of 1870, the personal work of Bismarck prepared by the personal policy of Napoleon III. For these three unforeseen facts one finds no general cause in the intellectual, political, or economic state of the

Continent. It is three accidents which have determined the political evolution of contemporary Europe."

So important a work ought readily to find a translator. It is unfortunate that the French publisher has brought it out in a single ponderous volume, instead of in two or three convenient ones, and it is inexcusable that such an encyclopædia of historical information is provided with no index.

WASHINGTONIANA IN THE BOSTON ATHENÆUM.

A Catalogue of the Washington Collection in the Boston Athenæum. Compiled and annotated by Appleton P. C. Griffin. With an Appendix by William Coolidge Lane. The Boston Athenæum. 1897. Portraits and facsimiles. Pp. xi, 566.

The most valuable portion of this collection is naturally what was purchased of Henry Stevens in 1848. These were volumes from Washington's own library, many containing his signature and bookplate. A number of sales of books from the Mount Vernon library have occurred since that time, but the Athenæum has added only one such volume to its original purchase. This bulky catalogue of nearly six hundred pages must therefore be regarded as incomplete, though the inventory of the library deposited with Washington's will is printed as an appendix; yet in its incomplete state it will be essential to every Washington collection, if only as a check-list. Its contents are far above the bald record of the usual catalogue. The compiler has examined many manuscript collections to learn how or when Washington obtained his books, and what has become of them since the library was scattered, and much interesting material has thus been discovered and incorporated into this bibliography.

In examining the list of books belonging to the library of Washington, it is a source of gratification to feel that he was not responsible for the selection of the larger part. His public service made him a mark for writers of little repute but high ambition; for a word of commendation from him, or permission to use his name in connection with a new publication, would have been the best of advertisements. He was overrun with requests for his endorsement and for permission to dedicate the book or pamphlet to him—requests which were firmly yet courteously denied, the smart of disappointment being generally salved with a subscription for one or more copies of the work. In one case he did go so far as to commend in strong terms an enterprise—Carey's Museum—but that was an exception to his general rule. As recipient of presentation copies Washington soon had a "library," but the quality is proved by this catalogue in such a way as to destroy any belief in Washington's love of reading that may still remain. Only recently two very adulatory essays on this very point have been published, in which a most enticing picture has been drawn of the retired President "in his library," peacefully reading after the fatigues of public life and the heavy demands made upon his time. A fanciful list of his favorite works has been compiled from the book-lists of that day, and he is seen with all the accessories of a well-equipped study of a modern realistic novelist. It is painful to feel obliged to prick so pretty a bubble. It is not usual for the reading habit to be formed late in life, and Washington's career, from his appointment as surveyor, was not one that would permit him to indulge in much study or to form habits of steady reading. His life was one of action, and was so engrossed by the calls upon him as to prevent his attending seriously to the humanities. Further, had he been a reading man, some results would have appeared in his writings. To the last, they are devoid of a literary flavor or of quotation from or reference to any literature of the day, save in the constant recurrence of a few sentences taken from Addison's 'Cato.' This single instance may be traced from the time of his service in the colonial militia of Virginia, through the Revolution and well into his Presidency—a curious instance of persistence of an early impression. Indeed, we should be sorry to believe that Washington could spend many hours in reading the sermons, the flattering poems, the essays on all manner of subjects, the technical treatises, and the efforts of weak-brained enthusiasts which poured in upon him as gifts "from the author." Mr. Griffin has industriously traced many letters accompanying these gifts, and prints them with the usual formal reply conveying the thanks and appreciation of Washington. They make a curious collection, for they show the "interested selfishness" of the writers, the one to secure a nod from the ex-President, the other to ward off the attempt in a few cold sentences that might yet carry comfort. Yet the collection of works is a sorry one, and would, apart from the personal interest attaching to it, be relegated to the top shelf of the most inaccessible part of the Athenæum library.

Of course there are exceptions. Some of the productions of the libellers of the day, like Callender and Cobbett, are to be found, with the issues by Bache of the despatches from the French Minister, but Duane is missing; and Monroe's defence, with Washington's careful annotations, is in the library of Harvard University. Randolph's 'Vindication' is here, as well as Paine's scurrilous 'Letter to Washington,' but neither contains a scratch of the pen to show what feelings they excited in the person so bitterly attacked. In connection with the latter document, Mr. Griffin notes with pride that he has run down the author of one of the many answers to Paine, C. L. Pinckney Horry, a discovery which every collector will appreciate. So Boucher's Discourses are in the collection, and the compiler of the Catalogue prints the very doubtful letter of the Tory clergyman, said to have been sent to Washington at the beginning of the Revolution. Carey's copy of Washington's letters, containing his reasons for omitting paragraphs and entire letters, is traced to Bishop Hurst's library. Outside of the state papers, only a single volume of his own writings—his speeches to Congress—appears in the Athenæum collection.

One more item may be mentioned. The books that Washington did read related to agriculture, and to these he devoted much attention. Not only did he make careful summaries of their contents for his own use, but his letters to his overseers are full of evidence of his application in practice of the results of his reading. The works on farming in this collection would be notable by themselves, and most of them contain the signature of the owner—a slight indication of the estimation in which they were held. The volumes from Arthur Young, James Anderson, and Sir John Sinclair show how readily he had made this interest of his known to specialists in Great Britain; but it was earlier and more curious writers on agriculture that received his special consideration. Next to agriculture may be mentioned works on the military art, and to these two subjects it may be said that Washington did show decided leaning.

So much space has been devoted to the Washington collection proper, that only a reference can be made to the long list of works relating to Washington also included in this catalogue. Mr. Griffin has been very industrious in his annotations, and the list is certainly a long one. Still, it may be doubted if it equals the Lenox, Baker, or Ford collections in completeness. Some omissions may be accounted for by the length of time the catalogue was in press, of which evidence is given in more than one place. In the main, the notes are full and judicious. It might have been well to allude to the doubtful origin of the so-called Trumbull sketches, if indeed any doubt could exist, for the subjects and treatment only too plainly proved their fraudulent character. A line might have warned the unwary from the ridiculous production of Welles tracing the family of Washington to Odin. The Henkels pamphlet on a MS. will of Washington was of the same character, for the will did not contain a letter of Washington's writing. Mr. Griffin repeats the assertion that the list of the authors in the Hearst 'Federalist' is in Madison's script, though no expert believes it to be so. Some omissions could be made good. The list of British officers (p. 539) was given to Washington by Elias Boudinot, then Commissary-General of Prisoners. The "Wharton" who owns Washington's copy of Adam Smith's 'Wealth of Nations' is Mr. Joseph Wharton, whose long-continued monopoly of nickel in this country through a prohibitive import duty was in strong contrast to the general teachings of that work. We do not find any mention of the facsimile of Washington's letter to Madison giving the first outline of what was developed into the Farewell Address, a facsimile so perfect that it has often been offered as the original. Is not the Secretary Noylan (p. 302) intended for Moylan? And is it not strange to find so well known a name as that of Mathew Carey so constantly misspelled? Carey reproduced in facsimile one of Washington's letters to him, and used the back for his business correspondence, but the Athenæum does not appear to possess an example. The 'Narrative' mentioned on p. 148 probably related to one of the escapades of Lord Baltimore, and, if so, was published in 1768, not 1788, as is suggested. In an Appendix Mr. Lane prints the inventory of Washington's library, filed with the will, but now lost.

This catalogue, in sum, constitutes one of the most interesting contributions to Washington literature, and the labor involved in its preparation has borne rich fruit.

The Encyclopædia of Sport. Edited by the Earl of Suffolk and Berkshire, Hedley Peck, and F. G. Aflalo. G. P. Putnam's Sons. Parts I.-VI.

"Sport" is so comprehensive and elastic a term that it seems proper this encyclopædia should have a trio of editors. Their fitness

for their task is shown at the outset by success in obtaining the assistance of men whose names alone are a guarantee of practical acquaintance with the subjects assigned them. The six parts now issued bring the work down to Fencing, and contain 376 pages; all except forty of these pages are occupied by signed articles written by some sixty different persons. While many of these also wrote for the "Badminton Library of Sports and Pastimes," the staff of contributors is drawn from a far wider field. A Russian, Prince San-Donato, describes deer-stalking in the Caucasus; Herr Schlick, an Austrian, gives a vivid account of the dangers of chamois hunting, a favorite diversion of his emperor; Theodore Roosevelt writes entertainingly of the buffalo and the caribou; and an Oriental, Prince Ranjitsinhji, the crack batsman of 1896, is one of the half-dozen joint authors of the article on cricket.

As might be expected in an English work, the national game is awarded some forty pages. The rules of the Marylebone Club are printed as the constitution, so to speak, of the game; how a match is played is clearly set forth by the aid of diagrams; subsequently the several points are discussed at great length, and with a seriousness that reminds one of the exhortations of the coach of an American football team at the beginning of the collegiate year. There are no "short cuts," we are told, "to good cricket. The ordinary mortal can only win his way forward by determination, patience, and practice." In this connection mention may be made of the admirable article on baseball by R. G. Knowles, and of the praise bestowed on the American game. "Everybody is given a chance to excel both at the bat and in the field. In cricket, should you get out first ball, your chance is gone, in all probability, of distinguishing yourself at the bat for that day. It is not so in baseball. As the nine innings are played, you have five or six chances more of retrieving your honor. From the sportsman's point of view, baseball should stand ahead of most manly games."

To the editors credit is due for the valuable and unusual feature of elaborate glossaries that are appended to the principal articles. These give in succinct form much information that could not well be introduced into the main text, and that cannot be obtained elsewhere, at least in such close juxtaposition with that fuller description of the sport so indispensable to the general reader. Of a score of terms selected at random from these glossaries, the reviewer could not find satisfactory definitions for five in either the 'Century,' the 'Standard,' or Murray's 'Historical Dictionary.' The bibliographies are another useful feature. They vary much in length, archery being without any save brief references in a footnote, and cricket having an exhaustive one of fifty titles and two hundred volumes.

Every reader will feel grateful for the attractive and beautiful illustrations, which are furnished with lavishness. Many of the smaller ones, taken from instantaneous photographs, give, at the same time, vivid and instructive views of the exercises described in the text. The full-page engravings are often triumphs of the pictorial art, and, if placed by the side of the woodcuts in the last edition of what may be regarded as the predecessor of this work, Blaine's 'Encyclopædia of Rural Sports,' furnish a startling contrast. Altogether, the publishers are to be congratulated on issuing what promises to be the most attractive, the most comprehensive, and the most useful single work that has yet appeared on this subject.

In conclusion, the reviewer cannot refrain from accepting the invitation of the preface and offering two suggestions which may be of service to the editors. The work is deficient in cross-references; for instance, Disc-throwing is treated under Athletics, but no indication of the fact is given at the place where most readers would look; under Bowling there is no reference to Tenpins or American Bowls, as it is generally called in England. The article on Dogs is confined to "sporting" dogs—a division carelessly defined as including those "used for the purposes of giving amusement to their owners or for providing them with food." It describes the German mastiff, yet gives no clue as to where an account may be found of the English mastiff. A more serious grievance is the scant attention thus far given to sport in the United States. For the Spanish bull-fight seven pages are found; the capture of the blue-fish is dismissed with a single sentence. The writer on Big Game in North America implies that there is little left save in British Columbia, and that shooting a moose means wasting a whole season, as far as other game is concerned. He must be ignorant that a single short railroad in one of the Eastern States forwards, during the three "open" months of each year, nearly one hundred and fifty moose, about the same number of caribou, and over two thousand deer. The same writer describes camping out on this continent, in a special article under that title, and is provokingly silent as to the charms of that combination of canoeing, fishing, and hunting offered by the lakes and rivers of the State of Maine and the adjacent British provinces, and each year enjoyed by hundreds of American sportsmen.

Contributions to the Science of Mythology. By F. Max Müller. 2 vols. Longmans.

Prof. Max Müller is to be congratulated on having been permitted, like Mr. Herbert Spencer, to "crown the edifice." The recently published 'Contributions to the Science of Mythology' fills the gap left between the 'Lectures on the Science of Language' and the author's voluminous writings on the 'Science of Religion' and the 'Science of Thought.'

It has been the fashion of late to gird at Max Müller. He does not stand quite in the splendid isolation of Athanasius *contra mundum*; but the disciples of Whitney in America, of Brugmann in Germany, and the light infantry of Mr. Andrew Lang in England, constitute a formidable body of assailants. "Verily, old sire, the young champions press thee sore." The austere censors of the press, too, have learned to shake their heads gravely over him, as an intellectual middleman and a mere popularizer. Now all this is an exaggeration, and a much less amiable exaggeration than the naïve admiration of Englishmen in the sixties for the man who had opened up the new world of comparative philology to them, or than the old scholar's innocent retrospective delight in his own achievements. Max Müller is not the inventor of comparative philology. He has not created the sciences of mythology, religion, and thought. But in earlier years he laid his brick in the edifice of science, and the popular works which have since flowed in such profusion from his pen, despite their loose rhetoric, their verbosity, and their occasional positive lapses, have diffused much information in an entertaining form, and contain many stimulating suggestions in domains of thought quite beyond the ken of some of the verbalists who raise their eyebrows at his etymologies. Even these notorious etymologies hardly justify the charge of ignorance or sciolism. Exact science may frown upon the equations θεός = deus, Varuna = οὐρανός, Ahanâ = Athena, Dahana=Daphne, Kerberos=Sarvara, Here=Svârâ, Hermeias=Sârameya, Helena=Saramâ, Erinnys=Saranyû, Orthros=Vritrâ. But the reaffirmation of them in full *connaissance de cause*, and after a review of opposing arguments, may possibly be set down to perversity or self-will—it is not an argument of ignorance.

Similarly with regard to the lively criticisms of Mr. Andrew Lang and the anthropological school. Müller's mental habits date from the pre-Darwinian days. He has an instinct for the effective, exaggerated, popular way of putting things. In the development of his favorite thesis he appears to ignore all the qualifications which he is quite ready to admit if questioned. He delights to magnify the Vedas, to which so much of his life has been given. It is easy for polemical criticism to cull sentences in which he seems to bid defiance to Darwin and all rational theories of human development, and pictures the primitive Aryan leading an exquisite idyllic life in the bosom of his family, discoursing in high figurative speech of the weather, and nourishing his mighty youth on the fundamental intuitions of monotheism and the categories of the Kantian philosophy. Possibly such passages are fair game. But, taking his works as a whole, we cannot fairly accuse him of this kind of irrationalism. He does not really maintain that the Aryans are primitive in the anthropological sense. They do not pose quite so proudly in his prose as in the witty verse of Mr. Lang. His doctrine of Henotheism does not affirm a developed and conscious monotheism antecedent to polytheism. He does not ignore the part played in the evolution of mythology by fetishism, animism, totemism, plant worship, and the rest. He merely maintains that the pantheon of the Vedas and of Homer is in large measure the outgrowth of imaginative conceptions of the great agencies of nature and the misapprehension of metaphorical or riddling speech about them. He does not assert the absolute priority of the higher religious and moral intuitions in the development of humanity; he merely suggests the possibility that these intuitions were already the possession of gifted tribes as far back as our investigations can reach, and that the savages of to-day may in some cases be degenerates or failures. He does not reject the method of accounting for the irrational element in mythology by a reconstruction of the general psychology of primitive man. He merely points out that, after this broader analogical explanation, there still remains the more definite, perhaps insoluble, historic problem: Why was this particular fable told in its special form of this divine personage?

Now, whatever our favorite key to all mythologies, the special combination that turns the lock is generally supplied by language. Mythology, Mr. Lang tells us, is

mainly due to the savage's curiosity about the reasons of things, and his credulity in admitting explanations. But the things to be explained are in a large proportion of cases names, that is, words. Names were originally, of necessity, metaphors. The original sensuous intuition or apprehension of an aspect or quality that gave rise to the name is forgotten or concealed by a change of form, and primitive reflection supplies its place by an ætiological myth built up about some grotesque or plausible etymology. The constituent elements of such a myth are doubtless found in the psychology of the savage mind; but the provocation and the first links of association are generally verbal. The uncertainty of etymologizing, and the exaggerations of dawn and solar mythologists, cannot affect the truth that to this extent "mythology is a disease of language."

Such are some of the more general reflections suggested by an unpartisan perusal of the volumes before us. There is no space to criticise them in detail, or to attempt to separate the wheat from the chaff. The first volume, in addition to three discursive, polemic, and apologetic chapters on the methods and problems of comparative mythology, offers an interesting study of the Mordvinian mythology in confirmation of the author's theory, and a long review of the progress of the science of comparative philology during his lifetime. This survey has two objects: to show that the advance of the past twenty-five years has been an evolution rather than a revolution, and to plead for a greater license of etymologizing in the case of proper names. It is naïvely biographical in form. The second volume is a series of notes on Vedic mythology, accompanied by many bold and interesting Greek parallels. Few of the etymologies on which these comparisons rest are approved by professional philologians, and it is impossible to admit the author's repeated contention that they ought to be accepted as provisional hypotheses until something demonstrably better is produced. It is not necessary to salvation or to peace of mind to hold any opinion concerning the etymology of Aphrodite or Apollo. The classical scholar who, Mr. Müller says, is uncharitably prone to assume that Sanskritists have forgotten their Greek and Latin, will smile grimly over Phygalia, Ἄπολλον Ἀγυιεῦ, 'Apollo, my leader,' and the citation of *alte* [*sic*] *tonantem credidimus Jovem*, as a case of the direct accusative, with *credere*.

The Life and Times of Thomas Wakley, Founder and first Editor of the *Lancet*, Member of Parliament for Finsbury, and Coroner for West Middlesex. By S. Squire Sprigge, M.B. Cantab., etc. With two Portraits. Longmans, Green & Co. 1897. Pp. xix, 509.

Centennial or *fin-de-siècle* literature is increasing, and that very naturally. It results from our disposition at the close of any long period to look backward. It grows with the growth of surveying all institutions historically. It furnishes a strong justification for family memorials. But a book on Thomas Wakley could never need ask pardon for being born. During four decades of our century his name was so prominent in connection with vital questions that the world will not let it die. With peculiar fitness is his belligerent memory kept green by his son and grandson, who still edit the *Lancet*, which he founded in 1823. It is well also that they have escaped suspicions of family partialities by securing for the writer of their memorial a man not of their kindred, and who betrays few symptoms of the *lues Boswelliana*. For those who have read the *Lancet* from its first numbers, no biographer was needed—they know Wakley altogether; but that class is now become as a gleaning of grapes when the vintage is done.

Wakley's bust was inscribed "Senator, Coroner, Medical Reformer." Here, as oftentimes elsewhere, the half is more than the whole; or, rather, one word would be better than four. "Reformer" alone would describe him altogether. He strove persistently and with imminent risk of bankruptcy to force his way into Parliament—and into the office of Coroner; but that solely as means to his chief end, Reform. The *Lancet*—which is his autobiography, and in which he still lives—though started in his twenty-eighth year, was a natural birth after long gestation of his ideas on reform. Ramifications from this nucleus comprise all his watchwords, work, and worry through forty years of intensest exertion. Broad-spreading, they yet never lost their original raciness. He was born with fists clenched, not like Dante's grasping miser, but for pugilistic fight; and he never forgot the Irish fighting maxim, "Wherever you see a head, hit it." Of such bulldog stuff effectual reformers have ever been made.

When this man Wakley came, the hour for him had fully come. English conservatism, always ready to cry, "Touch not one cobweb of St. Paul's for fear you shake the dome," intensified throughout the era of the French Revolution, at its collapse became preëminently triumphant and domineering. Positions and preferment in hospitals and medical schools, no less than in the army, navy, and church, were bought by money, and not by merit. Worst of all, this venality had become so intrenched that it was considered a finality. Accordingly, only a free lance would assail such an impregnable system; and Wakley, in his single-handed crusade, recalled Don Quixote riding forth on a spavined Rosinante to redress a world of grievances. His *Lancet*, nevertheless, was a success from the start. It was felt to be from the people and for the people; for the masses as against the classes, and for classes as against cliques and interior rings, self-perpetuating juntos.

Aside from his outside reformatory achievements, Wakley's career as a medical reformer is thus summarized:

"In 1823, when the *Lancet* was founded, there was no medical act either protecting the public or regulating the medical profession; nepotism was the one prevailing force at the metropolitan hospitals. Speaking of his colleagues, several of whom Wakley had proved unfit for their places in the Royal Hospital, Sir Astley Cooper, its head, had incautiously said, 'Mr. Travers was my apprentice; Mr. Green is my grandson; Mr. Tyrrell is my nephew; Mr. Key is my nephew [and known to be professors because nephews]; Mr. Morgan was my apprentice.' The horrible trade of the resurrectionist was thriving, [in 1828 it led to the coinage of the word 'burking'], and the provisions for medical education were disgraceful, and so it was a hotbed for noodles or knaves.

"Within forty years the hospitals of London had resolved that the first qualification which a member of their staffs must have was merit—no more hole-in-the-corner surgery; the Anatomy Act had abolished the resurrectionist; the Medical Act had met many of the crying grievances of the profession—a bill working against quacks and securing to skilled practitioners adequate compensation for testimony and other public services, etc.; and the London medical student was receiving a magnificent education. To obtain this education he had no longer to pay exorbitant fees; and to become in turn a teacher and hospital official himself he had to buy out no predecessor. In the fight for all these reforms Wakley led the way" (p. 439).

Publicity was his first remedy. Whatever of word or work is good in hospitals, he said, let it come to light for the public good; whatever is evil there, let it be exposed to safeguard the public. But whoso would understand the secret of Wakley's success must read the story of his life, which, though voluminous, cannot be abridged. His methods were never mean, and, as he contended, never ran counter to the spirit of the law. Yet he was usually convicted of transgressing the letter of the law in ten suits which were brought against him in the first decade of the *Lancet*. Such suits, however, proved the best of advertisements. Eight thousand pounds damages was demanded in the aggregate, but in one case only one farthing was granted, and about £150 in all. Thus, if judges were against Wakley, juries were on his side. So, too, were the people who paid his legal costs as a martyr by enthusiastic subscription; and not a little of it was paid by the medical rank and file, whom he had taught how to work out their own salvation from an oligarchy.

The Colonial Tavern: A Glimpse of New England Town Life in the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries. By Edward Field. Providence: Preston & Rounds. 1897. Pp. ix, 296.

For an institution which filled so conspicuous a place in the lives of the men of colonial New England, the tavern has found few chroniclers or describers. Its services to its age were essentially transitory, and do not yield readily to historical treatment; but, as Mr. Field points out, the tavern was a factor in colonial life to a degree now difficult of realization; for, besides the primary use of entertainment for travellers (often indifferently performed), it was to the men of the time "their club, their board of trade, their 'exchanges,' and, indeed, to most of the colonists, it served as their newspaper." In the handsomely printed volume under review, Mr. Field has presented a gossipy, entertaining sketch of this servant of the social wants of early New England. The sale of beverages was a leading cause in the establishment of colonial taverns. The tap-room was their best furnished, as well as their most frequented room; and naturally, therefore, Mr. Field's book has a spirituous flavor. He brings before us Gov. Endicott regaling himself and his associates with "beare and cacks," and, guided by the light of many contemporary bills and account-books, we follow the potations of judges and of lower officers of justice, of militia gathered for training days, of selectmen, and of ordinary citizens, as they refreshed themselves with "sillabub," "cyder," flip, "bear," or the well-nigh universal rum. The author points out the attempts of the colonial governments to secure worthy keepers of these necessary

houses of entertainment, to regulate their sale of beverages, and to secure their good order; but, though it is doubtless true that in many instances throughout the colonial period the hosts were excellent as well as influential citizens, he also makes it clear that the strictures of Nathaniel Saltonstall and John Adams upon the New England taverns of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries had substantial basis.

Mr. Field's book is not a history or a description of a particular tavern. Possibly it might be more instructive, though probably less entertaining, were it so. It is a composite sketch, the materials for which have been gathered from a wide range of sources of information.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, O. F. A Dictionary of American Authors. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.00.
Aitken, G. A. Sheridan's "Rivals." [Temple Dramatists.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. 45c.
Altsheler, J. A. A Soldier of Manhattan, and his Adventures at Ticonderoga and Quebec. Appletons. $1.
Baldwin, C. S. The Expository Paragraph and Sentence. Longmans, Green & Co.
Balzac, H. de. Cousin Betty. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Beard, J. C. Curious Homes and their Tenants. Appletons. 65c.
Bennett, John. Master Skylark: A Story of Shakspere's Time. Century Co. $1.50.
Bigelow, Poultney. White Man's Africa. Harpers. $2.50.
Boothby, Guy. Shellah McLeod: A Heroine of the Black Blocks. F. A. Stokes Co. 75c.
Buchanan, J. T., and Minckwitz, R. A. Selections from Viri Romae and Nepos. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 60c.
Bunner, H. C. Three Operettas. Harpers. $2.50.
Burgin, G. B. Fortune's Footballs. Appletons. $1.
Burnett, Mrs. F. H. Little Lord Fauntleroy, Piccino and Other Stories, Two Little Pilgrims' Progress, Giovanni and the Other, Sara Crewe, etc. 5 vols. Scribners. $6.
Cheever, Harriet A. Links of Gold. Boston: Pilgrim Press. $1.25.
Church, Rev. A. J. Lords of the World: A Story of the Fall of Carthage and Corinth. Scribners. $1.50.
Collar, W. C. The Second Book of Cæsar. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Coulevain, Pierre de. American Nobility. Scribners. $1.50.
Conn, Prof. H. W. The Story of Germ Life. Appletons. 40c.
Craddock, Charles E. The Young Mountaineers. Short Stories. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Darmesteter, Arsène. The Talmud. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society.
Dodge, Mrs. Mary M. A New Baby World: Stories, Rhymes, and Pictures for Little Folks. Century Co. $1.50.
Drake, S. A. The Border Wars of New England. Scribners. $1.50.
Ellis, E. S. In the Days of the Pioneers. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co.
Fowler, Edith H. The Professor's Children. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Geil, W. E. The Isle that is Called Patmos. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society. $1.50.
Gibson, W. H. My Studio Neighbors. Harpers. $2.50.
Gilman, S. C. The Conquest of the Sioux. Indianapolis: Carlon & Hollenbeck.
Hall, Edith K. Adventures in Toyland. Scribners. $2.
Hall, William. The Victory of Defeat, and Other Poems. London: Sonnenschein.
Harrison, Joseph Le R. With Pipe and Book: A Collection of College Verse. Providence: Preston & Rounds.
Hearn, Lafcadio. Gleanings in Buddha-Fields. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Henderson, W. J. The Last Cruise of the Mohawk. Scribners. $1.25.
Henty, G. A. A March on London: A Story of Wat Tyler's Insurrection. Scribners. $1.50.
Hopkins, A. A. Magic: Stage Illusions and Scientific Diversions. New York: Munn & Co. $2.50.
Jerrold, Walter. Bon Mots of the Eighteenth Century. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan.
Keigwin, H. W. The Elements of Geometry. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Knackfuss, H. Kunstler-Monographien: Botticelli, Chodowiecki, Franz Hals, Holbein der jungere, Rubens. Bielefeld: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Kroeh, Prof. C. F. Three-Year Preparatory French Course. First Year. Macmillan. 65c.
Leighton, Robert. The Golden Galleon. Scribners. $1.50.
Le Queux, William. The Eye of Istar: A Romance of the Land of the No-Return. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Lockyer, J. N. The Dawn of Astronomy. Macmillan. $3.
Lush, C. K. The Federal Judge. A Novel. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Mac Coun, Townsend. The Holy Land in Geography and in History. 2 vols. New York: The Author. $2.
Meigs, Dr. A. V. The Origin of Disease. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Meredith, George. Selected Poems. Scribners. $1.75.
Mitchell, D. G. English Lands, Letters, and Kings. The Later Georges to Victoria. Scribners. $1.50.
Murché, Vincent T. Science Readers. Vols I. and II., each 25c.; vols. III. and IV., each 40c. Macmillan.
Natural History. [The Concise Knowledge Library.] Appletons.
Newberry, Fannie E. A Son's Victory: A Story of the Land of the Honey-Bee. Boston: Pilgrim Press. $1.50.
Newberry, Fannie E. Bubbles. Boston: A. I. Bradley & Co. $1.25.
Phillpotts, Eden. Lying Prophets. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.25.
Poole, R. L. Historical Atlas of Modern Europe. Part X. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Potter, Rev. H. C. The Scholar and the State. Century Co. $2.
Randolph, Harriet. Laboratory Directions in General Biology. Henry Holt & Co. 80c.
Robinson, R. E. Uncle Lisha's Outing. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Royce, Prof. Josiah. The Conception of God. Macmillan. $1.75.
Rudd, Mrs. Jean Porter. Bas' Theres: A Narrative-Drama of Tirol. Norwich, Conn.: "Bulletin" Press.
Shelton, W. H. The Last Three Soldiers. Century Co. $1.50.
Stables, Dr. Gordon. The Naval Cadet. London: Blackie & Son; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Stephenson, Prof. Andrew. Syllabus of Lectures on European History. Terre Haute, Ind.: Inland Publishing Co. $1.50.
Stockton, F. R. Rudder Grange. Illustrated. Scribners. $1.50.
Streamer, Volney. Voices of Doubt and Trust. Selected. Brentanos
Stubbs, Rev. C. W. Historical Memorials of Ely Cathedral. London: Dent; New York: Scribners. $2.50.
Syms, L. C. Third Year in French. American Book Co. $1.20.
Tarver, Francis. French Stumbling-Blocks and English Stepping-Stones. Appletons. $1.
The American Railway: Its Construction, Development, Management, and Appliances. Scribners. $3.
The Monument to Robert Gould Shaw. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Thurston, I. T. Kent Fielding's Venture. Boston: A. I. Bradley & Co. $1.25.
Thwaites, R. G. The Jesuit Relations. Vol. VIII. Quebec, Hurons, Cape Breton. 1634-1636. Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co.
Topham, Dr. T. W. Health of Body and Mind. Brooklyn: The Author.
Townsend, E. W. Near a Whole City Full. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.25.
Tricker, William. The Water Garden. New York: De la Mare Printing Co. $2.
Van Zile, E. S. The Dreamers, and Other Poems. F. J. Neely.
Wakefield, Hugh. Desmonde, M.D. G. W. Dillingham Co. 50c.
Webb, M. de P. The Great Power: The Necessity for Monetary Reform. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.
Wells, Prof. B. W. Von Moser's "Der Bibliothekar." Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30c.
Wellwood, John. Norman Macleod. [Famous Scots.] Scribners.
Wenley, Prof. R. M. An Outline Introductory to Kant's 'Critique of Pure Reason.' Henry Holt & Co. 75c.
Winthrop, Robert C., jr. A Memoir of Robert C. Winthrop. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 7, 1897.

The Week.

The Monetary Commission, of which ex-Senator Edmunds is chairman, has organized itself in three sub-committees and prepared a list of questions upon which it has solicited the opinions of business and professional men. The list has been sent especially to those who have given attention to the subject in hand and have acquired reputation as instructors therein. It was found impossible within the limited time, and with the means at the disposal of the Commission, to go about the country, hiring rooms and taking testimony like an investigating committee of Congress. Nor is it certain that the best results would be achieved by such means, since all the facts that are needed are within reach at Washington city and are presumably in possession of the members already. A roving commission would be likely to accumulate a great amount of lumber which it could not use, since everybody who has a plan of his own for straightening out the national finances would insist upon being heard orally. Few Americans are without such a plan, and in that fact lies the main difficulty. If questions of public finance were left solely to those who understand them, as is the case in most civilized countries, there would be no monetary question now and no need of a monetary commission. The present Commission does well, therefore, not to expose itself to personal contact with all the cranks who would like to give a public airing to their respective systems.

To the three sub-committees are assigned the three branches of the main subject, viz.: (1) metallic currency; (2) demand obligations of the Government; (3) banking. The first has to deal with the standard of value—to decide whether it shall be gold, or silver, or what is commonly called the double standard, but is really the alternate standard. This will necessarily include the question whether international bimetallism is practicable. The second deals with the outstanding paper greenbacks and Treasury notes of the United States, but not necessarily with the silver certificates—these being merely warehouse receipts for silver dollars held on storage by the Government. As the Government has promised to keep the dollars at par with gold, the certificates will be at par as long as the promise is fulfilled. The third sub-committee deals with bank issues only, but this question is the most complicated of all, and upon its right solution depends the success of the whole investigation.

The degradation in which Bryanism has involved the Democratic party of the nation could not be more vividly illustrated than by the contrast between the State convention in Massachusetts on Tuesday week, which nominated George Fred Williams for Governor, and the gathering of National Democrats which made William Everett a candidate for the same office on Thursday. Williams is a perfect type of the harum-scarum men who have come into control of the "regular" organization; and the noisy convention, which required the intervention of the police to save it from riot, fitly represented the lawless tendencies which Bryanism develops. On the other hand, the gathering of National Democrats included a large number of the men who helped William E. Russell to his three elections as Governor, and it nominated in William Everett a candidate for the same position who would adorn the office. Dr. Everett's address of acceptance and Moorfield Storey's speech as chairman of the convention fully vindicated the policy of those Democrats who cannot support Bryanism and who are equally opposed to modern Republicanism. The Republican State convention, which was sandwiched in between the other two, had nothing to do except to renominate the full ticket of State officials now in place. Gov. Wolcott has made an excellent executive, and his reëlection is, of course, assured. The platform on which he stands says the first good word for Mr. McKinley's attitude towards the civil-service law which has yet come from a Republican convention in any State, commending him for, "under severe pressure for place, not merely maintaining, but wisely extending, the merit system in our civil service." It was, however, unworthy of the gold sentiment of the Bay State to praise him also for "instituting an honest search for honest bimetallism, which an international agreement alone can effect," when there is not an intelligent man in the State but recognizes the humbug of the roving Wolcott-Stevenson-Paine commission.

The significance of the nomination of Gen. Tracy against Seth Low—in fact, the significance of the whole anti-Low movement in the Republican machine—lies in the fact that the corporations which hold city franchises of one kind and another do not want Seth Low, or any man of that stamp, for Mayor. These and other corporations furnish money to the Republican boss to pay for what they call "protection," and the boss distributes it among the politicians who control the nominating conventions. This makes a self-working, self-perpetuating machine, and is the greatest menace to free institutions that exists anywhere in the world to-day. The managers of these corporations say that they must be protected against "strikers" in the Legislature, and that they must buy protection where it can be had. The only question with them is whether it will cost more to buy off the strikers after the Legislature meets or before it is elected. They have tried both ways, and they find the latter cheaper, more reliable, and less troublesome. "Protection," it should be remarked, means anything that they feel the need of. As long as they and the boss are the only ones concerned in defining the word, it may mean whatever they please. If they simply want to be let alone, that is protection. If they want something they do not now possess, or have grabbed it without authority and have been caught red-handed, then protection has one meaning to the public, but another meaning to the grabbers. If they want something that they cannot grab, but which they think they ought to have, then protection has a still different meaning.

The "Henry George movement" took shape on Friday evening, when his acceptance of the nomination for Mayor was received by the Bryan Democrats in convention assembled. Whatever this movement may prove to be in point of numbers, every vote that it musters will be taken from the Tammany ticket. Not one will come from the Gold Democrats, not one from the Republicans, not one from the Citizens' Union. The movement will, therefore, be welcomed by all the other parties except, possibly, the Platt machine, which will find its chances of a post-election deal with Croker dwindling in proportion as Tammany's voting strength is drawn away by the George movement. In a four-cornered fight Mr. Low's chances are decidedly the best.

Few more amazing things have occurred in New York city politics than the sudden appearance of ex-Mayor Grace and Francis M. Scott as parties to a disreputable "deal" with Tammany Hall. We use the term disreputable advisedly, for, if the plan which they undertook had succeeded, it would have involved the delivery in a body of the local oganization of the National or Sound-Money Democracy to Tammany Hall as the price of a Supreme Court Judge nomination for Mr. Scott. That this was the proposition is not our assertion, but that of Mr. Scott's political associates, and it is also his own virtual admission. Its success was thwarted by the refusal of the honest and self-

respecting men in the organization to submit to such a base betrayal. If Tammany had nominated a decent municipal ticket, the proposal might have been defended on reasonable party grounds, but, coming as it does on the heels of Van Wyck's nomination, there is absolutely nothing to say for it. It will fail, we have no doubt, utterly and overwhelmingly, when the organization reassembles this week. The Brooklyn section of the National Democracy has taken the only course which, as reputable men, the members of the party everywhere can take—that is, to declare in favor of Mr. Low. What excuse is there for delay? We know what Tammany proposes and we know what Platt proposes. We know also what Mr. Low stands for. Either the National Democracy is in favor of honest government or it is against it, and the member of it who desires more time in which to make up his mind is seeking something quite other than nonpartisan government.

It is not the least of the encouraging elements in the situation in this city that Tammany will be virtually without advocacy of its cause in the local press, provided, of course, that the old Tammany *Sun* does not return to its first love when it shall be forced to the alternative of doing that or favoring honest government. No newspaper of any character or influence is in favor of the restoration of Croker and Sheehan, and this absence of support will be a serious loss in the campaign. In fact, we begin to see already how great a change has been wrought in public sentiment during the past few years in regard to municipal government. It is a much more difficult thing now than it ever was before for a newspaper or a politician of character or a citizen of repute to take sides with Tammany Hall, especially when Tammany Hall does not think it necessary to put on an appearance of decency. As the campaign advances, we shall have more evidence of this kind, for every day's discussion will make the issue clearer. It is not conceivable that there is in the enlarged city a majority of voters who are willing, when the choice is laid so plainly before them, to select the worst possible kind of government in place of the best.

The Pennsylvania courts continue to annul laws passed by the Legislature on the ground of their obvious unconstitutionality. The last act thus overthrown was a particularly flagrant attempt to tamper with the ballot law. It provided that the name of any candidate should not appear more than once upon the ballot to be voted at any election. The practical effect of such a restriction, as has already been illustrated, would be to prevent the Democrats of Philadelphia from putting their judicial candidates on their ticket because the Republicans had been before them in nominating the same men, and to debar the Democrats of Schuylkill from renominating and having on their ticket a judge of their own party because the Republicans had renominated him first. The absurdity and injustice of such a provision are obvious, and it is most fortunate that the courts find it as obnoxious to the Constitution as it is to common sense and fair play.

Senator Morrill begins the publication in the *Forum* of some "Notable Letters" which he has received from public men. He includes a few written on the tariff in 1860-'62 by Henry C. Carey. The tariff of those days was of pre-historic simplicity and moderation, compared with the tariff as we now know it, but even then one thing was needed which is needed now. "Nothing less than a dictator," wrote Mr. Carey in 1860, "is required for making a really good tariff. Would to Heaven you or I could fill the place for a week!" The tariff-dictators have greatly increased and multiplied since those idyllic days. Not all of them are in Congress—many do their dictating by telegraph, many on manufacturers' letter-heads, some from Wall Street. Latest developments, however, look as if even the dictator would have to yield to the thimble-rigger in tariff-making. Mr. Nimmo informs us that "as much true Americanism" was put into section 22 of the Dingley bill as is to be found "in all the other sections of the act combined." Yet this true Americanism was not put into the bill by a dictator, but by a midnight trick, a juggler legislator. Thus a new era in tariffs opens before us. We still need a dictator to make Congress vote, but we need also a head trickster to manipulate in secret the bill which Congress passes without knowing what it is.

The interest which moves the Government to let the decree of foreclosure in the Union Pacific Railroad case, which has been entered in the United States Circuit Court, stand undisturbed, lies in the fact that the Government needs the money. It makes a difference of nearly $46,000,000 in a pinch whether the decree of foreclosure is allowed to stand or whether an appeal is taken. Considering the dreadful botch, or series of botches, which Congress has made in its attempts to deal with this problem, it must be regarded as a piece of extraordinary good luck to the present Administration that its predecessor took the responsibility of coming to a settlement with the insolvent company. Instead of leaving matters to drift, thereby prolonging litigation and multiplying lawyers' fees and other expenses, and perhaps dismembering the property altogether, the terms of a decree of foreclosure were agreed upon, without attempting, however, to prevent the McKinley Administration from reopening the question by appealing to the Supreme Court if it should elect to do so. The matter was left in such shape that if Mr. McKinley's Attorney-General does nothing, the sum of $46,000,000 will presently drop into the Treasury, and the Government will be relieved of something which has been a nuisance to it for a great many years. Moreover, Congress will be relieved of a problem which it has shown itself incapable of solving, and the country will be spared a future torrent of words from Senator Morgan of Alabama.

If Neal Dow, who died on Saturday at a great age, had died thirty or thirty-five years ago, he might have departed with the comforting conviction that he had discovered the most effective way to repress the liquor traffic. For some time after "the Maine law" went into operation, it was possible for a sanguine believer in the policy of State prohibition to claim that legislation would cure the evil. For many years past, however, the veteran champion of this system has been forced to admit that the law was openly violated in the cities and large towns, and that each new Legislature must pass some more rigorous statute on the subject, only to find that this had failed as badly as its predecessors. The fact is now confessed by all candid residents that prohibition as a State measure is an utter failure, and that Maine would be far better off with a local-option system, under which towns opposed to the liquor traffic could forbid it, and those where it flourishes would impose a proper tax or license fee.

Advocates of Hawaiian annexation are much relieved to hear that the Sugar Trust has withdrawn its opposition to the treaty. Just how the thing has been arranged is not clear; but simultaneously in Honolulu and San Francisco it is announced that, somehow, Spreckels has been "squared," the island planters have been let into the "deal," and now all is clear sailing. If this is so, we shall expect the Senate to return at once to its high moral plane in discussing annexation. There was, for a time, a mercenary tinge to the debate, which must have pained Senators—there was much talk of the selfish opposition of beet-sugar growers and sugar refiners, and hints that there would be something substantial "in it" for certain Western Senators if they could beat the treaty. It is well if all this is now removed from the debate, and if it can again dwell upon the lofty morality of 3,000 aliens giving away the territory and sovereignty of 97,000 natives and residents. We are glad also to see that Senator Morgan is already in the field with the argument from high naval strategy. He knows now beyond a peradventure just how

the great circles and the radii cut the Hawaiian islands, for he has been there himself and had his foot right on the intersection.

Those who expect any great change in the Cuban situation from the accession of a Liberal ministry in Spain would do well to recall certain facts. One is that the present Cuban rebellion broke out under a Liberal Prime Minister—under Sagasta himself—and that he was doing his best to put it down with a hard hand when he fell from power in 1895. Another is that the "reforms" for Cuba again promised are not likely to appease discontent now, after two years' fighting, any more than they did when first offered by Sagasta three years ago, before there had been any fighting at all. Nothing showed more clearly the refractory nature of this insurrection than the fact that it broke out right on the heels of a vote by the Cortes of the largest measure of self-government ever offered by Spain to a colony. Since then even more extensive concessions in the line of home rule have been proposed by the Conservative Government, but have had no effect in diminishing the intensity or cruelty of the war in Cuba. That sore, evidently, cannot now be poulticed by a grant of autonomy. Furthermore, the change of political leadership in Spain cannot have altered the policy which Mr. McKinley and his advisers have determined upon in respect to Cuba. That policy, whatever it is, was deliberately adopted weeks ago, and Gen. Woodford's instructions were framed, not for this Prime Minister or the other, not for Conservative or Liberal government as such. They cannot be changed, as, indeed, it is announced from Washington that they will not be, by Sagasta's return to power.

While the new Spanish cabinet has not the names of some of the abler Liberals who it was supposed would have portfolios, it seems to be strong at the critical points. The new Minister for Foreign Affairs is not, it is true, a man known for commanding ability, but in any case Sagasta would have to be his own Minister for Foreign Affairs, as Cánovas was before him. But his Minister for the Colonies, Señor Moret, who will have to look after the vexing details of Cuban and Philippine affairs, is a Liberal of distinguished services and great influence. Both he and Sagasta have lately exposed themselves to the charge of being unpatriotic by severely criticising the policy of the Conservatives in foreign affairs, and by asserting that, despite the official reports, matters were going badly in Cuba and the Philippines. How truly do such utterances look to a change of policy, now that the Liberals are in power? Or did they simply indicate a wish to gain power? That the latter was the case, to a considerable extent at least, Spaniards themselves, when talking not for publication, will not deny. But the greatest difficulties in the way of a real change of policy respecting Cuba are, of course, the pride of the Spanish people, and the fatal inertia of the administrative and military machine.

A correspondent of the London *Times* makes some illuminating comments on Gov. Smith's proposal to use the permission given in the act of 1844 to the Bank of England to hold part of its reserve in silver. He shows from Sir Robert Peel's speeches when introducing the bill in 1844, and in amending it in 1848, that what Peel had in mind was the possibility at that time of liquidating obligations to France profitably in silver, owing to the fact that, under the French bimetallic law, silver was now and then overvalued in Paris. Peel wished the Bank of England, in short, to be able to get the benefit of this whenever it happened. Another reason Peel assigned was, that it might be well to have a stock of silver ready for shipment to the East, especially India. Of course, this is now totally unnecessary. Dealers stand ready at a hundred points to ship silver by telegraph to anybody who is foolish enough to want more of it. In fact, it would appear that Mr. Smith never took the trouble to look up the original reason of the permission to keep some silver in reserve. The conditions have totally changed. There is no profit to be made on the Continent by sending silver over. If anybody now sees silver coming to him instead of gold, he tries to make his escape, and the Bank's keeping it in reserve is about as necessary as keeping copper and iron would be.

The Greeks find the treaty concluded by the Powers, over their heads, fixing the amount of damages they have to pay for the fun of making war on the Turks, and creating foreign control of their finances, too much for their stomachs. On its submission to the Boulé, not for ratification, but for approval, confidence in the ministry was refused by a vote of 90 to 30, and Mr. Ralli's resignation followed. The treaty has made the situation a little better than it was, but not much. The money has still to be paid, and the Turk has agreed to leave Thessaly a month after he gets it. But if anything about the Turk can be learnt from experience, he will not leave Thessaly. He was bound far more solemnly than he is now—for he had to face Gladstone and Bismarck—in 1881 to give Thessaly to Greece, and he agreed to do so; but he did not do so until Gladstone got ready to use force. There is no Gladstone now, or Bismarck either, and if the Turk leaves Thessaly until somebody threatens or attacks him, he will do what he has never done before. Turkish territory has never been ceded except under the guns of a conqueror, and we greatly fear the Greeks may pay their money long before they get Thessaly. The Sultan is sure to find some excuse for not evacuating, and he will then wait to see whether he is going to be compelled; but who will undertake the job of compelling him? Jingoes have done much mischief in their day, but we doubt if anywhere else they have brought so much ruin on a community as they have brought on Greece. When the Powers met to consider the case of Crete, autonomy and the withdrawal of the Turkish garrison would doubtless have come before long, and then annexation to Greece would probably have soon followed, for nobody would have interfered to prevent it. But the Athenian Jingoes felt that, without a war, the national character would run down. So, like true Jingoes, without stopping for a moment to count the cost, they rushed into the field, and were broken like spray on the bayonets of the silent and resolute Ottomans. The crisis is pitiful and it is not over.

The prosecution of the Frankfort *Zeitung* for *lèse-majesté* in criticising the course of Emperor William is one of the most daring steps yet taken in the campaign for the suppression of free speech in Germany. It may be Bismarck's turn next, or that of his personal organ, the Hamburg *Nachrichten;* they have certainly made some dangerous suggestions lately that the Emperor was not absolutely all-wise and infallible. But it is gratifying to observe that the German people are not going to lie down tied hand and foot and gagged under the boot-heels of their swashbuckling Kaiser. The sharper the policy of repression, the more ominous the rumblings in all parts of the empire. All observers agree that political unrest in Germany is reaching a dangerous pitch. Prof. Rheinhold of the University of Berlin lately said with truth: "Things have come to such a pass that almost everybody in Germany belongs to the Opposition." All this is, of course, water for the mill of the Social Democrats. But the Liberals, too, are beginning to bestir themselves. They lately held a meeting at Nuremberg, where the liberalism of the North, led by Richter, struck hands with the discontented and almost revolting South Germans. The choice of Nuremberg for the place of gathering was significant, as was explained by one of the speakers, Herr Schmidt, a member of the Reichstag. He said:

"Nuremberg showed, some centuries ago, how vengeance is taken upon robber barons. In that good fight it was not the peasant but the lord who was crushed to powder. In the city hall, where lately banqueted a company of princes, one reads the inscription: 'Suprema lex salus populi.' Let us adopt this motto, for the council of Nuremberg, which caused it to be placed there, was itself also an authority by divine right!"

ANNEXATION, HAWAIIAN STYLE

We have received the full press report of the proceedings of the Hawaiian Senate on September 8 and 9 in ratifying the treaty of annexation. An impartial summary of the reports, speeches, and acts should be of interest to Americans, whose part in annexing remains to be played. It will at least help to dispel some illusions.

The Hawaiian Senate was summoned in extra session on September 8, for the sole and express purpose of ratifying the treaty. On September 6 a mass-meeting of anti-annexationists was held in Honolulu, and adopted resolutions, of which the more important were the following:

"Whereas, The native Hawaiians and a large majority of the people of the Hawaiian Islands have been in direct opposition to the annexation of Hawaii to the United States of America; and,

"Whereas, The native Hawaiians and a large majority of the people of these islands have fully believed in the independence and free autonomy of these islands and in the continuation of the government of Hawaii as of a free and independent country governed by and under its own laws; therefore, be it

"Resolved, We, who in mass-meeting assembled on the 6th day of September, A. D. 1897, at the city of Honolulu aforesaid, for ourselves, and for and on behalf of the people of Hawaii, as well as for the large majority of the people of the Hawaiian Islands, earnestly protest against the annexation of Hawaii to the United States of America in any form or shape."

The next day, September 7, a committee of fifteen, mostly natives, waited upon the President and cabinet to lay this protest before him. President Dole said he was sorry the resolutions had not been brought to him "several days ago," for then he "might have had more time to think about it." As it was, there was the Senate called to meet the next day, and the "time for consideration was very short." The Government was there "to look after the rights of the people," and it was certainly "right for the people to express their views." Then he shook hands cordially with the committee, and, after the Attorney-General had said how glad he was, too, to "have the people express their views," that part of annexation was safely and satisfactorily over.

The natives, nevertheless, lodged their protest with the Senate committee on foreign relations. But that body pointed out in a special report that the protest was evidently intended to prevent the President and cabinet from giving their approval to the treaty. The President and cabinet had, however, already approved the treaty, so that the protest was evidently not in order. Besides, the committee were "firmly and sincerely of the opinion that, in refusing to ratify the treaty, we would not be acting for the benefit more especially of the native Hawaiians." It was clear, therefore, that the natives were protesting "on the grounds of sentiment," and the only thing to do with their protest was to lay it on the table, which was done by unanimous vote.

Then came up the main report of the committee advocating ratification. This was argued for on the explicit ground that "the experiences of recent years have shown that, under the changed conditions which have resulted from circumstances beyond human control, good government cannot be permanently maintained in these islands without aid or assistance from without." Furthermore, the committee was convinced that from "the benefits received" and "to be received," the United States was the government to which "we must turn for assistance of every kind." It had been through the "agency of Anglo-Saxon civilization" that "progressive institutions" had been established in Hawaii, and it was "for the benefit of all" that these institutions should be maintained.

In the debate on the report, Senator Brown said that he had long been against annexation, but latterly had "grown satisfied that the salvation of the country and the people was to be obtained through annexation." Moreover, in addition to salvation, "prosperity" was to be obtained, and therefore he was prepared to vote for ratification "with pleasure." Senator McCandless followed, asserting that annexation was a "vital necessity," and that the Hawaiians opposed it "through mere sentiment," most strangely not giving a thought "to the prosperity which will be theirs." Senator Schmidt also said he favored the treaty, and then the debate was about to close; further remarks might have excited the fear in Speaker Reed's bosom that the Hawaiian Senate is a deliberative assembly. But an untimely interruption came from Minister Damon of the Finance Department. He rose and said:

"I understand that the adoption of the report of the committee carries with it all the views expressed therein, and these views naturally will be made public through the press of the United States. As a Hawaiian, one who has been identified with the government since its inception, I cannot agree with the committee in saying that good government cannot be maintained in the Hawaiian Islands unless we have support from without. In that expression we are tacitly admitting that we are unfit to become a part of the great republic across the sea. In view of the events of the past four years, in view of the support given the Government by men of all classes at the time when its safety was threatened, and in view of the fact that the Government of Hawaii has grown steadily stronger since its formation, and in view of the reports that have been sent abroad as to the strength of our position, I say that in the adoption of that clause of the report we would be stultifying ourselves. I believe it unwise to endorse that part of the report. It is one of the statements so often made in the opposition press, and the one which our friends have so strenuously denied in our behalf."

In a similar vein spoke the Attorney-General and the Minister of Foreign Affairs. But they were roughly put down by the impatient Senators. Senator Baldwin said: "Things have been getting worse here on the islands for the past few years, and that is what has made me an annexationist." Senator Brown remarked: "The Minister of Finance is wrong; no form of government, monarchical or republican, can thrive under that flag [the Hawaiian], and for that reason, I say, we want the United States to take us." There being "no other remarks," the motion to ratify was put and carried unanimously.

The situation was described the next day by the *Hawaiian Gazette*, the faithful organ of the missionaries and of annexation, in language which we commend to the attention of our ardent annexationists. Of "the native," the *Gazette* says that he "looks with simple, childlike thought, dazed and perhaps wondering at it [annexation], as if it were a strange, mysterious act." The part-Hawaiians, "innocent victims of the contact, almost criminal, of the stronger and weaker races," naturally "take a wider vision." They hear "the rough voices of the aggressive race coming over the sea"; this makes them "pathetic." The Chinese look upon annexation as bringing them "further humiliations." The Japanese see in it something which will "cripple their commerce, and prevent their freedom of travel and residence." "The intelligent Portuguese" think annexation will give them "a large share in the local government." The "few remaining missionaries see in it the wheels of the juggernaut of modern progress passing over the little autonomy which they labored to create and preserve." The only thoroughly satisfied element of the population is, according to the *Gazette*, "the recent Anglo-Saxon"; and he is satisfied because he sees in annexation "a firmer footing for the god of the world, gold," and because he beholds "a writing over every mountain and valley side, 'Good Business Chances Here.'"

The only comment we have to make at present on this story of annexation, Hawaiian style, is that this "republic" which now offers itself to the United States, "unfit" and "stultified" in the language of its own Minister of Finance, is, on the face of it, a sham republic, a confessed fraud and failure. Less than 3,000 of the "recent Anglo-Saxon" are pretending to have a right, and are brutally exercising it, to dispose of the lives and fortunes of 25,000 Japanese, 24,000 Chinese, 15,000 Portuguese, 40,000 Hawaiians. And they are doing it under the proud device, "Good Business Chances Here"!

MR. NORTH ON THE TARIFF.

A very remarkable explanation and defence of the Dingley tariff law is that which is published by Mr. S. N. D. North, Secretary of the Wool Manufacturers' Association. Mr. North served as Secretary of the Senate committee on finance during the preparation of the Senate bill in the last session of Congress, so that his views and utterances

may be regarded as semi-official and as expressing the general sense of the committee. Further, as a good and even extreme protectionist, Mr. North may be looked to for a defence of the protective features of the new tariff law, a task for which his experience with the committee eminently fitted him. We cannot do better than to summarize his article, generally using his own words.

The feature of the Dingley tariff which chiefly distinguishes it from prior tariffs is its "especial care" for the crude products. Hence the duties on foods, fibres, minerals, crude substances of any and every sort. The farmer has received a good share of the good things. "There was nothing asked in behalf of the farmer, in the way of increased rates, which was not given to him." And after reading Mr. North's article we conclude that nothing in the form of protection asked by the manufacturers was denied. Everywhere the demands met with favor, and duties of prohibition were granted in many cases. "The silk schedule is particularly severe in its application to the very light fabrics of Japanese origin which have recently so troubled our domestic manufacturers. They will have no trouble from them hereafter."

In the cotton schedule there was a contest over the duties on yarns, the manufacturers of finer fabrics claiming that they could not obtain the necessary yarns in this country. They wished moderate duties on the higher counts; but "the spinners insisted that they can and will make all numbers required; and they finally had their way about it." So in the textile fibre schedule a like difference of opinion arose. The manufacturers of linens, who are in a position to know, declare that there can be found in this country no flax suitable for spinning the yarns required for the linen-thread industry. On the other hand, individuals and associations in great numbers "renewed their promises of 1890 that they can and will, under adequate protection, raise as fine a fibre as comes from any part of the world." The higher duties on the raw fibres would have led to increased rates on manufactured linens; but a further increase was made on the plea that the "extraordinary increase of cotton mills in the South has resulted in a production of cotton cloth that exceeds the consuming powers of the people"; and, to save themselves, a few New England mills were experimenting upon linens. Hence the duties on fine linen yarns were lowered and those on linen cloths were raised—a different policy from that pursued in cotton yarns. Mr. North doubts whether adequate results will follow. Linen mills will not be built, but cotton looms will be superseded by linen looms. But "it is a well-known fact that even in the countries where the linen manufacture has flourished for centuries, it shows a steady tendency to decline. Linen feels the stress of the closer and closer competition of cotton, just as the wool manufacturer feels it." As to burlaps, Mr. North makes a curious admission. "If Dundee can make burlaps in competition with Calcutta, and without any duty, the United States can make them in competition with both, under a protection sufficient to cover the difference in labor-cost." Mr. North might explain why his doctrine of labor-cost works only in regard to the United States, and not in the competition of Dundee with Calcutta. The duties on ramie fabrics are "a recognition of the birth of a new textile industry"—somewhat prematurely, it may be thought.

Naturally, it is with the woollen schedule that Mr. North is most explicit. The manufacturers, he states, asked less, and have received less, protection from Congress in comparison with the other industries. They were in favor of free wool, and had derived great and peculiar advantages from the repeal of the wool duties by the law of 1894; but they were overborne by the demands of wool-growing States. In fact, the extravagant expectations of this wool-growing interest to exact prohibitory duties on foreign wools were defeated only by the belief that such duties would "shipwreck" the cause of protection. As it is, the wool-growers have secured higher all-round rates than had been given them by either house, acting separately. With a tinge of sarcasm, Mr. North adds: "It is due to their special representatives in both houses of Congress to say that the interests of the wool-growers were cared for with consummate ability from first to last."

As to the rates on raw wools, they are "relatively higher than those of the McKinley law at the time of its passage, and higher, in their ad-valorem equivalents, than under any previous tariff in our history." The carpet-manufacturers especially have made a fortunate escape, as their interests at one time were seriously threatened through the unreasonable demands of the wool-growers. Can it be that the eminent leader of the wool-growers, Judge Lawrence, is intended when Mr. North speaks of the "constant presence in Washington of professional mischief-makers, seeking to curry favor with wool-growers for business purposes, who devoted their time to the dissemination of misleading and false information on this subject"?

Nor was it by rates of duty only that the manufacturers claim to have suffered. Since 1867 the classification of wools has been by "blood" and not by use. Now the symmetry of that classification has been destroyed, and some wools, without a trace of merino blood, have been transferred from the carpet to the clothing class. This was done to appease the claims of the growers that carpet-wools were used in higher manufactures, to the exclusion of the better and more expensive grades. The duties on waste, shoddy, rags, and flocks "were all fixed in the interests of the wool-growers, and the manufacturers had nothing whatever to say about them." Yet these many changes have produced a scheme of duties satisfactory neither to wool-growers nor to manufacturers. The latter are disposed to make the best of the situation, and look forward hopefully to the future. It is not stated whether carpet-wools will be raised in this country under the new rates—a point of some importance. In the past they have not, and it is hardly possible the sheep will change their coats to conform to tariff rates.

It would be interesting to follow Mr. North in his detailed study of the woollen schedule, but too much space would be required to make the matter intelligible. This may be said, that in few cases have the consumer's interests been considered, and in nearly every item the highest attainable rate of duty has been imposed. If the wool-grower seems insatiate, the wool-manufacturer has been amply compensated for the new wool duties, and does not appear in any more moderate light than the grower. It is with complacency that Mr. North views the results, and expresses his belief that "it will be found in practical operation to be the most perfect woollen schedule which has ever been enacted." When to high rates of duty is added a provision authorizing appraisers to take the market value of the goods in the United States as a basis of value—the home as distinguished from the foreign value—it does seem as if the manufacturer had reason to be satisfied.

It is another example of the ingratitude of republics that, after this defence of the wool schedule of the Dingley tariff, Judge Lawrence, the First Consul of the Ohio wool-growers, publishes a letter protesting against the appointment of Mr. North as superintendent of the census, and saying, too, that "President McKinley cannot afford to make an appointment so objectionable to wool-growers." This means that, if he does appoint Mr. North, the wool-growers will knife him on the first opportunity.

THE IOWA CAMPAIGN.

If a modern Diogenes were seeking a man among the Republican leaders the present year, he would have a troublesome search, but his diligence would not be wholly in vain. One such would be found in the person of Mr. Leslie M. Shaw, Republican candidate for Governor of Iowa. This gentleman has declared himself for the gold standard without any ifs or buts. Not only so, but he has made the most effective speech for the gold standard that has been made this year in this or any other

country. We can recall nothing in the literature of the subject more convincing than his speech at Red Oak on Saturday week. In the discussions of the money question which have been so profuse and diffuse during the past quarter of a century, there has been an intense craving for simplicity and clearness of exposition, and the most successful writers, speakers, and pamphleteers have been those who have succeeded best in bringing these subjects to the comprehension of untrained minds. In this endeavor Mr. Shaw has succeeded so well that we must conclude not only that he has a perfect understanding of the rather abstruse subject in hand, but that his reasoning powers in general are of a high order. We shall give our readers a few examples of Mr. Shaw's quality.

That one of the hardest things to define is a standard of value we have seen by many ineffectual attempts to define it. Perhaps the most dismal of all was that of the Supreme Court of the United States in the legal-tender cases, where we were told by the mouth of Mr. Justice Strong that there is no such thing as a standard of value, but that "value is an ideal thing." Mr. Shaw thinks differently, and he puts his opinion in the condensed paragraph which follows:

"What is meant by a money standard? As we have seen, each standard coin is worth the material of which it is composed. By gold standard is simply meant that the value of our dollar is determined in a definite amount of gold, and not in a certain amount of silver, or copper, or brass, or iron, or lead. There is no reason why a United States dollar has its present purchasing power except the fact that the standard dollar contains a fixed amount of gold. Had the framers of our monetary system seen fit to put 12.9 grains of standard gold in a dollar, the purchasing price would be one-half of what it is now. The word dollar divorced from its associations means nothing. We come to know its value when we associate it with its purchasing power, and its purchasing power is determined by the value of the material of which the standard dollar is composed."

Mr. Shaw had previously referred to the silver dollars and shown how they were kept at par by the limitation of their quantity and by the action of the Treasury, paying a high compliment to the ex-Secretary, Mr. Carlisle, for his public declaration that he would redeem the silver dollar in gold if it should be necessary in order to prevent its depreciation. In connection with this, Mr. Shaw came perilously near to the line of Mugwumpery, saying that he had no sympathy with that school of politics which denounces everything that the opposition does, whether good or bad, and supports everything that its own party does, whatever its evil effect.

The assertion often made in our political campaigns, that there is not gold enough to do the world's business, finds an equally brief, complete, and convincing answer in Mr. Shaw's speech, to wit:

"How much gold is needed to do our business? Just enough for convenience in measuring and determining the value of our currency; enough for redemption purposes and enough to accommodate those who desire to hoard it. How many fifty-pound standard weights, such as is used on the large class of scales for weighing stock and produce, is it necessary to have? They are used to balance the scales and to keep the pound and ton from fluctuating. Just enough of these weights are essential to accommodate the business. Your cattle will weigh no more if the weighmaster have two or a dozen of these standard weights than if he has one. It is essential that he have one, and that this one is of the same weight as those in the market where you bought your cattle. If this weight fluctuates you will not be safe in buying cattle in one town and selling them in another."

Equally clear and cogent was Mr. Shaw's refutation of the oft-repeated charge that the banks have an interest in making money scarce in order to oppress debtors and obtain high rates of interest. He showed that exactly the opposite condition was essential to the prosperity of a bank, because plenty of money implies large deposits. If its profits depended on its own capital, it could make more money for itself by not being a bank. A bank is obliged to keep 25 per cent. of its capital unused in its own vaults, whereas an ordinary moneylender can make all of his capital earn interest all the time. In order to be on as good a footing as a private moneylender a bank must have deposits—the more the better. But deposits always shrink when money is scarce. The shrinking of the deposits is the very thing that makes a tight money market. Therefore, the banks have no motive to make money scarce, even if they could do so.

In his broad view of the philosophy of life Mr. Shaw is equally strong and sincere. Compare, for instance, the following paragraph with the blatherings of Bryan, Watson, and Coxey:

"All that any party, or any standard, or any legislation can do is to see to it that every man has an open field and a fair fight. It cannot exempt him from the fight. Fight he must, and the best that the Government can do is to see to it that no one strikes below the belt. From the beginning of time to the present and to the end of time those who earn and save will have, and those who refuse to earn or fail to save will come in empty. . . . We look at our child in the cradle, or our boy coming to manhood, and tremble at the consciousness that he must go into this relentless conflict, where every man is selfish, and win or lose, on his own merits. To the utmost of its ability let the Government protect him and see that he has fair play. While we do all this, we must demand that he enter the ring, put on the gloves, and stand up like a man."

In such wholesome ideas as these, when they find expression in the mouths of candidates for high office, rests the security for free institutions. We welcome Mr. Shaw's speech as a sign of courage in a State where that quality is much needed.

BLACKSTONE.—I.

To the ordinary reader old books are unknown books, and he may, if he choose, find in them the charm of novelty. It is at any rate worth while occasionally to take up some work which has instructed or charmed our forefathers, and, reading it in the free-and-easy spirit which we apply to the publications of to-day, try to estimate its real worth. Of few books does this remark hold more true than of 'Blackstone's Commentaries.' They are known by name to every one; they have supplied to successive generations the current truisms or platitudes on the subject of the English Constitution; portions of the 'Commentaries' are read by every student of English law, and 'Blackstone's Commentaries' constitute the one law-book which has become a part of the literature of the English people. Yet it is common knowledge that the Commentator does not now command anything like the veneration which at one time surrounded him. It is an ordinary and in one sense a true saying that we need a new 'Commentaries on the Law of England'; and though you will with difficulty find a modern work on the history or the theory of English law in which Blackstone's name is not mentioned, his most ardent admirers must confess that the references to the 'Commentaries' more often take the form of criticism than of eulogy, and that of recent times jurists and historians are apt to treat Blackstone mainly as the propounder of legal fallacies or the perverter of legal history. But the criticism or detraction of to-day is still overbalanced by the appreciation of a former generation. The admiration of Mansfield, of Burke, and of Gibbon cannot go for nothing, and none but the rashest of critics will venture to disdain an author who is never mentioned otherwise than with profound respect by Story, and whose work, it is said, first aroused the enthusiasm for law in the mind of Kent. It is, then, no waste of time if we attempt to fix Blackstone's true position in the English world of letters.

How does it happen that Blackstone is now depreciated, not to say underrated?

A partial answer to this inquiry is found in the statement, which is true though paradoxical, that the real Blackstone is rarely read even by professional lawyers. The practical utility of his work, and the reputation which it at once achieved, have detracted from Blackstone's permanent fame. The original book, which derives half its charm from its literary perfection, has of necessity become obsolete as a statement of existing law. Hence it has been edited and re-edited, and altered and realtered, till it has been, as a work of letters, completely spoiled, and the students who think themselves to be reading Blackstone are in reality reading a treatise about as like the original 'Commentaries' as would be an edition of Gibbon's 'Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire' which should have been not only edited but to a great extent rewritten, first by Milman and then by Merivale, and then should have been overloaded with an infinity of notes added by authors of very inferior quality. We may, indeed, say that, in England at any rate, Blackstone's 'Commentaries' have been transformed into Stephen's 'Commentaries,' and that this transformation has been a public calamity; it has spoiled the work of two men of equal but of very dissimilar genius. Serjeant Stephen did not possess the literary gifts of Blackstone, the Commentator was deficient in the lucid precision and the logical acumen of his editor. The literary beauty of the 'Commentaries' vanished under the attempt to import into them a precise statement of the whole law of England which Blackstone never in-

tended to provide for the students to whom he addressed his lectures, while the time and power spent by Serjeant Stephen on the rewriting of the celebrated 'Commentaries' might, if more happily employed, have supplied us with such a logical analysis of the law of England as could have been produced by the author of the celebrated 'Treatise on Pleading,' and could, in his day at least, have been produced by no one else. The first step to be taken by any one who wishes to appreciate Blackstone's genius is to read the 'Commentaries' as Blackstone wrote them, and, if possible, to read them unencumbered even by the notes of subsequent editors.

But even when the 'Commentaries' are studied in their original shape, it will soon become apparent to a candid reader that Blackstone's fame has suffered from his own defects or peculiarities. He is not an original thinker; his constitutional dogmas, for example, are taken from Locke and Montesquieu, and are not improved in the borrowing. He is not a subtle logician. His knowledge of Roman Law, to which he not infrequently refers, is superficial and not particularly accurate. He is a well-informed and competent English lawyer, but he does not rank among the writers, such as Coke, who may be cited as "authorities"; he is said not to have raised his reputation by his decisions as a judge, and since his time there have lived many lawyers and judges who have surpassed him both in legal learning and in logical acumen. His style, which excited the admiration of his contemporaries, and which would have been commended by Johnson, does not happen to suit the taste of to-day, though it must be left an open question whether it be Blackstone's style or modern taste which is at fault. His general way, moreover, of looking at the world, his dignified and complacent optimism, is strangely opposed to the sentiment no less of modern democrats than of modern conservatives. We are divided from Blackstone by the gulf of the French Revolution; and whoever wishes to measure the width and nature of this division cannot better attain his object than by investigating the difference between the tone of Blackstone and the tone of every modern writer on politics or sociology.

The main cause, however, of the comparative discredit into which the 'Commentaries' have fallen is that Blackstone, from his very celebrity no less than from some of his defects, became the object of attack to two different and opposed schools of thinkers.

To the Benthamites, Blackstone was from the first an object of detestation. Bentham, indeed, heard the lectures which formed the bases of the 'Commentaries,' but he must soon have detected that he was opposed to his teacher both in his methods and in his aims. The celebrated 'Fragment on Government' is the boldest and most trenchant critique ever published by a young man on the doctrines propounded by a writer of the highest reputation, which were accepted as profound truths by the educated world of the day; and though the 'Fragment on Government' is itself open to criticism, it contains one of those attacks which were completely successful. It is easy enough to see that Bentham is by no means a fair critic, and that a logician might perhaps devise a defence for some of Blackstone's positions; but it is impossible to read the 'Fragment' without arriving at two conclusions: first, that Blackstone is a lax, not to say an inaccurate, thinker, and next that in Bentham he has met with a controversialist of tenfold his own power. Few are the men who would not have come off second-best in a controversy with Jeremy Bentham when in the full vigor of his youth, but assuredly no writer of real talent was likely to suffer a more complete defeat than did Blackstone at the hands of such an antagonist.

It was not, however, the logical weakness of Blackstone's positions which impelled Bentham to assault them. What aroused his indignation was the Commentator's peculiar form of optimism. Bentham was a born reformer. Utilitarianism was to him a living and inspiring faith. From youth to old age he labored at the removal of actual and palpable abuses. He was much more than a mere denouncer of wrong; he was a patentee of devices for the improvement of society. But before his reforms could be adopted it was necessary to convince the world of the need for reformation. Now Blackstone, though a man of benevolence, was by nature and conviction an apologist for and admirer of things as they were. With complete sincerity he held that the British Constitution was not only by far the best of existing polities, but also as nearly perfect as could be any commonwealth. His work is from beginning to end either a eulogy or an apology. He grants that the Constitution or the law may have slight flaws, but they are flaws which, in the eyes of an adorer, either approach to or are the necessary price of beauties. He mitigates even the defects which his judgment disapproves. He has something to say in favor of the scheme which excludes brothers of half blood from inheriting from one another. He dislikes the *peine forte et dure*, but he contrives to make it appear an abuse of little consequence. The ruffian who knocks down his wife is, it is hinted by Blackstone, a man who has an excessive fondness for the Common and a jealous suspicion of the Civil Law. Here we may suspect a vein of grim pleasantry and recall the legend that the 'Commentaries' were always written over a bottle of port. But, however this may be, their author stood right in Bentham's path. "Blackstonism," if one may coin the word, was the sworn foe of "Benthamism," and the whole tribe of Benthamites strove, not in vain, to discredit a writer who embodied all the prejudices which delayed the triumph of the Utilitarian creed.

Utilitarianism has done its work—which, be it added, was both a necessary and a noble work—and Benthamism has ceased to be a living force. Its influence has, for the time at least, been destroyed by enthusiasts for the historical method. But the decline in the authority of Benthamism has not revived the fame of Blackstone, for the historical school of thinkers have looked unfavorably upon Blackstone. They have done very scanty justice to the skill with which he has blended the history of law with the exposition of legal doctrines, and they have noted with extreme severity historical misconceptions which were rather the common mistakes of Blackstone's generation than his own peculiar errors. It cannot, of course, be disputed that, if tested by a high standard, he will be often found deficient in historical knowledge or insight. He is deeply impressed with the close connection between English institutions and feudalism; but feudalism is to him a mere name for barbarism, just as Romanism and the authority of the Pope are in his eyes nothing but names for superstition and priestly arrogance. His historical views or conjectures are often at fault. He knows that the landholders of England swore allegiance to William at his great court at Salisbury, but he misunderstands the whole effect of the ceremony, and uses language which suggests that the Conqueror introduced the feudal system into England at the very moment when William prevented the full development in England of the feudal system.

Blackstone, again, has studied with care the history of copyholds, but the Blackstonian theory of the origin of the manor has been pronounced by later investigators to be untenable; and all that can be said in its defence is, that the rival theories which have been propounded in more recent times are also open to grave objections. He is convinced that the English Constitution, as it existed in his own time, is the result of "a gradual restoration of that ancient constitution, whereof our Saxon forefathers had been unjustly deprived, partly by the policy, and partly by the force, of the Norman." No view of English progress could, it must be admitted, be more opposed to the facts of history; but before we condemn Blackstone too severely, we ought to remember that this faith in what has been termed retrogressive progress has been cherished as a pious belief by one of the most distinguished of English historians. Under the influence of Montesquieu he is too apt to look upon the English Constitution as a fabric designed and built up by the wisdom of our ancestors. It is here we touch upon Blackstone's weakness. He is a true son of the eighteenth century. He judges the past by the sentiments or principles of his own day, and exhibits an unhistorical attitude of mind. Hence he in no way anticipates the reaction in favor of mediæval institutions and mediæval modes of thought. He therefore never alludes to the Middle Ages without using language which grates upon the feelings of writers imbued with the sentimental mediævalism of the nineteenth century. They are far less offended by Blackstone's definite historical errors, many of which are, after all, very venial, than by his general tone of mind.

He was an old Whig, or, in other words, a strong Conservative of the time of George the Third. He was detestable to Bentham because he did not share the enthusiasm for reform which was the religion of the eighteenth century. He can hardly obtain toleration from the modern devotees of the historical method because he was imbued with the principles and the prejudices of the eighteenth and not of the nineteenth century. Whoever will weigh carefully the words in which Blackstone concludes his 'Commentaries,' will understand why it is that he has never received full justice at the hands of the reformers of his own time or of the historians of to-day:

"Of a constitution," he writes, "so wisely contrived, so strongly raised, and so highly finished, it is hard to speak with that praise which is justly and severely its due; the thorough and attentive contemplation of it will furnish its best panegyric. It hath been the endeavour of these commentaries, however the execution may have succeeded, to examine its solid foundations, to mark out its extensive plan, to explain the use and distribution of its parts, and, from the harmonious concurrence of those several

parts, to demonstrate the elegant proportion of the whole. We have taken occasion to admire at every turn the noble monuments of ancient simplicity, and the more curious refinements of modern art. Nor have its faults been concealed from view—for faults it has—lest we should be tempted to think it of more than human structure; defects, chiefly arising from the decays of time, or the rage of unskilful improvements in later ages. To sustain, to repair, to beautify this noble pile, is a charge entrusted principally to the nobility, and such gentlemen of the kingdom as are delegated by their country to Parliament. The protection of THE LIBERTY OF BRITAIN is a duty which they owe to themselves, who enjoy it; to their ancestors, who transmitted it down; and to their posterity, who will claim at their hands this, the best birthright and noblest inheritance of mankind."

YELLOWSTONE PARK IN 1897.

September, 1897.

Capt. Anderson, who was Superintendent of the Yellowstone Park from 1891 to 1896, pointed out in his last report to the Secretary of the Interior that the total number of persons who visited the Park in 1895 was only 2,588. He attributed this to financial depression, the tendency of Americans to spend their summers in Europe, their general ignorance as to the wonders of their own country, and also, in part, to the long railroad journeys necessary to reach them. The present Superintendent, Col. Young, will be able to note a great improvement in the tourist business for 1897. About 9,000 sightseers were taken through the Park this season. Many of these, it is true, were Christian Endeavorers, and others who availed themselves of the cheap rates offered all travellers to the Pacific Coast and back in July and August. There were so many of these that at one time the agents had to stop selling Park tickets for ten days because the stages and hotels had all they could possibly attend to. Yet the officials believe that this Pacific Coast excursion does not account for all the increase, and that the travel through the Park will continue to be much larger than heretofore. Having spent the last three weeks in the Park, long after all the Christian Endeavorers and others had passed through it, I have come to the same conclusion. Favored by fine weather, the travel remained large to the last days, many of the belated tourists being eminent Englishmen—among them Lord Lister and Lord Kelvin (Sir William Thomson)—from the meeting of the British Association at Toronto; and to judge by their comments, they will help to popularize our wonderland abroad.

No one desires to make a Coney Island of the Yellowstone Park, yet there is no reason why it should not be seen by 50,000 or even 100,000 tourists every summer. Capt. Anderson overlooked the main reason why the Park travel has increased so slowly; namely, the disposition of the transportation and hotel companies to arrange matters to suit themselves instead of to suit the tourists. The situation has been, and is to this day, positively amazing, not to say outrageous. When an educated person hears the name Yellowstone, what image arises in his mind? The picture of a geyser, in every case. True, the Park is famed also for its beautifully colored Grand Cañon, its picturesque lake at an altitude of 7,741 feet, its extensive forests, high mountains, and numerous trout-brooks; but there are trout-brooks as good, forests much finer, mountains much grander, lakes quite as picturesque, elsewhere, while the Yellowstone Cañon, though unique in its coloring, has only one-third the depth of the Grand Cañon of the Colorado in Arizona, and is correspondingly inferior in sublimity. But in its geysers the Park has an attraction in which only two countries in the whole world—Iceland and New Zealand—compete with it, without equalling it. It is to see these geysers in particular that ninety-nine out of a hundred tourists visit the Park; yet, by the present arrangement, they are exceptionally lucky if they catch a glimpse of the finest of them, and many go home in consequence disappointed of their main object. Let me explain how the matter is managed at present.

In the Upper Basin there are about thirty superb geysers, all differing from each other in appearance and the manner of their eruption. It is to see these geysers that the tourists—supposing they live at the East—have come two thousand miles, have expended hundreds of dollars since leaving home, and have undertaken a five days' dusty stage ride. And having got there, what arrangements do they find for seeing them? A large hotel, with comfortable rooms, overlooking the whole Basin so that they can watch for an eruption and hasten down to see it close by—a hotel where they can spend a day or two, or a week, so as to make sure of enjoying the wonderful phenomena they have come so far to see? That is what every uninformed person would *expect* to find there. But what is there in reality? A small wooden shanty in which a poor lunch is served, while as for rooms, not one is to be had for love or money. But where do the tourists stay while they remain to admire the geysers? Stay? Foolish question! They do not stay at all. The stage gives them four or five hours, during which a hurried guide takes them hurriedly across the Basin, and if some of the geysers happen to play while they are being "done," the tourists are lucky. And after this short visit, part of which is given up to the aforesaid lunch, the tourists are hurried—on, of course? Oh no! Back ten miles to the Fountain Hotel, and next morning they have to get up at six and for the third time traverse those ten miles between the Lower and Upper Basins! And all this time the geysers they came so far to see may be playing merrily, unseen.

To be perfectly fair, it must be said that the transportation company is not to blame for this state of affairs. Indeed, it would be only too glad to dispense with two of the three trips between the two Basins. The hotel company is the culprit. A number of years ago it had a building at the Upper Basin, which was burnt down as soon as completed and has not been rebuilt. Why? Heaven only knows. The managers say their business has not been sufficiently profitable to allow the rebuilding of that hotel. But why were funds available for the fine buildings at the Lake and the Fountain—the Fountain, in particular, which, if things were properly arranged, would be a mere lunch station? Why not tear down the Fountain Hotel and rebuild it at the Upper Basin? Something must be done soon. Congress ought to compel the company to build that hotel. It would be the company's gain as well as the tourists'. At present many of the latter are disappointed, declare that the geysers (which they have not seen) are a fraud and a delusion, and on returning advise their friends to avoid the Park. I heard not a few comments of that sort during the three days I spent at the Upper Basin. Until the hotel company desists from its penny-wise policy, the public should patronize the opposition company. I did not know until I arrived at Livingston that there has been, for two years, a new way of traversing the Park, by the same route, but upon an entirely different and much more rational plan. Mr. Wylie of Bozeman has secured permission to erect permanent camps at various places in the Park, and to take tourists through on his own wagons. He has large tents, divided into compartments and equipped with stoves for cold nights. The food is plain but good, in the "home-made" style. Mr. Wylie charges $5 a day for transportation, lodging, and meals, and instead of rushing tourists through, as the stages do, in five days and a half, he gives seven days to the trip, allowing two nights at the Upper Basin and two at the Grand Cañon. Tourists who prefer the comforts of a hotel may still make use of Wylie's camp at the Upper Basin, where they may stay as long as they please, taking their chances of being carried on to the next station by the other company, though these chances are not as good as they might be.

The provoking capriciousness of the geysers may be inferred from the fact that the Grand, as the corporal on guard informed me, had not played from July 2 to September 2, whereas in the week we were there it played four or five times. It seems, unfortunately, that the biggest ones (always excepting Old Faithful) are becoming more and more capricious and indolent. The prevalent theory is that they have been injured by being secretly "soaped"—that is, by having soap thrown into the cones to bring on an eruption. This soaping is strictly forbidden, and rightly so, as it cannot be well to have any substance thrown into a geyser. I have, however, noticed a curious circumstance, which seems to have escaped the attention of the experts, as a more plausible explanation of the apparent misbehavior of the big geysers. Right by the side of the Bee Hive there is a new geyser, only a few years old. It is called the Cascade, because its waters overflow directly into the river, forming a cascade in their descent over the bank. It is a pretty sight, but it does not atone for the quiescent Bee Hive from which, I believe, it takes away its ammunition—its steam and water—by its eruptions, which occur every twenty minutes. In the same way, the Splendid has ceased to play since the formation, by its side, of the Daisy, which plays every two hours. The Giant, Grant, and others seem to be similarly drained by recent formations adjoining them and acting as safety-valves. Geologists use centuries as yard-sticks where we use years, and they discountenance the idea that the Yellowstone geysers will cease to gush in the not very distant future. Mr. Arnold Hague could find no diminution in the intensity of their action since they have been subject to careful observation. I have myself, however, noted some changes at Mammoth Hot Springs and the Upper Basin in the interval of ten years since last I was there; and in an apparently sober description of that basin written in 1842 ('Life in the Rocky Mountains') occur expressions like "loud explosions and sulphurous vapors," "tremendous noises," "hollow, unearthly rumbling under the rock on which I stood," which indicate

more violent action half a century ago than can now be witnessed.

If the geysers are decreasing in grandeur, there is the more reason why arrangements should be made at once to have these wonders as accessible as possible. A steam railway would be an atrocity: it would endanger the forests and frighten away the game; but an electric trolley would not be open to the same objections. The power could be secured cheaply and invisibly from the falls and rapids; it would do away with dust and discomfort, and it would enable tourists to devote one-fourth of their week in the Park to travel and three-fourths to sight-seeing, instead of three-fourths of the time to travel and only one-fourth to sight-seeing, as at present. Capt. Runcie of San Francisco, who has lately made the tour of the Park with Col. Young, estimates that an electric road would cost between $1,500,000 and $2,000,000. As the expenses for annual repairs would be heavy too, owing to winter storms and snow pressure, it is not likely that our embarrassed Government could be induced to build such a road. But private capitalists have offered to assume the risk, and I see no reason why they should not be allowed to do so. An electric car could make the whole circuit of the Park (about 150 miles) in seven or eight hours; visitors, therefore, could spend a week there, with only an hour of daily travel. It must be distinctly understood that the great sights of the Park are separated by wearisome stretches of commonplace scenery which nobody would ever visit for their own sake—chiefly dense forests, not of large, noble healthy firs and pines, as in Oregon and California, but of puny, starved trees, thin as lead pencils, and looking as if afflicted with some skin disease; the disagreeable impression being heightened by the dense tangle of dead and fallen trunks at their roots. They are extremely useful as conservators of the vast river-system arising among the Park mountains, since they retard evaporation by several weeks; but scenically they need distance to lend enchantment to the view. Capt. Chittenden says in his book on the Yellowstone Park that in 1892 a vote was obtained from the tourists of that season as to the desirability of having an electric road through the Park, and that "the result was a majority of more than five to one against it." He does not state who took the census and who those tourists were.

One thing that struck me on my trip through the Park was that there seems to be a regular conspiracy against the Lake Hotel. Yet I found that hotel by far the best of all, more commodious, tasteful, and homelike than any of the others, and the meals fifty per cent. better, though the source of supplies is the same for all. We remained in it eight days, and daily blessed the manager, the caterer, the cook, and the very attentive waiter girls, so superior to the colored waiters at most of the other hotels. For literary work I know no place equal to it in America, except the Californian Lake Tahoe. The tourists who allow themselves to be persuaded that it is not worth while to take in the lake make a great mistake. The stage company saves a day by taking them from the Fountain Hotel direct to the Cañon Hotel, but the tourists lose some of the finest sights in the Park. There is not in all the Americas a more picturesque lake than the Yellowstone, especially in the evening, when the setting sun illumines the fine mountain ranges that surround it. Capt. Waters, too, gives you a chance to sail across this lake, at an elevation a thousand feet higher than the top of Mount Washington, from the bay called the Thumb across to the admirable Lake Hotel, stopping on the way at Dot Island, where the Captain keeps for the entertainment of his passengers some elk, antelope, mountain sheep, and five superb buffaloes.

As everybody knows, the Yellowstone Park was reserved not only as a scenic wonderland, but with the intention of making it a grand historic game preserve where America's characteristic fauna might be saved from utter extermination. It is only within a few years, however, that a serious attempt has been made to enforce the law. For a time the keepers were practically in league with the poachers, and Col. Young has come to the conclusion that it is not enough to enforce the law, but that additional legislation is imperatively needed if the game is to be effectively preserved. The present forest reserve, east and south of the Park proper, is so only by Presidential proclamation, and an act of Congress is needed before the superintendent has the power to punish properly those who disobey his ordinances. Nor is this enough. The Colonel is convinced that the southern boundary of the Park should be extended down to Jackson's Lake and the Three Tetons. That region is a favorite autumn resort of the Park animals, and dozens of camping parties go there in September and slaughter them by wholesale. It is useless to stop up a leak in a bucket on one side if you allow the water to escape on the other. The State of Wyoming would probably not object to this enlargement of the Park, because it will make it a real breeding-place, the overflow of which will in future restock that State. Ten miles more or less is a mere bagatelle to a giant State like Wyoming. The Park is as big as the State of Connecticut, yet it seems but a microscopic corner of Wyoming.

Col. Young has been lately promoted, and, in the due course of military events, he should join his regiment. It is to be sincerely hoped, however, that a way may be found to preserve him to the Park. He is just the man needed there. Of course he has made enemies by strictly enforcing laws that had heretofore generally been current on paper only; but such enemies are a compliment to him. "Every one," he remarked to me one day, "agrees that the laws are all right, but he fancies *he* ought to be an exception to the rule. For instance, I allow no dogs to run loose on the Park roads, because they scare away the wild animals which visitors are eager to see. Campers have been in the habit of putting their dogs in a wagon on passing a guard-house, and letting them run as soon as out of sight. I ordered a few of these dogs to be shot, and that had a salutary effect. I allow no exceptions whatever. Another day one of my highest officers came to me and asked to have his horse released. It had been taken in because, contrary to law, it had been turned loose to graze. I informed the officer that he could have his horse as soon as he had paid the fine, adding that I did not turn loose *my* horses." From others I have heard similar stories about the Colonel, and they have convinced me that he is the right man in the right place.

Since dogs were suppressed in the Park, tourists have had ample opportunity to see deer, coyotes, squirrels, birds, and other animals along the roads and near the stations. The most interesting illustration of the rapidity with which wild animals can be tamed when firearms are banished is afforded by the scene that can be witnessed at the Fountain Hotel every evening. It is customary there at six P. M. to dump the kitchen garbage at a place a hundred yards behind the hotel. The bears soon found it out, and every evening from half a dozen to a dozen (once there were sixteen) now come down from the woods for their supper. There they are—black bears, a few cinnamons, occasionally even a grizzly—quietly munching the bones and fruit peelings, while a dozen or two of the hotel guests look on ten yards away. One soon gets used to the scene; some men feed the bears apples out of the hand, and we ourselves adapted our habits so soon to the situation that when we met a bear in the woods afterward we paid no more attention to him than if he had been a dog. In reality these bears are harmless animals, unless wantonly provoked. Col. Young has come to the conclusion that the coyotes ought to be thinned out, as they have begun hunting deer in packs. The bears, too, he thinks are getting superabundant, and he advocates catching some and distributing them to museums. He has made a beginning by sending a dozen cubs—with some pelicans, squirrels, geese, porcupines, etc.—to Washington.

Col. Young has also been obliged to forbid fishing in some parts of the Park, for the benefit of future visitors, as the sport is not as good as it used to be. Eastern readers find it difficult to believe the story that there is a place here where you can catch a trout in the lake and cook it in a hot spring without taking it off the hook or changing your position. I have known Europeans who simply refuse to believe this tale. Yet, as a matter of sober fact, there are at least a dozen such places in the Park. Several of them are at the Upper Geyser Basin, along the Firehole River. At one of these, just above the lower foot-bridge, you can not only cook a trout, but cook him in three ways—steam him, boil him in the water, or bake him on the hot rocks.

HENRY T. FINCK.

Correspondence.

JUDGE PARKER AND THE NATIONAL DEMOCRATS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your criticism on the action of the county committee of the National Democratic party in endorsing the nomination of Judge Parker strikes me as entirely just. As I wrote to one of the party leaders in New York, it seems to me that a consistent voter would really feel more inclined to support a Republican who had voted for Mr. Cleveland and was not ashamed of it, than a Democrat who considered it necessary to come out and assure "my dear Danforth" and the "sincere friends of Mr. Bryan" that he stood by their ticket last fall. If Judge Parker had remained silent, his cause would have been in no way compromised. Frankly, however, it was really not so much the consideration with me that he voted for Mr. Bryan as was the apparent fact that he is

"chummy" with a man of such shady reputation as he of Madison Square Bank fame.

Beyond these facts the necessity of preserving the autonomy of the party in this state should have had weight with the committee. The National Democratic organization of New York is entitled to no respect if it is not held to be on a much higher plane than that controlled by Messrs. Hill, Danforth, Murphy, Sheehan & Co. Inasmuch as the party holds its position now solely on account of the votes polled for Mr. Wheeler in 1894, when he was nominated as a protest against the candidacy of Hill, it would seem absolutely necessary to keep free from alliance with the people above named.

If the National Democrats should, by fusing, lose their place on the ballot at the election next year, it would mean that there would remain practically no agency through which independent sentiment could be expressed. The present outrageous law placed on the statute-book by Raines, requiring at least fifty signatures in every county in the State in order to make an independent nomination for State officers, would prevent any action by the people, and leave us entirely at the mercy of the corrupt machines controlled respectively by Mr. Platt and Mr. Hill. For this reason it is to be hoped that the "Ship" Democracy will keep in the middle of the road and go ahead, following its own lofty ideals, and avoid combinations with other organizations whose only aim seems to be to secure spoils.—Yours truly,

EDMUND H. TITCHENER.

BINGHAMTON, N. Y., October 4, 1897.

OREGON PLANTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am obliged to your Chicago correspondent for his rectification of my doubtless antiquated nomenclature of the Oregon plants mentioned. He may be interested to know that the yellow "bear's-food"—the *Symplocarpus Kamschaticus* of Bongart (*Lysichiton* of Schott, and *Dracontium* of others)—at least in British Columbia and Alaska, when bruised, has a very distinct mephitic odor, though less pungent than that of our Eastern skunk-cabbage. It far exceeds the latter in size; I have measured a single leaf four feet long, two feet wide, and with the leaf-stalk four inches in diameter.—Respectfully yours, W. H. D.

OCTOBER 2, 1897.

"RALLIÉS."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your critic (*Nation*, September 30) characterizes my translation of *ralliés* into "Mugwumps" as "well-meant but perverse and misleading." Permit me to say that that translation was furnished to me by a French diplomat, long a resident of America, and as well acquainted with the English-American language and politics as he is with his own. He told me that the word and the thing exactly matched in both countries. He is, also, a friend of Baron Pierre de Coubertin, the author of the book in question. On the whole, I am inclined to believe that "Rallié: Mugwump" will prove a valuable addition to the 'Dictionnaire de la Langue Verte' (which title, also, may not be translated literally with impunity!) of your readers. But, nevertheless, I should be glad to listen to argument from the other side.—Very truly yours,

ISABEL F. HAPGOOD.

NEW YORK, October 4, 1897.

[The word is some four years old in its cant application, and was originally applied to the body of voters, not quite homogeneous but mainly Catholic, who had previously been irreconcilably opposed to the republican form of government in France, but who were at last led to abandon their opposition to it and accept it as definitive. The Pope was thought to have been influential in this "rallying" to the republic of its former enemies; and if he were to exercise the same influence in Italy and release the consciences of King Humbert's Catholic subjects who are held to abstinence from politics by the injunction, "Nè elettori nè eletti" (so long as the Pope is deprived of his temporal sovereignty), there would be added to the electorate not a mass of independents, of Mugwumps, surely, but of Catholic partisan voters seeking to promote the cause of religion and the papacy as best they might under the Savoy monarchy, accepted as legitimate and final.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

Longmans, Green & Co.'s autumn announcements include 'The Liberty and Free Soil Parties in the Northwest,' by Theodore C. Smith, Ph.D., and 'A Bibliography of British Municipal History,' by Charles Gross, Ph.D.—new volumes in the Harvard Historical Series; 'The Life of Stonewall Jackson,' by Lieut.-Col. G. F. Henderson, York and Lancashire Regiment, in two volumes; the fourth and concluding volume of Dr. Liddon's 'Life of Edward Bouverie Pusey, D.D.'; 'The Life of Chauncy Maples, D.D., Bishop of Likoma (British Central Africa),' by his sister, Ellen Maples; 'Drake and the Tudor Navy,' by Julian Corbett; the second volume of Gardiner's 'History of the Commonwealth and the Protectorate'; further volumes in the "Builders of Great Britain" series; a select "Library of Historical Novels and Romances," edited by Lawrence Gomme, and arranged chronologically according to sovereigns, each with an introduction; 'The Water of the Wondrous Isles,' a prose romance by William Morris; 'Suffolk Tales and Other Stories,' by the late Camilla Gurdon; 'Early Italian Love Stories,' edited and retold by Una Taylor; 'The Diary of Master William Silence: A Study of Shakspere and of Elizabethan Sport,' by the Right Hon. D. H. Madden, Vice-Chancellor of the University of Dublin; 'The Queen's Hounds, and Stag-Hunting Recollections,' by Lord Ribbesdale, Master of the Buckhounds, 1892-'95; 'Racing and Chasing,' by Alfred E. T. Watson; 'A Book of Dreams and Ghosts,' 'The Pink Fairy Book,' and 'Wordsworth'—first of a new series of selections from the poets—by Andrew Lang; an entirely new edition of 'The Spectator,' in eight volumes, crown octavo, edited by George A. Aitken; 'Rameau's Nephew,' from the French of Diderot, by Sylvia Margaret Hill; 'Rampolli,' translations, new and old, from the German by George Macdonald; the first volume of a 'History of Intellectual Development on the Lines of Modern Evolution,' by John Beattie Crozier; 'The Origin and Growth of Plato's Logic,' by Prof. W. Lutoslawski of the University of Kazan; 'Teaching and Organization,' with special reference to secondary schools; and 'Parables for School and Home,' brief readings in applied morals, by Wendell P. Garrison, with pictorial illustrations.

Harper & Bros. will shortly publish 'The Personal Equation,' essays chiefly in literary criticism, by Prof. Harry Thurston Peck of Columbia University.

A Life of Prof. Henry Drummond, by George Adam Smith, will bear the imprint of the Doubleday, McClure Co.

Thomas Whittaker announces 'Potters, their Arts and Crafts,' by John C. L. Sparkes of the South Kensington Museum, and Walter Gandy.

The American Book Co. will publish 'A New Astronomy for Beginners,' by Prof. David P. Todd of Amherst.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, have in press 'Stories from Italy,' by Miss G. S. Godkin, and 'A Little House in Pimlico,' tales for children by Miss Marguerite Bouvet.

'Buddhism and its Christian Critics,' by Dr. Paul Carus, will be issued next month by the Open Court Publishing Co.

The Catholic Art Publishing Co. of Philadelphia has in press 'Angels of the Battlefield,' a history of the labors of the Catholic sisterhoods in our late civil war.

Cary's translation of the 'Divine Comedy,' first issued in 1812, has held its own with remarkable success in both England and America. Here it has been published at least three times, as early as 1822 and as late as 1889, and there have been many reprintings of these editions. The continued popularity of the version has led Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. to provide a new edition of it, prepared by Prof. L. Oscar Kuhns. Included with it is Rossetti's translation of the 'New Life,' which has also recently appeared in two American editions. Prof. Kuhns contributes a short introduction to the volume and a new set of notes to the 'Divine Comedy.' Rossetti's notes are retained, though others are added. Prof. Norton's translation of the 'New Life' excepted, Rossetti's is that best known, and Cary's version of the 'Divine Comedy,' whatever may be its defects, remains the easiest of all to understand. The reprint, therefore, is likely to meet with some measure of popular favor, particularly as it is illustrated and as Prof. Kuhns's introduction and notes, though not impeccable, are interesting and sensible. An ideal popular commentary, indeed, for students of the poem could be made by combining Prof. Kuhns's plan with that of Longfellow—that is, by adding to simple comments on difficult passages a whole set of delightful and enlightening extracts from contemporary historians and chroniclers.

Hopelessly commonplace is 'The Age of Milton,' by the Rev. J. H. B. Masterman (Macmillan), to which is prefixed a rather aimless introduction by Mr. J. Bass Mullinger. The volume can hardly be said to be up to the comparatively easy standard of its three predecessors in the same series. It lacks quality and illumination; its style is without order and grace; its literary criticism, while cautious and generally orthodox,

is marred by frequent touches of banality; and it shows very little of that power of generalizing its subject so necessary for a primer or handbook which aspires to be anything more than a mere list of names and biographical facts and bibliographical memoranda. We have noticed errata which injure the trustworthiness of the work as a school-book or book of reference at pages 35, 81, 111, 127, 128, 129, 146, 160, 212, and 214.

'A First Book in Writing English,' by E. H. Lewis (Macmillan), deserves notice, among recent contributions to the renascent art of the teaching of English prose composition, for its careful attention to the practical and pedagogic aspects of the subject. If the writing of English is to be taught as an art, the teaching and practice of it must not be deferred until too late in the student's course. It requires skill, however, and felicity of choice to eliminate the rhetorical abstractions and the dogmatisms from the more advanced text-books, and to present to the student in the secondary grades the heart of the matter in simple, practical, and yet attractive form. This, we think, Dr. Lewis has fairly succeeded in doing.

As a guide-book to the senior university of the English-speaking world, Mr. Wells's charmingly illustrated little book on 'Oxford and its Colleges' (London: Methuen) deserves a word of hearty commendation. Its method is mainly historical: a succinct account of the buildings of the various institutions described is followed by a sketch of their history and a mention of the celebrities that issued (or in some cases were propelled) from them. Needless to say, Mr. Wells's scholarship is excellent; he is thoroughly at home with his ground and his authorities, and generally succeeds in conveying a pleasing impression while skilfully keeping clear of sore points. And yet he not infrequently succeeds in gratifying his own and his readers' sense of humor in his selections from the storied past, and altogether manages to infuse into his tale not a little of the fascination of his theme. It is interesting to note (p. 301) how in the end the sense of the poverty of modern Oxford conquers its pride, and extorts from Mr. Wells an allusion to the deathless fame which Oxford has the power to bestow upon a generous emulator of the noble benefactors of the past.

The little war in Lombock of two years ago is described in 'With the Dutch in the East,' by Capt. Cool (London: Luzac & Co.). The author has written for his countrymen an impartial account of events with which they are in the main familiar, and which excited them much at the time, being to them thrilling as well as important. The object of the translation is less evident, for the work has not sufficient literary merit to make it easy reading. It is prolix, full of overwhelmingly long Malay names, and its artless rhetoric provokes a smile in the stranger unwarmed by the glow of Dutch patriotism. Still, the long chapter on "Our Knowledge of the Country and its People" contains a good deal of information, and the one about "The Attack" on the Dutch quarters at night is even exciting. The invading army, which was divided up at the time, narrowly escaped annihilation, and the impression left on the reader is that gross incompetency was shown—an impression not entirely effaced by the later successful operations; indeed, the author's own criticisms, however mildly expressed, point to the same conclusion. The translation is smooth, though occasionally ungrammatical, and marred by a tiresome misuse of the present tense.

The geology of Java forms the subject of a sumptuous report in French by R. D. M. Verbeek and R. Fennema, published at Amsterdam by the Dutch Government. A general description of the island is succeeded by an account of the geology of each of its twenty-two divisions or residences, including the neighboring island of Madura. A special feature of the work is a memoir on the fossil foraminifera of Dutch India, with eleven lithographic plates. There are numerous illustrations, and a superb atlas containing a geological map in twenty-six sheets, as well as more than twenty additional maps.

In 'Les Origines de la Monnaie considérées au point de vue économique et historique' (Paris: Firmin-Didot), M. Ernest Babelon, curator of the department of coins in the Bibliothèque Nationale, traces with adequate knowledge and with admirable clearness the actual development of money by the spontaneous action of individuals seeking each to better his own industrial situation. No plainer refutation will be found of the pernicious notions that money originated in human convention, legal or extra-legal, and that its purchasing power depends on a law of legal tender, than that which M. Babelon has given; and his refutation is not the less effective because he advances little theory of his own, but simply so marshals his facts that the candid reader is forced, as it were against his will, to the same conclusions which the author has reached. M. Babelon's book will be welcome to all readers who appreciate the superiority of an historical treatment to an a-priori treatment of the subject of money.

From Lemcke & Buechner we have specimen numbers of the artist monographs ('Künstler-Monographien') for some time in course of publication by the resourceful Leipzig house of Velhagen & Klasing. The text of these thin, profusely illustrated octavos in limp bindings proceeds from several hands; but the editor, H. Knackfuss, is the author of three of the five before us, viz., Rubens, with 122 illustrations, Hans Holbein the Younger, with 151, and Franz Hals, with 40. Ernst Steinmann treats of Botticelli, with the aid of 90 illustrations, including those for Dante's 'Divine Comedy' and the newly discovered "Pallas and Centaur." Perhaps the most famous book-illustrator of Germany, Chodowiecki, falls to Ludwig Kaemmerer, who can display no fewer than 204 examples of the often tiny vignettes of this masterly delineator of contemporary manners. The Holbein and the Botticelli offer the greatest pictorial interest, but in all these cases it is a great boon to have such extensive memoranda of the work of the artist commemorated. An index to each monograph would have been an added boon; but only in the Botticelli is there so much as a table of the paintings described. The moderate price, two to three marks apiece, would still bear, we think, the cost of a key to the contents.

"Certain Aboriginal Mounds of the Georgia Coast" is the title of a memoir by Clarence B. Moore in the latest number of the *Journal* of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia. It is the result of an examination of more than fifty mounds between Fairview, Camden County, and Skidaway Island, Chatham County. The construction of the mounds, the human remains contained in them, together with the utensils and implements of copper, stone, shell, or earthernware, are minutely described. Evidences of both incineration and inhumation were found. Cremated remains were placed in cinerary urns, and large clay jars were used for the burial of infants and sometimes of adults. A peculiar custom, common in Florida, was observed to some extent in Georgia. The bottoms of vessels in which the dead were placed were perforated, either at the time of manufacture or afterwards. Skeletons were most frequently found with the knees and chin drawn well together. The author's conclusions are that the Georgia mounds are "relics of a race ill supplied with stone, almost without copper, but given to the manufacture of earthenware." The race differed from the aborigines of Florida in their methods of mound building and in their mortuary customs, practising cremation to a much greater extent.

The *Geographical Journal* for September opens with an account, by Col. J. K. Trotter, of an expedition to the source of the Niger by the French and English commission for determining the boundary between French Guinea and Sierra Leone. It is illustrated by reproductions of photographs and a map. In the continuation of his paper on sub-oceanic changes, Prof. Milne treats mainly of the curious testimony to these changes by the telegraph cables. Among the pictures of fractured cables is one showing a cable grown round with coral. Other articles are upon the physiographical features of the Lakes Nyasa and Tanganyika districts, the Roman roads of Morocco, and Mr. Keltie's presidential address before the geographical section of the British Association. In it he dwells upon the future work of geographers, which consists not only in exploring the still unknown parts of the earth, but also in the study of oceanography, and the relations between man and his geographical environment. Capt. Cleeve contributes an interesting "*aide-mémoire* to a comparison of certain geographical distances." Taking as a unit the distance from Land's End to Shetland Islands, 750 miles, he shows it to be a remarkable standard of measurement by a table of some hundred instances selected from all parts of the world.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for September contains, in addition to the address of Mr. Keltie, a very interesting account of the investigations of Dr. Nüesch on the prehistoric remains at Schweizersbild, near Schaffhausen, by Prof. James Geikie. There is something very touching in the description of the Neolithic interments discovered, ten of which were children. "The great care with which the graves have been constructed, and the presence of the ornaments and other valuable objects [shells and finely finished flint implements] placed beside his dead little ones, show how strong was Neolithic man's family affection. The new-born infants were laid each within the right arm of its mother, while with the left arm stretched across her breast the latter seemed to hold the little one fast."

M. Eugène Ritter, whose work on the youth of J. J. Rousseau was reviewed in these columns last year, publishes in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for September 1 some further researches on the history of

that ever problematic character. New light is thrown on the relations between Rousseau and M. de Montaigu, the French Ambassador at Venice, so harshly treated in the 'Confessions' for his dilatoriness in paying his secretary's salary. The latter was not let into the secret of the financial difficulties in which his superior found himself in consequence of the maladministration of public affairs under Louis XV. Thérèse Le Vasseur, it appears from M. Ritter's pages, did not deserve all the contempt which has been heaped upon her by many writers; her ignorance and illiteracy, however, were astonishing. To point out estimable traits, hitherto not sufficiently noticed, in Rousseau's character, as M. Ritter is able to do, must be especially gratifying. The article deserves to be read by those desirous to do justice to the memory of Jean Jacques and to understand more fully the causes of his influence.

Dr. Hans Reusch, Director of the Geological Survey of Norway, has been appointed for the year 1897-'98 to the Sturgis Hooper professorship of geology at Harvard University, this position having been vacant since the death of Prof. J. D. Whitney a year ago. Prof. Reusch will lecture during the first half-year on vulcanism and eruptive rocks, earthquakes, and movements of the earth's crust. In the second half-year he will treat of the geology of Northern Europe and its relation to general geology. The third meeting of each week will be given to seminary work. In the spring, Prof. Reusch proposes to take part with the other instructors of the geological department in practical study in the field.

—The Boston committee in charge of the Shaw monument wind up their trust in an elegant volume detailing the inception, completion, and unveiling (1865-1897) of the memorial (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Nothing could better typify the transition period—far from being yet ended—from oppression to justice than the speeches of Major Higginson, Prof. William James, and Booker Washington. Major Higginson has to apologize to Southern susceptibilities for his historical retrospect, and wofully to misrepresent the abolitionists, the subsoil—or, rather, considering his parentage—the very soil out of which Col. Shaw grew. Prof. James speaks in the humane and elevated tone of the national conscience on the subject of slavery, and does not omit to point out the civic evils that have flowed from a just war. Finally, Booker Washington, on behalf of his color—emancipated, but socially ostracised, both North and South—shows in brief but well-chosen words the incompleteness of the edifice erected on the ruins of slavery, the lack of "the full measure of the fruit of Fort Wagner and all that this [Shaw] monument stands for"; the duty also of completing it, and the mode in which the freedmen are to enforce their manhood claims by moral and intellectual training. As we close the volume, news comes that the School Board of Alton, Ill., is forcibly excluding colored children from the common schools—even those named after Lovejoy and Lincoln. Shades of the martyrs!

—In a very neat little volume, with illustrations, Mrs. Fairchild has printed a limited edition of the Journals of John Linklaen, agent of the Holland Land Company, describing his travels in Pennsylvania, New York, and Vermont in 1791 and 1792. The blunt and unimaginative voyager notes down in the simplest manner whatever meets his eye, and the result is very readable, and of interest as a rough presentation of the times. His special interest was shown for the maple-sugar industry in Pennsylvania. The industry was primitive, for, in place of the extensive works, buildings, and workmen he expected to see, he found a ruined hut, barely accessible because of the brambles, a couple of "chaldrons" and some other scattered utensils, but no workers. Five gallons of sap was required to make one pound of sugar. While noting the occurrence of the "mapple" tree, he was not blind to other economic features. The lie and quality of the land, the price per acre, and the yield of wheat and maize, the plans of new roads or proposed canals, and the ownership of the land were of interest, as the region through which he passed was held in large parcels and as speculative ventures. This did not prevent squatters "who have come to settle themselves with no other rights than those of nature." The inchoate condition of the country is well shown by the difficulties of travel—"mud up to the horses' belly"—which effectually prevented any trading of goods.

—Apart from the religious communities encountered, Linklaen met other social curiosities. The Oneida Indians were on a reservation, and carefully protected by law from any contracts with the white settlers. "Tilling the earth is burdensome to them, so that often they allow Americans to settle on & work their lands provided they give them 1-3 or half the yield. Even their gristmill is managed on this footing by an American." There he heard the "universal Friend," a woman from Rhode Island, who claimed to be an apostle of Christ, but he found her to deal in "a quantity of vain words without sense or reason." The general impression made by these notes is that wood-life at that time was one of great deprivation and almost wretchedness. It is well to have such an unvarnished record of the curiously mixed life in these new settlements. One detail needs explanation. In expressing values Mrs. Fairchild has used the symbol for the apothecary's ounce. As a rule it stands alone with the figure, but on p. 74 we find it intercalated between "2-6" and "sterling." It is reasonable to suppose it is only a shilling mark, and in this we are confirmed by an entry on p. 116. The note to Mr. Root on p. 74 is clearly wrong, for the local money is used unless the name of another State is added. This was the universal practice at that time.

—At the recent Congress of Orientalists in Paris M. Salomon Reinach read a paper upon the representation of female nudity in Mediterranean prehistoric art. The general subject of early undraped statues of women is one to which M. Reinach has given much time and study. About two years ago he read before the Académie des Inscriptions, and afterwards published in the *Revue Archéologique*, what may fairly be called a convincing paper, disproving the generally received theory that nudity in classic art is ultimately derived from a Babylonian source, the image of the goddess Istar. There was no nude divinity in the Babylonian pantheon. When Istar appears as a goddess, she is represented clothed and in armor; when she is disrobed, it is for her humiliation, her descent into hell. On the other hand, there have been found in the Archipelago and at Troy, dating from about 1200 B. C., statuettes of nude women, and one was also found in a tumulus in Thrace. Similar figures of life-size existed at the same period in the Greek islands, and some of these may have been carried off by a Babylonian conqueror and so have become objects of worship. It was, then, according to M. Reinach, from prehistoric Greece that the type of nude divinities passed into Babylonia, coming back centuries later through Phœnicia to historic Greece, and so to Rome. In his paper before the Orientalists M. Reinach brought new support to his theories from the art found in the caverns of the south of France, which is of the same type as that of the borders of the Archipelago. An instance that is at once quite new and highly corroborative was brought forward by M. Reinach in the very curious statuette discovered ten years ago in a grotto of Mentone, and acquired in 1895 by the Museum of Saint-Germain. This figurine appears to date from the end of the palæolithic period—that is, perhaps some 6,000 years before the Christian era. The statuette was shown to the meeting by M. Reinach. The *Débats* describes it as being "aux formes bizarres, aux saillies exagérées," and adds, with a certain conscious or unconscious humor, "c'est une œuvre réaliste, d'un art tout spontané."

—Michelangelo literature, already so voluminous, is on the point of receiving a considerable addition. Michelangelo's own letters have already been given to the world; they are to be supplemented by a collection of about eight hundred letters written to him which have been kept among the archives of the Casa Buonarroti in the via Ghibellina in Florence. The Casa Buonarroti belonged to Michelangelo (although he never lived in it), and remained in the possession of his heirs until the year 1858. In 1620 the house was put in order and decorated, and became a sort of museum of sketches and casts, drawings, plans, and autographs of the master, to which his family added from time to time such letters addressed to him as they could find or procure. By a will dated June 11, 1856, the last descendant of Michelangelo, the Count Cosimo Buonarroti, bequeathed the building and its contents to the city of Florence, and a corporation was formed to take charge of it. This corporation has administered its charge so well that the Casa has been from the very first self-supporting. In the will of Count Cosimo Buonarroti there were several hampering restrictions, the most annoying of which was one that forbade the publication of any of the manuscripts or other papers which the house contained. For a number of years these restrictions were observed; the first breach that was made in them occurring in Gothi's Life of Michelangelo, published in Florence in 1875, at the time of the celebration of the quadricentenary anniversary of the great man's birth. In this volume appeared some letters of his correspondents, and at a little later date Milanesi published thirty-six letters written to Michelangelo by Sebastian del Piombo between the years 1520 and 1533. The two scholars made no mystery of the fact that the originals of these letters were in the archives of the Casa. Others have followed them, but, in all, hardly more than sixty letters have so far appeared. The corporation has now swept all restrictions

aside, and the whole eight hundred letters are to be printed. The learned Commendatore G. Biagi, head of the Laurentian Library, is charged with their publication. The letters cover the period between the years 1506 and 1564, and their writers are many and of the most widely separated conditions in life, down to the humble *scalpellini*. Michelangelo counted many *scalpellini* among his friends, and it is said that these letters will throw much light on the social condition of this interesting class of men.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Christian: A Story. By Hall Caine. D. Appleton & Co.

The Martian. By George Du Maurier. Harper & Brothers.

Uncle Bernac. By A. Conan Doyle. D. Appleton & Co.

The Secret of Saint Florel. By John Berwick. Macmillan Co.

Constantine. By George Horton. Chicago: Way & Williams.

Susan's Escort and Others. By Edward Everett Hale. Harper & Brothers.

The White Hecatomb, and Other Stories. By William Charles Scully. Henry Holt & Co.

Love & Company (Limited). By John Wernberny and Another. J. Selwin Tait & Co.

Arnaud's Masterpiece: A Romance of the Pyrenees. By Walter Cranston Larned. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Since the fashion set in for using a problem in morals as the heart of a romantic legend, Mr. Hall Caine has been one of our most effective novelists. For the development of moral conflict leading to a sombre or terrible catastrophe, correct instinct has led him to choose rather primitive, simple people, in whom an excess of emotion over reason is probable and not discreditable. Such people move naturally through a drama which takes the full romantic license in action and sentiment, with only enough restraint to escape the absurdity and sentimentality of melodrama. Perhaps the escape from the worst dangers which beset an excitable, imaginative temperament, applied to the discussion in prose fiction of the soul's temptations, has been due more to the sincerity and passion thrown into the strife, and to Mr. Caine's intuition for phases and fine shades, than to the very slight technical restraints.

In his latest novel, 'The Christian,' the ever-threatening calamity has overtaken him. He has tackled a problem in morals which affects the whole world, not exclusively a small group of Manxmen, and the problem is greater than he is, even as the world is bigger than the Isle of Man. The subject, instead of lending itself willingly to the romantic, dramatic method, stands aside, rigid, unmalleable, refusing absolutely to be dragged or driven into harmony. The majesty of the redemption of the world declines association with scene, situation, climax, and silently contrasts its true self with Mr. Caine's artificial and violent presentation.

In one of those explanatory notes through which authors try to deliver readers from the consequences of their natural-born stupidity, Mr. Caine says: "In presenting the thought which is the motive of 'The Christian' my desire has been to depict, however imperfectly, the types of mind and character, of creed and culture, of social effort and religious purpose, which I think I see in the life of England and America." By the imperfect light of our own wits we take the thought to be that the world is far gone in sin, particularly in the sin of lust, and is in sore need of a redeemer. A just inference from the book, and one sustained by the title, is that Mr. Caine has desired to do more than record observations, and has wished to denounce sin and to depict the character of a redeemer, despised and rejected of men, through the medium of a readable novel which may be converted into an actable play. It was said of old that we cannot serve God and Mammon, and Mr. Caine's experiment offers no reason for a reversal of that judgment. But, putting aside a perhaps base suspicion, and looking for reasons of failure more particular than a disparity between the man and the work, the motive and the method, the most conspicuous are the conception of the character of a possible redeemer, and the author's predilection in favor of one sort of sinner. For the rôle of redeemer it would be hard for a person not a novelist to think of any one less fitted than John Storm. He is not supposed to be a primitive person, picturesquely governed by emotion, but a man of good birth, wide education and travel, prompted to devote himself to Christ by observation of universal injustice to and oppression of the weak by the strong. It is fair to assume that such a man would possess an intellect to be used for guidance, but John Storm rarely displays a glimmer of reason. He has no singleness or stability of purpose. The command, "Know thyself," is, by reason of his mindlessness, nothing but a stumbling-block. He has no sense of personal responsibility, for he refers his actions, good or bad, to the influence of God or the Devil. He pursues a mad career to a miserable end, never quite sure that he has really been blown about like thistle-down by passion for a woman; passion taking base forms, jealous, suspicious, insulting to its object. Whatever he does, whether he enters a monastery or leaves it, throws himself into a furious crusade against lust, drink, and hypocrisy, or spends weeks in solitary prayer and penance, the inspiring motive is always the young woman with the great mimetic talent and awful name—Glory Quayle.

In his relations with Glory, he is conspicuously lacking in the first of Christian virtues—charity. His best thought of her is that she is an adorable, though frivolous, worldling, and his worst (which is also his commonest), that she is the mistress of an amiable and rich young man named Drake. When her genuine love for him proves inadequate to his demand that she shall follow him to his London slums, he never thinks of compromise, going away from London and leading a decent, quiet, Christian life in a country parish, but proposes that she shall dedicate herself to lepers, to whom, on hearing of Father Damien's death, he at once feels that he is consecrated, and has a right to expect her coöperation. Bitterly disappointed by her rejection of this inhuman proposal, he rushes back to the monastery, previously abandoned, and takes the vows of chastity, poverty, and obedience. Afterwards he tries to kill her, but kisses her instead, and ends by marrying her, literally with his last breath. Storm may represent one of the kinds of culture which Mr. Caine thinks he sees, but it is not a kind which it is possible to admire or respect, or even greatly to sympathize with; it is not a kind of which a possible Christ or even a sincere and useful Christian is made. His failure to achieve any kind of good is not the failure of a great nature misunderstood, scorned and persecuted by those whom he loved and would have saved. John Storm failed because he never knew exactly what he wanted or how to take it, and because he was irresolute and violent and passionately prejudiced; because, in fact, he was almost always in the wrong.

The career of Glory Quayle makes a theatrically effective contrast to John Storm's, and is reminiscent of many careers described by unpretentious, frivolous novelists. She is a nice enough girl, with a shockingly artificial epistolary style, but for which and an easy-going tolerance of wicked lords and their vulgar mistresses, she would be nicer. Her long patience with Storm's harshness and insults, her passionate pity for his delusions and belief in his goodness, and her final renunciation of all for him are not exaggerated testimony to the strength of an affection sown in childhood and blossoming in the wonderful beauty of a first love. If it were not for that last thrilling scene in the slums with the dying Christian and the great actress for centre, the clergyman to the right, the Prime Minister waving a license from Lambeth to the left, and a background of bedraggled female ruffians, one could imagine Glory permanently forsaking the stage and devoting herself to the tedium of good works; but her eagerness for this climax betokens a theatrical instinct too vigorous to be buried in the graves of a dozen lovers.

Mr. Caine's treatment of the sin of the world is a deplorable exhibition of sentimentality, and his criticism of institutions such as hospitals and the Anglican Church is harshly censorious. Apparently the only sinners worthy of tenderness and charity are prostitutes. This view, of course, narrows any scheme of redemption, and is unimpressive; but it gives great opportunity for violent rhetoric, and is sure of applause from the gallery. The most serious aspect of the sentimental treatment of seduction and prostitution is that it is more likely to increase than to diminish their practice. All women are not doves any more than all men are birds of prey. The social law which makes unchastity a shame for the woman only is unjust and oppressive, but, like most rigorous social laws, its roots are deep down in human nature, and it restrains rather than encourages immorality. No wailing of hysterical humanitarians or rhetoric of sentimental novelists will ever cast the burden of shame on men, but these methods may undermine the sense of shame instinctive in women of all classes, and thus set stronger instincts free for unrestrained indulgence. Girls like Polly Love, for whom our sympathy is urgently invited, and of whom there are at least several in every community, can never be saved or reformed by being told that they are irresponsible victims of man's depravity, but this is an excellent way to encourage the vanity and frivolity which make them the easy victims of the Lord Robert Ures prowling about to devour. If Mr. Caine has a sincere desire to help both men and women to abstain from sins of the flesh, the road he must take is dull

and tedious and discouraging; an obscure and silent road, where electric light shineth not and the sounding brass and tinkling cymbal are never heard.

The three books written by Mr. Du Maurier have so many points of likeness that reading or thinking about one recalls vividly the one before and the one before that. The passion for physical beauty never ebbs; the view of men and manners continues frank, gay, and tolerant, and the imagination hovers about the incredible—particularly about successive incarnations of the soul and magnetic influence. In each the author is the most conspicuous character, and draws himself with an untrammelled vivacity which leaves little to speculation or future biographers. Of the three 'Peter Ibbetson' is the best story, and has the most literary value—using that phrase to mean the closest adherence to a central idea, coherent form, and a style that in many passages has the refinement and repose of all literature that becomes classic. In 'Trilby' the story is feeble, of secondary importance, the form correspondingly loose, and the style the freest that ever skipped with a smile and a wink into the formal kingdom of letters—a spontaneous, colloquial, volatile style, making every one intimate with one of the kindest, cleverest, and wittiest of men. One cannot imagine gloom so deep as to prove impenetrable by that buoyant, diverting spirit, and insensible to that happy manner. We cannot be grateful enough to the man who, at a time when novels were harder and drearier than the existence of any one mortal could ever be and continue, gave us such a fillip as 'Trilby.'

As an expression of Du Maurier's lovable nature, 'The Martian' is a supplement to 'Trilby.' We learn a little that is new about his feelings and experiences, and we feel all the old charm over again. Though we may not believe in the incomparable beauty, virtues, talents, and graces of Barty, Leah, and all the galaxy, we know that he believed, and our delight in him is unimpaired. As fiction is a representative art, it must make us believe, or fall short of good. Many people found a difficulty in accepting Trilby as a real girl, living, or ever having lived. Her praise was too ecstatically chanted and there were glaring discrepancies. The laudation of Barty, Leah, and the rest is riotous, too superlative; it excites suspicion, criticism, scepticism; its insistence and iteration bore us. Our imperfection perhaps resents so much perfection. The Lady from Mars, whose magnetic influence made Josselin "the greatest literary genius this century has produced," is purely fantastic. She is not a perfect invention, like the dream situation in 'Peter Ibbetson.' Her presence and performance are much remoter from the actual and possible than is Svengali, with his magnetism and magic. Her account of herself is a wild, unconvincing fabrication, and there is even a farcical suggestion in her trick of making Barty "feel the North." Putting this trick, reminiscent of Captain Cuttle, together with the lively ironies of her letters and personal narrative, one suspects that Du Maurier wrote her up for his own amusement, caring little whether she and her doings should appear probable or not.

He was not, thank Heaven! a serious novelist. He served no apprenticeship, and in none of his books, except the first, is there the slightest indication of his having paid any attention to the conventions or technicalities of novel-writing. Therefore the way to enjoy his books without any "ifs" or "buts" is to forget that they are called novels, and to regard them as descriptions of a most interesting life and as wonderfully expressive revelations of a man of happy outlook, whose sympathies were as wide as was his exceptional power of observation, and who gave unstintingly his heart and head and hand for the pleasure of us all.

Mr. Conan Doyle's Uncle Bernac is an irreproachable villain. His skin is of the texture and tint of parchment; his expression sinister, his coat snuff-colored. He speaks in sibilant whispers menacing as a serpent's hiss, and is always on the winning side. A participator in the vilest crimes of the French Revolution, he chased into exile a noble family, with which he was closely connected by marriage, taking to himself the confiscated estates and revenues. When it came to pass that every man's fortune depended on Napoleon's, none was more devoted to the risen star than Uncle Bernac. Mr. Doyle deals with him as the Emperor's spy, a traitor and coward; a miserable, degraded wretch, who deservedly comes to a bad end. The adventure which introduces young Louis de Laval to his delectable uncle makes a spirited opening—so spirited that the subsequent adventures are dull by contrast. Louis has not enough dash for a hero, but is a modest young man, whose good judgment shines in the reflection that Napoleon is the most interesting figure of this memoir. Napoleon stands very solidly on his feet. By a careful combination of fact and legend and by a clever selection of scenes, Mr. Doyle has contrived a lively and comprehensible picture of a character made up of contradictions and extremes, great and trivial, worshipful and detestable, sublime and ridiculous, always above or below common men. The vitality and compression of this sketch of the awful Boney imply careful preparatory study and display great literary skill. Beside it the tale of Louis de Laval's love and Uncle Bernac's iniquities is a flat, perfunctory performance.

It is to be hoped that the author of the 'Secret of Saint Florel' means never to write another tale of mystery and adventure. Painful beyond endurance, and futile without hope, would be his effort to find any first-rate mystery or horror which he has not already used for all it is worth. Spendthrift, too, of scene as of incident, the Arctic Circle alone remains to him, for the awful occurrences leading up to this secret exhaust the tropics and the temperate zones. The whole wide range of human character is, however, still at his service, for, with his superabundance of more immediately striking material, he has wisely held his psychic observations and theories severely in reserve.

Descriptions of the beauty of the Isles of Greece and of the ways not exclusively beautiful of their modern inhabitants make the most readable chapters of 'Constantine.' The figure of Constantine, wronged and defrauded from his birth, driven to madness by injustice and betrayal, is rather a tragic conception, but the author has not the power to keep up to such a high mark. He shows to more advantage in common characters and ordinary incidents; his domestic scenes, quarrels, reconciliations, and the every-day family intercourse being done with unusual point and truth.

In the rather curious preface to his volume of tales, Dr. Hale enters a plea of justification for the practice of telling stories which may appear to be true. He says that there are critics who hold that an author is successful only when no one can imagine his stories to be true. He does not like or approve of these critics. Yet his first tale, "Susan's Escort," and several others in the volume, are nothing if not sops thrown with intent to placate. They are quite triumphantly improbable, and base indeed are these critics should they fail to proclaim Dr. Hale as another Barty Josselin among authors. To the critics who do not make a canon of improbability, the merit of Dr. Hale's work, including this volume, is in the healthy moral tone, the practical energy and common sense, the word of good cheer aptly and heartily spoken to humble, obscure pilgrims on the monotonous by-ways of life. His success in America comes largely from his habit of addressing the American people, not the English or any other nation, in their own language, which is not exactly English, but (we hasten to say) not inferior to English or any other as a medium for the communication of ideas. He does not speak down to any class or up to any, but is always imperturbably on a level with all. He is one of the last of a band of American writers spiritually attached to the idea of human equality; and so long as his stories express that spirit, and are read and liked because of its presence, the opinion of critics of form and word makes very little difference.

'The White Hecatomb, and Other Stories' are as well and carefully written as the author's earlier volume, entitled 'Kafir Stories.' Among South African savages and Boers the horrible with hideous accessories is probably very much in evidence. Mr. Scully seems to find it without any trouble, and though he lifts it sometimes to tragedy, the sordid and squalid atmosphere will not vanish at his bidding. In following the passions and actions of savages black and dirty, with unpronounceable names beginning with two consonants, the point of satiety is soon reached. About the middle of the volume there is a sketch entitled "Derelicts." The reason for its being just there is not plain, since it has nothing to do with negroes, Boers, or Malays. Its subject is extremely painful, and none of the pain is spared in the treatment. The Derelicts and their madness of sorrow eat and drink and sleep with you and refuse to be banished for many days, so nothing need be said about the writer's force and power.

Several times the experiment of writing a story in collaboration has been tried by men and women. The little tale entitled 'Love & Company (Limited)' is a pleasant and successful venture of that sort. The compact made in the beginning is a situation so full of peril of sensuality or vulgarity that the authors' management of it is a quite surprising exhibition of good taste. The only indiscretion is Miss Morris's mistaking Mr. Horton's feet for the massive legs of her ancestral mahogany and persisting in the mistake through a long dinner. As this episode and the emotions of the participators are described with perfect gravity, there is a deficiency in the sense of humor, not otherwise conspicuous, and also a momentary yielding to temptations which had best be sternly resisted in the interest of polite letters. The man's and the woman's point of view are clearly distinguishable throughout, the style neat and befitting-

ly light, and the manner noticeably good-tempered and well-bred.

'Arnaud's Masterpiece' is more a succession of pictures than a coherent romance. The majesty of mountains, the freshness and fragrance of forests, the splendor of poppy fields, are more vividly present to the author than are human passion either of love and gratification, or of love and renunciation. The young monk and the outlawed Cagots and the beautiful Angela are like the figures of indifferent landscapes, mistakenly believed to add interest to the scene. There is much more effort, hard, conscientious work put into the people and incidents than into the descriptions of scene, but the heart and soul have disdained guidance and thrown themselves into the adoration of external beauty.

THE INDIAN VILLAGE COMMUNITY.

The Indian Village Community, . . . chiefly on the basis of the Revenue-Settlement Records and District Manuals. By B. H. Baden-Powell, M.A., C.I.E. Longmans, Green & Co.

It may seriously be questioned whether "the comparative method," which our fathers were so proud of having first applied to the history of society, has done more good than harm. It has helped to lift history out of mere antiquarianism; it has led to the formulation of sweeping generalizations, which have appeared to bring masses of tedious facts under easy control of the scientific imagination; it has helped to bridge over the chasm between "science" and the studies concerned with human society by facilitating the utterance of the current shibboleth of "evolution." But it is now becoming apparent that some of these generalizations were of the kind that the academic slang of the English Cambridge calls "hasty." They are now being, of necessity, either abandoned or profoundly modified; but meantime they have done a world of mischief. Men have, consciously or unconsciously, gone out for more than a generation to seek new illustrations for conclusions already assumed; they have often had eyes only for what, consciously or unconsciously, they wanted to see; and it has not been altogether a gain that has given us, in the place of the plodding and unspeculative scholar, the brilliant and pseudo-scientific essayist.

One amusing, were it not irritating, result of the recent confidence in certain results of the comparative method we are reminded of by Mr. Baden-Powell's welcome book on India. This is the way in which, as soon as a generalization, covering all the peoples of the earth, or perhaps only the "Aryan" peoples, begins to be called in question in its application to one particular people, there is a tendency to overbear criticism by an appeal to what it is alleged has been proved elsewhere. That, in apparently similar sequences of phenomena, a gap in one series should be provisionally supplied from another; that language which is obscure in the documents of one people should be interpreted by its significance (when it is clearly the same formulas that appear) in the documents of another—this is all very proper. But to be of any value, the appeal should be from the dubious to the certain; when it is from the dubious to the equally dubious, it is only waste of time. Yet there has been something like this in some of the recent discussions concerning the origin of property in land. It was taught pretty generally until quite recently that all peoples, or at any rate all Aryan peoples, had gone through a stage in which the "ownership" of the soil was vested in a village community. This idea was probably of German origin and originally applied to Germany only. Then the generalization was extended to England and, about the same time, to the vast area of Hindustan. A decade or so of popularization followed. When by and by the critical process began, and doubts were raised as to whether the proposition was true in its bearing upon England, nothing was more natural than to refer the inquirer to the example of Germany. Was it its truth as to Germany that was next called in question, the sceptic could be referred to India. And it was not long before in India itself the critics of the theory there were referred back—by those, of course, who had not followed the course of the discussion in Europe—to what was still regarded as ascertained fact with regard to Germany. So that actually four years after the appearance of his own magnificent work, 'The Land Systems of British India,' which ought to have placed the whole discussion on a new footing, Mr. Baden-Powell is obliged to recognize that some of his readers will "be disposed to regard the Indian case as necessarily concluded by a general verdict on the European evidence as to archaic common ownership of land"; and it is with the air of one who asks a favor that he "submits that, under the circumstances of doubt that exist as to the European phenomena, the Indian case may with advantage be dealt with on its own merits" (p. 5).

For more than twenty years almost all those who in Europe or America have had occasion, in the course of their study of the history of institutions, to pay any attention to the Indian village, have had recourse to Sir Henry Maine's 'Village Communities in the East and West'; while observers in India itself, called upon, in the course of their official duty, to draw up an account of conditions immediately before them, have been apt to see them through the spectacles of the same book. But Maine's work owed much of its authority to the reputation gained by its predecessor, 'Ancient Law,' to which it is in truth far inferior; his own range of observation had been curiously limited; and since his time there has been a vast accumulation of fresh evidence in the way of government gazetteers and Settlement records, which makes it absolutely impossible any longer to be satisfied with "the abstract and unified conception of the village" suggested by his writings. Mr. Baden-Powell has done us the great service, in the substantial volume closely packed with matter now before us, to bring all this material together. He attempts, and that with no small success, to disentangle its main results and dovetail them into one another, with a perception of their value which is the result at once of his own Indian experience and of his acquaintance with recent English discussion.

By far the larger part of the volume is taken up with an exposition of existing conditions of land-tenure and land cultivation, and of the geographical and ethnological considerations which have to be taken into account. He points out that there are two very different forms of village-tenure at present in existence. In the one, known as the *Raiyatwari* village, the land-owners are themselves cultivators, and own their land each in severalty; so that "the group of holdings in no sense forms a proprietary unit." This form is characteristic of more than two-thirds of India. In the other, called by the author the *joint* or *shared* village, there is something which may in a sense be called a common ownership; but this common ownership is that of a "landlord estate"—"the growth of some individual overlordship, or some settlement of conquering clans or expansion of families with their own notions of equal rights" among themselves, "and of superiority to inferior races," who have usually been allowed to continue as rent-paying cultivators of the soil. He then shows that the Raiyatwari form prevails in those parts of India which have been least affected by invasion. Finally, after an elaborate examination of the remnants of tribal organization still to be found in the Punjaub and other provinces, he sets forth tentatively his own conclusions. These are that "the right to land grows out of two ideas; one being that a special claim arises to any object, or to a plot of land, by virtue of the labor and skill expended in making it useful or profitable; the other, that a claim arises from conquest or superior might" (p. 400). Of these the first, if we are to call anything "primitive," would seem best to deserve that title. All the evidence of early law and of the actual practice of "aboriginal" races leads to the conclusion that "the early tribesman, under sanction of custom, appropriated his field or his share of the tribal land, as he would appropriate a tree to make a canoe or a plough." This claim or appropriation was perfectly compatible with the existence of a certain tribal control, or better (for it was rather a division of a tribe that held together than a tribe itself) of a certain control by the *clan*, both as against those within and those without. Neither the vague sense of clan-right nor the stronger sense of individual appropriation can be termed "property" without creating misapprehensions. Left to itself, however, the development ran steadily in the direction of what we can call individual property, as seen to-day in the Raiyatwari village; unless above the body of originally owning cultivators was imposed, by some one of the score of ways in which such things took place in India, a landlord or group of landlords claiming superiority of race. And in that case a body of non-cultivating joint proprietors might make its appearance, usually as the result of certain customs regarding *family* property. In no case does the self-governing village group of cultivating owners of Maine's hypothesis make its appearance as a distinct stage in agrarian history.

The discussion cannot be regarded as closed. We are still only at the beginning of our analysis of the tribe and the clan; and the lesson of past controversies is that we should not be in a hurry to suppose we know just what "tribal conditions" were or are. In the overwhelming mass of particulars brought together by Mr. Baden-Powell from provinces so far apart as Mysore and Cashmir, Assam and Sindh, there is abundant opportunity for differences of interpretation. It is perhaps ungrateful to say that there is still room for a statement from Mr. Baden-Powell's pen of the larger results of his studies, set forth in untechnical language, for the benefit of the general

reader. His volumes are fruitful in instruction to all who will take a little trouble; still, they present a severe aspect. But nothing can lessen our admiration for his learning, his thoroughness, his caution, and his intellectual candor. The book is a very considerable achievement.

A History of Our Own Times, from 1880 to the Diamond Jubilee. By Justin McCarthy, M.P. Illustrated. Harper & Bros. 1897.

Mr. McCarthy's first two volumes appeared in 1878. His object in writing them, as explained in his present preface, was to supply the "young student" with something he could not elsewhere get. Now that the book has been completed by bringing it down to the current year, its chief distinction undoubtedly is that there is no other work of the sort covering the same ground. It is a convenient book of reference for any one who wants to get a rapid résumé of an incident or episode, a brief account of a career, or a party struggle, as one might get it more laboriously from the newspapers of the day; but more than this we cannot say. Mr. McCarthy is not so much an historian as a ready writer, who has a reporter's gift for seizing upon the striking features of what is going on, and a turn for narration which the young student will be apt to value more than the old one. It would, indeed, be apparent without the preface that the author had had a youthful audience in mind throughout. His history, especially in this volume, reads sometimes like the story told by the good grandfather, after his retirement from active life, to the young folks at home. It is good for the young to hear it, and they may derive much profit from it, but we do not generally call it history. The volume is an uneven piece of workmanship. Of course there are chapters in which any mature man will find something to interest him, but we cannot help being irritated by a tone which continually suggests that, had the author made up his mind at the outset to write a Child's History of the Reign of Queen Victoria, we should have had a better book.

Occasionally Mr. McCarthy's method of treatment produces the effect of positive inaccuracy; as, for instance, in his account of the Venezuela dispute, in which he makes Canning urge the Monroe Doctrine on Monroe as a means of preventing "the fallen dynasties" of Europe from establishing themselves "on the shores of either America," and makes the Doctrine itself simply a declaration "that the United States could not regard with approval any attempt on the part of a foreign Power to set up a monarchy on American soil against the wish of the people who occupied that part of the country." We doubt if this would be accepted by any Monroe Doctrine publicist. We never heard that the Doctrine was directed specially against "fallen" European dynasties, and the implication that a local vote would authorize the establishment of a foreign monarchy on American soil contrary to our wishes, could commend it to no true patriot. The only safe plan is to quote the Doctrine. Still, the author gives us the general drift of the dispute, and we know of no subject on which more excuses may be made for a slight lapse from accuracy.

Another defect which the grown-up reader will notice, although, for purposes of reference, it adds to the value of the book, is the extraordinary importance attached by the author to what we may call the necrological side of history. We have not counted to see how many of the pages are taken up with what a journalist would call "obituaries," but it is a considerable part of the book. Chapter v. is called "On Fame's Eternal Beadroll" (the titles of the chapters are more adapted to a work of fiction than to a history), and contains critical notices of George Eliot, Lord Stratford de Redcliffe, Sir Alexander Cockburn, Lord Hampton, Carlyle, Dean Stanley, Archbishop McHale, George Borrow, J. H. Burton, Trelawney, Grenville Murray, James Spedding, Mrs. C. S. Hall, W. R. Greg, Edward Miall, E. A. Sothern, and Disraeli. Chapter xiv. is called "Only a Death Roll," and it is twenty-six pages long. Chapter xx., "Death—and Dynamite," ushers another batch of distinguished men to the shades; but this method of disposing of the *dramatis personæ* of history sadly interferes with the march of events. No doubt such biographical notices help us to understand the times, but masses of post-mortem notices, arranged one after another without any connection with the rest of the book, cannot but suggest to the reader a biographical dictionary.

One peculiarity the book has which is not common in works of this sort. As a general rule the historian endeavors to efface himself, and tell his story so that the reader shall seem to hear only the voice of History herself. If we want to know about Gibbon, or Macaulay, or Motley, we must seek for knowledge elsewhere than in the 'Decline and Fall,' the 'History of England,' or the 'Rise of the Dutch Republic.' In fact, in reading these works the reader's curiosity is greatly aroused to know more of the author. In Mr. McCarthy's case, on the contrary, the author puts himself with such naïve good-will into his pages that at the end we know quite as much about him as about the history, and are quite satisfied on the point as to which so many historians leave us curious. We would undertake to prove by the internal evidence afforded by this volume that the author is of a most excellent, but somewhat superficial disposition, sympathetic, humane, averse to domineering imposition of his will or his opinions upon others, and absolutely devoid of originality. He tells us his opinion of others' opinions in such a way as to let us see that he has few of his own, except on one point, that of Ireland's nationality, and even this seems to be rather a feeling or sentiment than a belief. He has acted with a party, and with a faction inside that party, for so long a time that, if he ever had the germs of original power, they have withered and shrivelled up for want of use. History is to him really a tale or drama which he personifies as a struggle between the Liberal party, or party of progress, and the Tories, or party of reaction; everything that happens is an episode in this struggle, and the struggle itself chiefly important, at least in these latter days, as bearing on the Irish question, the real nature and position of which Mr. McCarthy seems quite incompetent to describe except as a sort of tale of wrong and liberation. If the reader can find out from Mr. McCarthy, for instance, what the author means by "Home Rule," it is more than we have been able to do. There is a great deal, too, about land-law reform, but there is no clear account anywhere of what it has accomplished.

Much of the reign of Queen Victoria has been a great party struggle for freedom; the whole of it, considered as a narrative, is full of entertainment, but we fear that even admirers must admit that in this last volume the capacities of the story have often been injured in the treatment. The best things in it are the accounts of the Bradlaugh episode, the Gladstone-Austria imbroglio, and the description of the career of the leader of the "Fourth Party," though whether Mr. McCarthy does not attribute to Lord Randolph Churchill a too serious quality, we are much inclined to doubt. It is a pity that the author, in preserving one of his jokes, should not have mentioned what eminent pair of statesmen Lord Randolph had the hardihood to call "Marshall and Snelgrove."

Art and Life, and the Building and Decoration of Cities: A Series of Lectures by Members of the Arts and Crafts Exhibition Society, delivered at the Fifth Exhibition of the Society in 1896. London: Rivington, Percival & Co. 1897.

This new volume by members of the society whose long name appears in the title consists of five lectures, and therein differs markedly from its predecessor of 1893, in which a large number of short papers were bound up. It differs also from that volume in not having a long preface by William Morris. He has gone, and it does not yet appear who will replace him as the admitted chief of the Association. The first address begins with praise of Morris which must seem to many extravagant, as it is certainly unbounded. The word "great" used in the largest sense, as it is here, and the statement that Morris was "too great to criticise, to judge," would be so extravagant as to destroy any respect we might otherwise feel for the author of this address but for the fact that Morris had died on the opening day of the exhibition, October 3, 1896, and that such a circumstance as this might well excuse the undue enthusiasm.

The first lecture is by T. J. Cobden Sanderson, best known to Americans as a bookbinder who has given minute and delicate handicraft and considerable power of design to the production of costly bindings. His address is an attempt to define and explain Art as orderly and seemly living, moral grandeur, noble individuality, and noble communal existence. The reader is partly prepared, by this, to find the noble intention accepted as the great result; to find little said of works of fine art or of the way they have been brought into being, but much of the fraternal and emotional spirit which fancies more than it can realize. "I imagine," says Mr. Sanderson, "all men to be potentially artists." Those of us who know that the vast majority of men are not artists at all, in the sense that they have not the perceptive faculties nor the power of artistic expression which are needed to make an artist, will set Mr. Sanderson down as an amiable dreamer. And yet he is more than that, as is proved by the admirable remark (p. 7), "Art has its origin in craft, and craft in the needs of life."

The second lecture, "Of Beautiful Cities," is by W. R. Lethaby, one of the two authors of an admirable work on the Church of Sancta Sophia, at Constantinople, and author

of an extremely useful and sensible book on architectural lead-work, as well as a book less easy to characterize, 'Architecture, Mysticism and Myth,' published in 1892. This lecture, much longer than the first, is largely descriptive. The author's attempt has been to set before the modern reader, accustomed to ugly London, unorganized London, accidental and unadorned London, the beauty of the ancient and the mediæval city, as Athens and Jerusalem, Rome and Constantinople, thirteenth-century Paris and fourteenth-century London. Although this seems a somewhat ancient and time-worn subject for a lecture, and although there are those among our intelligent students of art who think, or who at least say, that the old commonplaces of good advice and sound criticism should be left to slumber, as having been said so often that they have lost their force, there is nevertheless reason enough to supply each new generation with the old advice and the old information, reshaped for the new age. The difficulty of treating in an intelligent way the huge modern city is as great now as it was thirty years ago; for, indeed, the cities and the communities which create them, grow faster than our knowledge of how to handle this terrible problem possibly can.

Walter Crane's paper, "Of the Decoration of Public Buildings," is less important, yet contains interesting hints in the course of description of some modern buildings and some modern mural paintings. Reginald Blomfield, one of the joint authors of that most valuable little book, 'The Formal Garden in England,' gives the fourth address, "Of Public Spaces, Parks and Gardens," and it is full of common sense. It seems that he and Mr. Lethaby must have put their heads together, so neatly does the fourth of these lectures carry on and develop the thoughts offered in the second. What "landscape architecture," as our modern phrase is, can do for cities and towns is extraordinarily well suggested in this really valuable paper. Finally, Halsey Ricardo has treated "Of Color in the Architecture of Cities." Here there is more difficulty, for no living man has seen color used successfully in external architecture in city or in country, and no one can imagine it except as the use of flower gardens may furnish color. Mr. Ricardo seems to perceive that the flower garden is his great chance, and attempts to translate the effect of flower gardens in city squares.

John Checkley; or, The Evolution of Religious Tolerance in Massachusetts. By the Rev. Edmund F. Slafter, D.D. Two vols. Boston. 1897. (The Prince Society.)

It is a distinct misfortune to the cause of literature that the publications of such book clubs as the Prince Society do not more often come out into the open and take the chances of life. As a matter of fact, they too seldom fall under the usual harrow of criticism, and, however great their merit, remain in the seclusion of private hands or on the shelves of a few large institutions. They seem to enjoy the right of asylum rather than the privileges of a tested reputation. Dr. Slafter's 'John Checkley' touches with a scholar's care and with a partisan though not ill-natured severity upon an important phase of New England history; but since his work in no sense enters the lists of literary competition, it may fairly claim the indulgence of an undertaking which does not seek to be weighed on its merits. In all candor, however, there arises a reasonable doubt whether, if the accomplished editor had subjected himself to the requirements of the open market, he would have allowed himself so much freedom and so little restraint and compactness, more particularly in the memoir of his subject.

The "persecution" of John Checkley in Boston during the early twenties of the last century is not a well-remembered incident. Checkley was by birth a New Englander, Oxford-bred, a non-juror, and a devoted propagandist of the Establishment in the colonies. His citadel was a small book-shop just opposite what is now the Old State-house; from this admirable site for any sort of enterprise he projected weapons calculated to hurt, in the shape, mostly, of reprints of forensics by English divines. The heaviest ordnance was Charles Leslie's 'Short and Easy Method with the Deists'; but Checkley did not fail to discharge a few lighter shafts of his own fashioning. For these various assaults upon the bulwarked faith of later Puritanism, Checkley was made to appear at the Court of Sessions, and, on appeal, at the Superior Court of Judicature and Assize. Before a court of which Samuel Sewall was Chief Justice, a protagonist of that black beast Episcopacy was sure to come off worsted, and Checkley was fined £50 for publishing and selling a "false and scandalous libel." Nothing could have been more strict than the adherence of the prosecution to the observance of law, but the spirit of liberty was on Checkley's side and not on theirs, and he, who at the time showed more than anything else a predilection for getting into trouble, remains in memory a martyr to intolerance. Some years later, not without opposition, he received orders in the Church of England, and ended his days as rector of King's Church, now St. John's, in Providence, Rhode Island, ever a haven against intolerance (though some would except the year of our Lord 1897). But with his trial ends the public career of Checkley; at most he was an incident and not an epoch of our earlier days.

It is easier to share Dr. Slafter's unconcealed indignation at Checkley's persecution than to follow his admiration for Checkley's abilities. That the Boston bookseller was persistent and courageous is undeniable; but neither his letters nor his printed remains proclaim him the rich scholar and man of conspicuous parts that his apologist so readily discerns. It is from a modern point of view that Dr. Slafter sees his hero loom so large. The story, however, is a clear illustration of the determination of New England to resist any ecclesiastical encroachments, great or small. There was intolerance, but, as on Checkley's side, there was no want of good courage. Dr. Slafter has discharged a volley at the already well-assailed Puritan, but, as we have not unpleasantly meant to say, from behind the ramparts of the Prince Society. That society's reputation for making a handsome book is again sustained. It is to be noticed, however, that Benjamin Colman's name is given as Coleman, and Peter Thacher's as Thatcher. Perhaps the editor has new light on these familiar names; otherwise such errors are the more to be regretted in a work not subject to revision.

For Dr. Slafter's "Bibliography of the Controversy in America Relating to Episcopacy, 1719-1774," in volume ii., students will have cause to be grateful. The subject, which is to increase in interest, receives an impulse from so excellent an array of titles.

Montaigne, and Other Essays. By Thomas Carlyle. Now first collected. With Foreword by S. R. Crockett. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1897.

No one who raises himself out of obscurity and narrow means by the sole use of his pen escapes the experience of hack work. Afterwards, when independence and recognition come, the successful author is glad to forget his incunabula. Dr. Johnson's disinclination to be reminded of his Grub Street performances is notorious, and Carlyle had a poor opinion of his articles in Brewster's 'Encyclopædia.' He never cared to republish them; and Froude's judgment, conveyed in a footnote, was probably a reflection of his master's final feeling on the subject. The sketches in question, he says, "are little more than exercises." A publisher now rises up to dispute this censure by reprinting in collected form some seventeen essays written in 1821, and paid for by those checks of Sir David Brewster which made their way to Ecclefechan in forms suggested by true filial piety. In the face of Carlyle's own adverse criticism it must be the bibliographical instinct which has led to the present adventure, although the concluding words of Mr. Crockett's introduction breathe reverence for the young prophet undisclosed. This early work, having been rescued from the "densely-piled, double-columned débris of the 'Edinburgh Encyclopædia,' may now stand printed plain and fair on any man's shelf who, for the sake of the full-fed herd, loves even these firstlings of the flock." The fate of just oblivion has overtaken other articles of equal or greater merit which were contributed to the same compendium, and we very much doubt whether any one would have thought it worth his pains to unearth such forgotten papers were this not an age that collects postage-stamps and reprints ephemerides with the same typographical care it bestows on masterpieces. But while we are apathetic towards this particular scheme we find difficulty in dismissing Carlyle's early literary efforts, when once they are presented to us, without at least a word of comment.

The author of 'Sartor,' writing in stilted eighteenth-century phrase, presents the spectacle of Pegasus attached to a plough, or, perhaps, more fitly, to a threshing-machine. Contrast the easy action of the steed as he wanders at will through the limpid azure of his own disquisition, with his base mechanical trudge on the moving gangway of the 'Encyclopædia': "The fire-baptized soul, long so scathed and thunder-riven, here feels its own freedom; which feeling is its Baphometic baptism: the citadel of its whole kingdom it has thus gained by assault, and will keep inexpugnable; outwards from which the remaining dominions, not indeed without hard battering, will doubtless by degrees be conquered and pacificated." And over against this a sentence from the 'Encyclopædia' notice of Mungo Park's life: "The evils of an African journey were distant in place, and becoming more distant in time, while the disquietudes of his present situation had the painful quality of presence and reality, and he

turned from them with disgust to contemplate the more exalted prospects which imagination delighted to picture in the scene of his former adventures." Carlyle struck his own gait in ten years from the time he began to publish. A wider vocabulary and a more etymological use of words are the first signs of difference between him and the ordinary digester of facts. There is no evidence of a special desire to avoid trite expressions or constructions. With the length of his composition prescribed, the youth of twenty-six went through his books of reference, arranged an intelligible abstract, and delivered goods of an expected size and quality. The field being an easy one to work, the essays were turned out with very considerable rapidity.

The subjects are either men or districts. Arranged alphabetically, they extend from M to P; from Montaigne to William Pitt, the Younger. Carlyle was fortunate in having worthies only to portray, and the chief interest of the series springs from its revelation of his attitude towards the Great Man. By itself his constant praise may seem commonplace. Considered in the light of his teaching it is significant. His reputation having suffered somewhat from reaction, we are prone to forget the extent of his contemporary influence. One finds the germ of that stimulating effect he had on young men in his early enthusiasm for Montesquieu, Necker, Nelson, and the Pitts. The article on Nelson ends as follows: "The period is advancing when the naval superiority which he completed will pass away; but Nelson's name will always occupy a section in the history of the world, and be pronounced, wherever it is understood, as that of a Hero."

One requires but a modicum of biographical knowledge to perceive that these notices are incomplete. The modern editor of a good encyclopædia would demand more specialized information than Carlyle then possessed on the majority of his themes. The omission of notable facts and considerations, the misspelling of names, etc., fits in well with the general air of an abridgment. School manuals of literary criticism have a way of comparing Macaulay and Carlyle. The former shows off to advantage if one puts his contributions to the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' beside the latter's contributions to the 'Edinburgh Encyclopædia.' To be sure, Macaulay wrote for his friend Adam Black in the fulness of his powers, and treated subjects with which he had long been conversant, while Carlyle is at the disadvantage of immaturity and unfavorable circumstances. But regarded intrinsically, there is no comparison. Macaulay's sketches are models of their kind. A forward student in the Harvard Graduate School might hope to equal those of Carlyle. One notes particularly the extent to which his opinions on the French Revolution changed. Under Necker, Nelson, and William Pitt he has occasion to touch upon its principles and personages. Of Necker's decline in popularity after his return from Basel, he says: "With the most earnest desire to act uprightly and honourably, he soon found it impossible to unite an attention to the real interests of the State with the favor of an excited and ignorant mob, perpetually misled by wicked agitators, yet drunk with its new-found power, and indulging the most chimerical expectations from the actual posture of affairs."

We can discover no reasons for the republication of these articles other than sentimental regard for everything that Carlyle did, and the bibliographical desire to present his writings in their entirety.

The Voyage of the Mayflower, Penned and Pictured by Blanche McManus. New York: E. R. Herrick & Co. 1897. Pp. viii, 72.

In these days of wide-extended, if often superficial, interest in our colonial beginnings, it is not surprising that effort is made to present our early history with the maximum of external attractiveness. Such a volume, designed, one would suppose, for a fashionable drawing-room table, rather than the shelf of a student of New England history, is the one before us. The author and illustrator declares her purpose to be "that even, to those who are interested beyond the limits of these few pages, will be presented a new view of the susceptibility of artistic treatment and *ensemble* of historical briefs relating to any subject likely to prove of general or widespread interest." With the two-fold intent thus indicated, in which we may presume the artistic is the stronger motive, the author's pencil has ornamented a brief narrative of the Pilgrim movement from the flight into Holland to the arrival of the *Charity* at Plymouth in 1624. The sketches which fill the upper third of every page are effectively decorative in black and white, borrowing their motive from suggestions of the text below. To the whole the skill of the printer has given an attractive setting.

The accompanying text is of the slightest, and would scarcely call for comment did not the "Apologia" prefixed speak of it as "terse but authoritative," and claim the volume as not merely "original in its inception," but "correct in fact." Certainly such an assertion is far too pretentious unless reference be had only to the broad general outlines of the familiar story. The author, for instance, in referring to the Pilgrim church, speaks of William Brewster as "ordained their pastor"; certainly his well-known title of "ruling-elder" might have put her on her guard. She represents the Separatists as already fled to Holland in 1575 under Robert Browne—an event which did not take place till 1581. It is surprising to read of the Pilgrims at Leyden that "their church . . . received no further recruits from England and was not increased by proselytes from Holland," when one recalls —to mention no others—how a member of such later distinction as Edward Winslow joined them in 1617. Nor is the author more accurate in reproducing as familiar a series of names as those of the signers of the Compact and of the *Mayflower's* passengers. Besides an indiscriminate application of the then significant title "Mr." to all the signers except three, the more striking because William Bradford is left (in company with John Alden) without such distinction, there are several omissions in the list of emigrants, while Desire Minter masquerades as Winter, John and Francis Billington as Bellwright, and John Turner's son is entered as his wife. A similar want of accuracy leads the author to date the introduction of cattle into Plymouth 1622, rather than 1624; and one queries whether she could have realized the immense amount of labor that would have been involved had the statement been true that the *Mayflower* was "towed over to her anchorage for the winter," *i. e.*, from Provincetown to Plymouth harbor. It is no less surprising to find Peregrine White described as a "daughter to William and Susan White"—a change of sex which a glance at any competent compendium of Pilgrim history would have avoided.

Mercy Warren. By Alice Brown. [Women of Colonial and Revolutionary Times.] With Portrait. Charles Scribner's Sons.

This book has been called out, in large measure, by the immensely increased interest in past times aroused by the eagerness to join the so-called "patriotic-historical" societies. It is an attempt, enthusiastic and industrious, to bring before us in vivid outline one of the most prominent women of the first generation of American independence—matron, poet, historian, controversialist. The attempt is but partly successful. The lack of materials is admitted. Mrs. Warren's voluminous correspondence ran insatiably into moral and political aphorisms instead of personal incidents, and her biographer confesses that she has laid on the details of the picture pretty thick from her general information about the age. She has to "suppose" and "fancy" a good deal.

Apparently Miss Brown's object is to make the present generation more familiar with their great-grandmothers, and draw away the sort of stiff lustre that surrounds them, like saints in early Tuscan pictures. To effect this object, she writes in a strange style, a sort of cross between Stanley Weyman and a Washington correspondent, alternately gushing over the sentiment in Mrs. Warren's life, and making fun of its quaint solemnities. We are particularly introduced to misplaced capitals and false spellings in her letters, as if we could appreciate her character any better from seeing her MS. printed in a way no printer of her time would have let it pass. As a result, Mrs. Warren appears in these pages not so much in her own character, as the prima donna of a modern play, acted by very modern performers, and enlivened by modern gags.

The biographer seems to have gauged very correctly the value of Mrs. Warren's literary compositions; but these cannot have either their merits or their faults appreciated without a much more thorough knowledge of eighteenth-century writers than this book shows. Pope is mentioned; but no knowledge is betrayed that the lines which Mrs. Warren puts as a prologue on the title-page of "The Group" are taken from one of his best-known satires. Addison's "Cato" is never even mentioned; yet it continued to be a special favorite in American households as long as Mrs. Warren lived, and suggested the name Marcia, which resembled Mercy only by accident. Several times Mrs. Warren is called Mercy Otis Warren. Is there any evidence that this practice of preserving the maiden name existed at all in her lifetime? We have seen John Adams's wife called in modern writing Abigail Smith Adams; but she never wrote her name so herself. In those days, as in England now, a married woman dropped her own name when she took her husband's.

With the Trade Winds. A Jaunt in Venezuela and the West Indies. By Ira Nelson Morris. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1897.

The author of this little volume, whose

preface describes it as a "desultory account" of his observations during a recent winter tour, is, to judge by the frontispiece, a young man, but he has avoided the fault, common among young observers of men and manners, of being too critical. He sticks throughout to description, and, tracing his footsteps through that part of the region traversed with which we are most familiar, we find him a pleasant, if somewhat immature, travelling companion. There are, as he says in his preface, so few books in English about the northern part of South America that every new one is of interest.

We note one or two points which have struck us. Mr. Morris found the harbor of La Guayra no longer an open roadstead, the great breakwater so long projected having been finally built. He notices that "one of the greatest disadvantages the present government has to contend with is the existence of contracts and agreements entered into by the previous ruler, Guzman Blanco, with various corporations and syndicates, which are thoroughly impracticable." This, however, is a chronic difficulty in Venezuela. Carácas is evidently improving, for our traveller can speak of his "comfortable quarters at the Grand Hotel," and he insists, with Mr. R. H. Davis, on that capital being "the Paris of South America." American interests he declares to be "steadily growing" in Venezuela, but gives no proof. He makes the surprising statement that the people of Venezuela "do not seem to know what we would call a good horse," the fact being that what we call a good horse is of a totally different breed from theirs, and cannot be acclimated, certainly not without great difficulty. His account of the behavior of the señoritas leads to the inference that the habits of South America are changing faster than we supposed. Can it be that they sit in the windows, directly on the street, "arrayed in becoming toilets, observing the passers-by and chatting with their friends"? In our time they were not visible, though they might have been observing the passers-by from behind the shutters. Elsewhere Mr. Morris says that on Thursday evenings, when the band plays in the Plaza, the señoritas "respond to their suitors," "coquettishly wandering in the shadows." He explains this by saying that "North American customs" have been introduced into Carácas; but we believe he has been misled, owing to the fact that Spanish-American customs are in this respect peculiar. Señoritas are to be met with, no doubt, in the Plaza in the evening, because it is a common meeting-place for every one, but the mother or chaperone of the young lady takes pretty good care that she shall not wander off into the shadows. Such at least was the case *consule* Blanco.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, F. H. Nature's Diary. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
American Newspaper Annual, 1897. Philadelphia: N. W. Ayer & Son.
Armour, Margaret. The Fall of the Nibelungs. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $2.50.
Boswell, James. The Life of Johnson. [Temple Classics.] Vol. 3. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. 50c.
Cargill, J. F. The Big-Horn Treasure. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Dollivet, Louis. Sale Juif! Paris: A Colin & Cie.
Farrow, G. E. The Missing Prince. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Filon, Augustin. The English Stage. London: John Milne; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.50.
George, A. J. Coleridge's "Ancient Mariner." Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 35c.
Hocking, Joseph. The Birthright. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Hume, M. A. S. Philip II. of Spain. Macmillan. 75c.
Hutson, C. W. The Story of Language. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Kipling, Rudyard. "Captains Courageous." Century Co. $1.50.
Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. LII. Shearman—Smirke. Macmillan. $3.75.
Macdonald, George. Salted with Fire: A Story of a Minister. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Mathew, Frank. A Child in the Temple. John Lane. $1.
McKay, Angus M. The Brontës: Fact and Fiction. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Monvel, Boutet de. Joan of Arc. Illustrated. Century Co. $3.
Munroe, Kirk. With Crockett and Bowie. Scribners. $1.25.
Nicoll, W. R. James Macdonell, Journalist. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.75.
Oberholtzer, E. P. The New Man. Philadelphia: Levytype Co. $1.
Pearson, H. G. Freshman Composition. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 50c.
Penney, W. E. Ballads of Yankee Land. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Robinson, C. H. Lunar Caustic. F. T. Neely. 25c.
Podmore, Frank. Studies in Psychical Research. Putnams. $2.
Sargent, Lieut. H. H. The Campaign of Marengo. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Schouler, Prof. James. Constitutional Studies, State and Federal. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Shelley, H. C. The Ayrshire Homes and Haunts of Burns. Putnams. $1.25.
Smith, G. B. The United States. [The Romance of Colonization.] Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Smythe, Alfred. Van Hoff; or, The New Faust. American Publishers Corporation. $1.
Spenser, Edmund. The Faerie Queene. Illustrated. 2 vols. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $15.
Stickney, Albert. State Control of Trade and Commerce by National or State Authority. Baker, Voorhis & Co. $2.25.
Tompkins, Prof. Arnold. The Science of Discourse. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Tyler, Prof. M. C. The Literary History of the American Revolution. Vol. II. 1776-1783. Putnams. $3.
Winternitz, M. The Mantrapātha; or, The Prayer-Book of the Apastambins. [Anecdota Oxoniensia.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 14, 1897.

The Week.

As was expected, the Government's October expenses are proving heavy, and the deficit for the month promises to be something handsome. But the officials at Washington are already arranging for still larger outlays. In the Navy Department, Mr. Roosevelt is prepared to prove that at least $11,000,000 must be had at once for dry-docks alone, if this nation is to be spared the shame of sending its battle-ships to Halifax to have their hulls scraped and painted. We can stand Halifax "frowning" upon us and "threatening" us, as Lodge's frenzied eye beheld her; that only means that we, too, must frown and threaten and give somebody fat contracts to enable us to do it. But if Halifax gives us the friendly use of a dry-dock, the cup of our humiliation is full, and nothing but an appropriation of $11,000,000 can restore our self-respect. Then Secretary Wilson of the Agricultural Department is sure he must have a great deal more money. He means to distribute tons and tons of beet seed, so that we may produce all our own sugar and be spared the mortification of raising $50,000,000 revenue from the imported article. Everybody, in fact, wants bigger appropriations, the revenue being, of course, a "mere matter of detail." Our Government, to tell the truth, is now run on the principle which, as displayed in the construction of the Duke of Argyle's castle, won Johnson's admiration—namely, a "total defiance of expense."

The *Herald* has a telegram from Paris to the effect that the Indian Government, in reply to a further pressing invitation by the English cabinet to consider Senator Wolcott's proposals, has answered that it cannot reopen the question of the Indian currency, and will not be a party to the reopening of the mints for the free coinage of silver. "In well-informed English circles," adds the correspondent, "it is not believed that Lord Salisbury's Government will dare to override the decision of the Indian Government. Senator Wolcott's mission must thus be considered abortive." This news is probably true. It is an easy thing for the people in Downing Street to throw the finances of India into disorder from which they would not themselves be the sufferers, but the men who have to deal with the question practically are bound to consider the question with reference to the interests of India solely. The contention of the bimetallists is that the mints should be reopened in order to secure a par of exchange between silver-standard countries and gold-standard countries. That desideratum is what India has secured by stopping the coinage of silver. To reopen the mints would be to reopen the disturbance. It would seem as though India had had enough experience with free coinage, under which the fluctuations of exchange have ranged as high as 50 per cent., taking the extremes of the whole period 1873-1893. Who is to guarantee that they will not fluctuate as widely in the next twenty years under like conditions? The theory is that an agreement between France, India, and the United States will hold the par of exchange steady at 15½ to 1; but supposing that it does not, who, in that case, is to make good the losses of the Indian Government? Will Parliament make an appropriation for that purpose? Will France and the United States do so? Will Senator Wolcott contribute something? The whole scheme is preposterous. No country is more interested than the United States in its rejection by India and every other country. The longer the question remains open, the longer will uncertainty continue as to the standard of value.

One of the surprising things about the letter of the Governor of the Bank of England, offering to hold one-fifth of its bullion in silver, is that it appears to have been written without consulting with his colleagues in the direction of the Bank. Mr. Smith's letter bore date July 29, yet on September 11 Mr. Grenfell, who described himself as "one of the senior members of the Bank Court," wrote to the London *Times* to deny the rumor that the Bank was going to take the silver dog by the ears, affirming: "I doubt if any opinion has been recorded or any determination come to at all." The question at once arises, If Mr. Grenfell knew nothing of the Governor's letter, did any of the Bank Court know? And if the Governor can venture upon such an important step without taking the opinion of his directors, what may he not do? A London financial paper declares bluntly that the whole thing was not a question of banking or finance, but of political intrigue; and that the reason Mr. Smith wrote his letter was that his eyes were fixed on "hypothetical stars—if not garters."

Many attempts have been made during the last six months to get Mr. Gage to take the public into his confidence, and the Peorians have at last drawn him. He dedicated the Bradley Polytechnic Institute of their town last week, and unbosomed himself. Like other sphinxes, however, he did not say what was expected, and did say something that his friends, certainly, could not have dreamed of hearing. About the currency he was mum as ever, while he discoursed at length on the "service due from wealth," and roundly denounced all who had imported goods while the Dingley bill was going through Congress. This, he said, was "sharp and inequitable," because the importers did it "to anticipate and take over to themselves the revenues which Congress was endeavoring to secure for the good of all." This view may take in Peoria, but it certainly will not among the importers, who forced the retroactive clause out of the Dingley bill last spring. What they urged was, that it was "sharp and inequitable" that a law should be made to stop their business before it was passed by Congress. Mr. Gage is a very good banker, but that does not make him a good ethical teacher. Besides this, the retroactive-clause question is absolutely disposed of, while the currency question is still up. Some expression of opinion about it in his report in December will be read with interest.

The withdrawal of England from the joint sealing conference because Russia and Japan are to be members of it is evidently due to the objections raised by the Canadian Government. Although the conference is deliberative merely, having no power to alter the rules laid down by the Paris tribunal, the Canadians apprehend the adverse influence of a majority vote against their views and interests. The grounds upon which England puts her refusal to meet Russia in this conference are set forth in the recently published Blue Book. This document contains the communication from the British Colonial Office to the Foreign Office dated July 26 of the present year, in which it is said that "the reason's which induced her Majesty's Government to decline to enter upon a joint negotiation with the three Powers interested in suppressing pelagic sealing were, that since 1893 Great Britain has had an arrangement with Russia in regard to the seal fishery in which that Power is interested, and that, as the seal herds are generally alleged to be quite distinct and not to intermingle, no advantage would have been gained by a joint negotiation which could only have been based upon incomplete knowledge of the facts." It appears also that Lord Salisbury's acceptance of the conference, which was dated July 28, was for a conference "between Great Britain, Canada, and the United States," and that was expressly limited to the object "of arriving, if possible, at correct conclusions respecting the numbers, conditions, and habits of the seals frequenting the Pribyloff Islands at the present time as compared with the several sea-

sons previous and subsequent to the Paris award." The seals frequenting the Russian islands were not contemplated in the negotiations for a conference. These negotiations were conducted solely by Ambassador Hay. The bringing in of Russia and Japan seems to have been the work of Mr. John W. Foster, of whose prowess as a coercionist and tail-twister there was much talk in the newspapers three or four months ago.

The decision of Judge Baker, in the United States District Court for Indiana, regarding the right of removal from office takes essentially the same view of the question as had previously been expressed by Judge Cox of the District of Columbia Supreme Court and Judge Jenkins of the United States Circuit Court at Chicago. This latest case was one where a United States marshal had removed a deputy, who was in the classified civil service, for no other reason, apparently, than the fact that he represented the opposite political party. Judge Baker held that his court, as a court of chancery, had no jurisdiction in the matter, but he proceeded to state his position as to the points that had been raised. The substance of it all was that no rule or regulation of the Civil-Service Commission, nor any executive order, could change the law under which the marshal has the right to appoint and dismiss deputies.

The Judge, however, showed the way in which responsibility can be brought home to every official who removes a subordinate in defiance of commission rules or executive orders. "The enforcement of such rules or regulations," he said, "lies within the domain of executive departments, which possess ample powers to enforce the proper observance of and subordination to the rules and regulations promulgated by the Executive for the government of those employed in any executive department of the government." In other words, the head of any department directly—as the Attorney-General in the case of a United States marshal—and the head of the Government finally, can compel obedience to any rules or regulations by their power of removing the superior who violates such rules or regulations in the treatment of his subordinates. For example, President McKinley recently promulgated the rule that "no removal shall be made from any position subject to competitive examination except for just cause and upon written charges filed with the head of the department or other appointing officer, and of which the accused shall have full notice and an opportunity to make defence." The United States Marshal in Indiana appears to have violated this rule. The case should be carried to the President, and Mr. McKinley should be forced to decide whether he meant anything by that order. Here seems to be a chance for the civil-service reformers of Indiana to put in some effective work.

The decision of the Citizens' Union to nominate candidates for the Assembly in all the city districts is the most direct blow which could be aimed at Platt's political business. Quigg was prompt to realize this, for he denounced the proposal as soon as he heard of it as an act of "bitter hostility to the Republican party," showing that the Union "is not a non-partisan municipal movement at all, but simply a conspiracy to smash the Republican party." When Quigg says "Republican party" he always means Platt, and there is not the slightest doubt that if Platt were to lose control of the State Legislature, his power would be "smashed." So long as he can name the Republican candidates for the Legislature and succeed in having enough of them elected to give him a majority, he looks forward with positive pleasure to the election of a Tammany mayor in this city. He can, on the 1st of January, resume business on the old lines at Albany. He can introduce a bill cutting down the mayor's term to two years, or a series of bills putting the government of the city into the hands of State commissions, or bills proposing any changes whatever in the charter that may strike his fancy, and Tammany will be obliged to buy him off with spoils or let the bills pass. The State Legislature is, in fact, the very centre of Platt's power. Through that he rules the State, and because he possesses that he is able to levy his blackmail upon corporations, and thus collect the revenue by means of which he runs his machine. If Mr. Low shall become mayor, and Platt still has control of the Legislature and the Governor, he will be in position to cause endless annoyance to the cause of decent and orderly government in this city. The new charter in no way lessens the old curse of rule of the city from Albany.

The county section of the National Democratic party has succeeded in working its own ruin and disgrace by giving its endorsement to the wretched Tammany ticket, in return for Tammany's nomination of Mr. Scott for Supreme Court Judge. It was able to do this after the party organization for the entire city had given formal approval to the candidacies of Mr. Low, Mr. Fairchild, and Mr. Schumann. Of this performance we have spoken already, when it was proposed, as disreputable. It was described in much more severe language on Thursday night by one of the members of the county organization, Mr. James Byrne, who has for many years been an earnest and valuable worker in it, and who called it a "low, contemptible deal, what every citizen in private life calls it—a base, low, depraved sale and barter of human souls for the purpose of getting one man into office." That it will have much effect upon the election we do not believe. No organization whose only excuse for existence was its profession of hostility to Tammany Hall can go over to Tammany, especially at the moment when it has put a ticket like its present one in the field, and carry many voters with it. The most it can accomplish is its own destruction, and that is not a cause for regret.

We have now four parties in the city, each striving to elect officers for the Greater New York. But the most curious feature of the conflict is that only one of the candidates makes any pretence of wishing to be elected for the sake of the city. All the others wish to be elected for the sake of something else. Croker wishes his candidate to be elected for the sake of "the organization," and "the organization" exists to get hold of places for the Boys. Platt wishes his candidate to be elected for the sake of the Republican party in the nation, and for the perpetuation of his own power over nominations and legislation in the State. George wishes to be elected in behalf of a new system of state taxation, or, as he calls it, "the principles of social economy for which he has long contended." In fact, Low is the only one who even pretends to wish to be elected in order to improve the administration of the city.

George knows perfectly that the mayoral chair is not a chair of political or "social economy," and that he would in it have no more power over state taxation, car-fares, or hours of labor than he has now, but he does not mind this a bit. He thinks his election would help to spread his social economy. We must say for George that we believe that, if he was elected, he would be a better mayor than either Croker's man or Platt's man; that is to say, he would probably appoint to office honest cranks and bummers, who would make terrible mistakes and blunders, but probably steal less and make fewer corrupt contracts than Platt's men or Croker's men. Nothing is more ludicrous in this canvass than the attempt now being made to persuade people that, if elected mayor, Mr. George would do something to their property, and the pretence of some of the rich men who want to help Platt, that they believe it. George's election would show that we have a large ignorant element among us, but, alas, we know this already. What it would reveal, which we do not know, is that we have highly placed Americans like Gen. Tracy, ready to lend their aid in spreading atrocious deceptions and helping to promote atro-

cious follies at the expense of the municipality.

Mr. Low's speech in Brooklyn on Saturday night bristled with good points, but the passage we liked best was the reference to the learned Foraker, who was holding forth in New York the same night on the same subject. It appears that Foraker has been brought on here from Ohio, apparently to tell us how to elect a mayor, and what kind of mayor we ought to have, but Mr. Low hinted delicately that Foraker would like the place himself. This was an *a-priori* inference from the general readiness of Ohio men to fill any places they can get. But Mr. Low alleged with great force that the proper place for the Mayor of New York was his office in the city hall, not Washington or Ohio. It seems to us this must be so. It may be that Foraker knows all about the mayor's office in this city, else why would he come in to tell us about it? but the question is, Could his knowledge be of any use to us if he stayed in Ohio? We think not. There are the same objections to Platt's governing the city from Washington. He is a man of immense administrative ability, but we do not, for our part, believe in non-resident mayors.

A Chicago man who visited Switzerland during the past summer asked ex-President Freye, who was once a citizen of Chicago, how the referendum is working in the mountain republic. He replied that, when a great question is brought forward, the people feel a deep interest in it, go to the polls and vote, and they always vote right; but that, when the matter is of comparatively little consequence, they do not wake up and go to the polls. The Chicago investigator further reports:

> "He told me of one farmer named Bauer who had eccentric ideas of the franchise. Bauer said he was accustomed for a long time always to vote 'no,' but recently he had invariably voted 'yes,' and since then he had had much better luck with his cattle."

We judge that there are a good many farmers in Connecticut who vote on constitutional amendments the same way that Bauer formerly did. On no other theory can the remarkable fact be explained that, while the proposition to require ability to read English as a qualification for the suffrage was carried on Monday week by a vote of 47,005 for and only 4,560 against—91 per cent. affirmative and 9 per cent. negative—the opposition rose to 17 and 22 per cent. in Windham and Tolland Counties, respectively, largely composed of rural towns, while in New Haven and Hartford Counties, with their large cities and many foreigners, the negative ballots constituted only about 6 and 9 per cent. respectively. Moreover, in these latter counties it was the rural districts which showed the strongest opposition, the little "back town" of Marlboro casting 14 negative votes as against 20 affirmative, while the city of Hartford furnished only 51 "no" ballots to 1,151 "yes."

It is evident that the real location of the Cuban war is not in the island itself. The fighting is much fiercer in Madrid than it is in Pinar del Rio or Santiago de Cuba. We have our Gen. Woodford most properly there, though in what must be, for him, the highly difficult rôle of a man "with sealed lips." Hostilities are also beginning to rage at Washington again; but the most critical of all the Cuban struggles are going on in various inland towns and cities of the United States, where our Senators and Representatives are in the thick of the fray. Senator Davis, for example, chairman of the Senate committee on foreign relations, delivered a deadly assault on the Spanish troops on Thursday at St. Paul. So successful was he that he had belligerency recognized, independence achieved, and annexation secured all in one brilliant action. In all seriousness, what is the use of Gen. Woodford or President McKinley breathing peace and friendship when a man in Senator Davis's responsible position talks as he does? He and the other Senators and Representatives who speak freely of what Congress is going to do are the real belligerents. They are the men whom McKinley has most to dread. They will force his hand infallibly, as they are ostentatiously preparing to do if he does not do voluntarily what they want. Nor can the Spaniards be blind to the real power with which they have to deal. They have seen a Senate asserting its supremacy in the conduct of foreign affairs, and a President meekly yielding it, and why should they be deceived by smooth words from the nominal authorities, when they see the real authorities breathing out threatenings and slaughter?

A most damaging review of Lord Salisbury's foreign policy was made by John Morley in his opening speech in Scotland on September 28. It was necessary for him to do little but contrast promise with performance, and to put the facts with his characteristic pungency. Salisbury had lamented that Bismarck was not again in the chair at the European Concert. Well, why did he not take the chair himself? With the exception of the Emperor of Austria, no active public man in Europe had had a longer experience, particularly in foreign affairs, than Lord Salisbury. If he had not behind him, as Bismarck had in 1878, an invincible army, he had the supreme naval power of the world. Why, then, deplore an empty chair when it was only a question of a strong heart to take it? Nor did Mr. Morley omit to adorn his speech with some of those telling phrases of which he is a master, and which stick in the popular mind. Salisbury had talked grandiloquently of the European Areopagus; yes, cried Mr. Morley, referring to the German bondholders in Greece, a fine Areopagus, indeed—a court for the recovery of small debts! The boasted "forward policy" in India—what was it, asked the orator, but a Forward Rake's Progress? They had been assured in 1895 that the retention of Chitral meant "a period of quietude and economy." Let the frontier ablaze tell of the quietude, and the $25,000,000 already spent of the economy! But one of Mr. Morley's finest strokes was reserved for his characterization of the unscrupulous and cruel nature of English rule in some parts of South Africa. After exposing and denouncing what was practically a system of involuntary servitude, he said, "But I shall be told that I am a sentimentalist. So far as I can make out, however, you are a sentimentalist in the minds of these gentlemen if you are not a ruffian." There in a nutshell is the whole gospel of Jingoism, Imperialism, or whatever other elegant names are given to modern piracy and buccaneering.

The little by-play going on between the Emperor William and Prince Bismarck is highly amusing. The monarch showers compliments upon his old Chancellor at every opportunity, aiming to wheedle him into an endorsement of his policy. These the aged statesman accepts with ostentatious thanks, and immediately sets up his organs in the press with fresh stories or rumors that Bismarck is only waiting to see the Emperor's policies collapse. The latest subject of these manœuvres is the big navy on which the Kaiser has set his heart. He invites Bismarck to be present at the launching of the new battleship; alas! the recluse of Friedrichsruh is too feeble to venture on such expeditions. At any rate, he will answer the obsequious telegram which his royal master sends him. So he does, with profuse non-committal. But the next day he has a little launching of his own in the shape of a newspaper interview wherein he says:

> "I never had the slightest fancy for colonial conquests, in the French style, and to go into that policy now is a great mistake. Our commerce should everywhere be aided and protected; but the flag must follow trade, not precede it. For a long time to come the important thing for us is to have a strong and well-equipped army. That was also Moltke's opinion. So let us have no barking dogs or any fantastic plans which can only embroil us with the people whose friendship is most essential to our European position."

This sort of comment, joined with Bismarck's satiric references to the Emperor's ministers, must convince William that Bismarck is not yet ready, as he is reported to have declared that he was not, to be employed for theatrical effect.

THE BERING SEA CORRESPONDENCE.

Undoubtedly the best thing that could happen to us as regards the Bering Sea controversy would be the total disappearance of the seal herd from our territory or jurisdiction, or, better still, from the world. The poorest kind of an inheritance is to fall heir to a lawsuit, and this is what we gained when we took the Pribyloff Islands under our jurisdiction. We had existed one hundred years as an independent nation without a seal herd and had never missed them. If they were all driven off to Japan by the use of the branding iron, of which there is some fear expressed by sealing captains, we should very soon forget that we had any. They would pass out of the public mind and memory like the buffalo herd that covered the Western plains thirty years ago, and we should be rid of our lawsuit at the same time.

We are reminded of our encumbrance afresh by the publication of a Blue Book on this subject containing an answer by the British Colonial Office to the accusations embraced in Secretary Sherman's so-called "shirt-sleeves dispatch." This famous communication found a few defenders who said that the main question was not whether the dispatch was polite, but whether it was true; and every one of these defenders, so far as they fell under our notice, assumed that because it was not polite therefore it must be true—thus reversing the common observation of mankind, that the person who loses his temper in a dispute is usually in the wrong. We shall not say that Mr. Sherman was wrong in substance, as he certainly was in manners, but it may be affirmed that he or those who write letters for him have got something to reply to now which cannot be answered by mere vituperation.

The document before us is too long to be exhaustively treated in a single article, but the principal points may be mentioned. Mr. Sherman's first accusation was that the report of Prof. Thompson, the British expert, was purposely withheld to subserve the political exigencies of the situation. The reply to this charge is that the reasons for the delay of the report had been communicated to the United States Government in a dispatch of the 7th of May. This was but three days before the writing of Mr. Sherman's dispatch, and "those explanations," says the document, "cannot have been before Mr. Sherman when he permitted the insertion of the above-quoted statement in his dispatch." Referring to the substance of the accusation which relates to the depleted condition and probable early extinction of the herd, due to pelagic sealing, it quotes from the final report of Dr. Jordan, the American expert, the opinion, derived from a careful study of all the conditions, that "the fur-seal herd has decreased to about one-fifth of its size in 1872-'74, to somewhat less than one-half of its size in 1890; and that between the seasons of 1895 and 1896 there has been a decrease of about 10 per cent." In his preliminary report, Prof. Jordan estimated the number of breeding females in 1880 at 600,000, and of all kinds at 1,500,000; but, continues the document:

> "He has now apparently carried his comparison further back, and estimates that in 1872-74 the herd was about five times its present size. This would mean that at that period the herd numbered 700,000 breeding females, and 2,200,000 seals of all grades collectively, and her Majesty's Government will await with interest his explanation of the disappearance of 100,000 breeding females and 700,000 seals of all grades in the period between 1872-74 and 1880, when pelagic sealing had not yet begun. Mr. Chamberlain is not aware that it has ever previously been admitted that there was a decrease in the herd between 1872-74 and 1880, and apparently Dr. Jordan himself was not aware of it when he wrote his preliminary report, as on page 17 of that paper he states that 'until 1872, and perhaps a few years after, the herd continued to increase. During the period 1872 to 1878 it doubtless remained practically in a state of equilibrium under the various checks acting upon it, of which the trampling of pups was the chief; the Northwest catch, which remained stationary at about 5,000 during those years, being another element of the check.' Whether the earlier or later views of Dr. Jordan are to be taken as expressing his final opinion, the discrepancy shows the difficulty attending the discussion of the question in consequence of the absence of any really trustworthy data on which comparisons of the size of the herd at different periods can be based, and justifies the action of her Majesty's Government in refusing to be drawn into a discussion of the question until further information has been acquired."

The charge against Great Britain is that pelagic sealing is the cause of the diminution of the herd, but here is the testimony of the American expert to the effect, in substance, that the number of the herd decreased much faster before pelagic sealing began than it has since done.

Another charge in Mr. Sherman's dispatch was that Great Britain had not furnished her due proportion of the patrolling fleet to enforce the regulations of the Paris tribunal. As neither country was required to furnish any vessels for this purpose, this charge would have only an indirect bearing on the question in any case; but, as a matter of fact, the British force detailed for this purpose has consisted of five or six men-of-war, against an equal number of revenue cutters furnished by the United States. The document adds:

> "Her Majesty's Government also send three vessels to patrol the western side of the Pacific to see to the enforcement of the arrangement with Russia, and, though United States pelagic sealers equally engage in the fishery on that side and the United States have a similar arrangement in regard to it, Mr. Chamberlain has never heard of any United States vessel taking any part in the patrol on that side."

Touching the general principle of the freedom of the seas, the document brings to light the fact that in 1832 a United States vessel named the *Harriet* was engaged in catching fur seals on the coast and in the territorial waters of Buenos Ayres, that the vessel was seized by the local authorities for violation of the rights of that country, and that the United States Government landed an armed party at Soledad, liberated the crew and cargo, and declared "that the seal fishery on those coasts was in future to be free to all Americans, and that the capture of any vessel of the United States would be considered an act of piracy." This instance is made to support the remark, by Mr. Chamberlain, that "the United States Government have departed from the noblest traditions of their country, which had earned universal honor by their efforts to vindicate the freedom of the high seas."

These are only a few of the points covered by the document in question, which ends with the following words touching the future intentions of the British Government in reference to this matter:

> "Her Majesty's Government have never argued that the regulations were perfect, but they have maintained that, before they can be revised in a scientific manner, accurate information as to the increase or decrease of the herd must be available, and that such information can only be obtained by accurate observations extending over a sufficient period to enable accidental circumstances to be eliminated; and as soon as that is at hand, they will be ready to enter on a discussion of the question in the impartial and friendly spirit with which they can confidently claim to have acted throughout this controversy."

MUST THE REPUBLICAN PARTY DISBAND?

Gen. Tracy on Saturday night delivered himself of some remarks on the subject of "non-partisanship" which deserve examination. He asserted that the running of an independent ticket on non-partisan lines meant that the Republican party should "disband and disorganize." He then went on to say:

> "In a popular government political parties are a necessity. No government resting upon the suffrages of a free people can have any other government than the government of a political party. [Applause.] That has been the experience of England ever since the Revolution. For more than 200 years England has known no other government than the government of a political party. That is the government, and the only government, that they have had. It is true of this country also for more now than one hundred years. The only government known in the United States is the government of a political party. It is the only government that can be known. It is impossible to govern this country on any other basis. [Applause.]"

But it is not England only that has had parties for 200 years. Every country in the world has had them, some for 2,000 years. The Jews had them in Jerusalem, the Romans in Rome, the Greeks in Constantinople. But parties in all places except American cities divided, and divide, about things they have control over, not about things which they cannot and do not influence. Parties in England, Gen. Tracy must know, divide only about policies which they can shape and carry out. The Lon-

don County Council has two parties bitterly opposed to each other—Radicals and Conservatives—but what they divide on is the making of streets, the erection of buildings, and the wages of laborers, not about the Greco-Turkish situation or the South African affair. There are two fierce parties in the London School Board, the Progressists and Moderates, but they divide about the religious education of the children, not about Irish home rule. There ought to be, or rather are sure to be, parties in every city, but they ought to be practical, not speculative parties; they should be parties which can, if they get a majority, carry out their own ideas. When a party man rises to speak at a city canvass, what he should talk about is street-cleaning or police or schools. He should urge his own views on these subjects against the views of other men. It would seem very absurd to invite the audience to leave him and go somewhere else to hear Quigg on the negro or Platt on the currency. There may be, and probably often are, parties in a prosperous bank or trust company; but they are parties about the affairs of the bank or the company. They divide on discounts, on loans, on dividends, not on the decline of the Senate or civil-service reform; they divide, in short, on the affairs which they can shape, not on affairs which they can only think and feel about. In truth, political parties have always, except in our cities and in insane retreats, existed for the purpose of doing something they think they can *do*, and not for the purpose of "voicing" about something they know they cannot do. This is true of Babylon, Nineveh, Jerusalem, Rome, Constantinople, as well as of England.

If this be so, Gen. Tracy's statement or suggestion that the Republican party in New York must, if they do not win this election, "disband and disorganize," is the kind of statement or suggestion which used to make Charles Lamb examine a man's bumps with a candle. It would follow from this that if I think Mr. Low a fit man to be Mayor, I must, being now a high-tariff man, advocate a low tariff, and that when I next vote for a Congressman, I must vote for a free-trader, though I do not believe in free trade at all. But why should I be so absurd? Why should my views about Mr. Low change my views about silver or free trade? Why am I cut off from voting for a Republican at the next congressional and at the next Presidential election because I think Mr. Low would make a better Mayor than Gen. Tracy? Gen. Tracy does not know; nobody knows. Parties are composed of *voters*, agreeing about things which, if they get a majority, they think they can accomplish or hinder, not about things over which they have no power. A Republican is a Republican, not because he agrees with anybody about the mayoralty, but because he agrees with millions of others in various parts of the country about the things which Congress or the President can do. Why should he not agree with them still, after voting for either Tracy or Low?

The fact is that when Gen. Tracy said that "the Republican party must disband and disorganize" in case Low was elected, he did not mean the vast body of citizens who elected the majority in the present Congress and put Mr. McKinley into the Presidency. He meant the small knot of persons, of more or less shady antecedents, who form the Republican machine of this city, consisting principally of Platt, Quigg, Lauterbach, Van Allen, Gibbs, Gruber, Kerwin, and Murray, and a few others. Not only will they have to "disband and disorganize" in case Low is elected, but to make them "disband and disorganize" is one of the objects of the Low movement.

Nor was Gen. Tracy any more frank about his own share in this business. Had he been frank about it, he would have said something of this kind:

"What I mean by saying that the Republican party will have to 'disband and disorganize' if Low should succeed is, that the small clique, headed by T. C. Platt, who assume to represent the Republican party in this city, will have to abandon their occupation for want of funds, and about half the income of my own firm will be cut off. I am a partner of a son of this Platt, and although he is not a practitioner of very high standing, the power of his father over the Legislature and Governor and some of the judges is so well known that we receive much business from our connection with what is called 'the Old Man.' Nearly all our politico-legal practice comes to us for this reason—both suits, contract and bond-drawing. We do, also, a very nice business in stopping bills or 'jamming them through' when the Legislature is in session. We cannot possibly consent to surrender such a revenue as this without a contest. Should Low be elected, the elder Platt would probably lose control of the Legislature. Not only would he thus be unable to obtain the large sums he now gets from corporations, because he could no longer promise them privileges or immunities, but we should lose the large revenue our firm now receives from our connection with him. This is why you see me here to-night as a candidate for the mayoralty. I have no more expectation of being elected than any one else in this room. I am a candidate for revenue only. I am fighting, as you would fight, for property, and I am therefore naturally opposed to Low and George. But you will understand that all this does not prevent my being, as my learned friend Foraker has just remarked, a man of 'very high character' and 'unswervingly loyal to the Republican party,' and 'a man of justice, probity, and without reproach,' and 'a man of most irreproachable character in both public and private life.' This is why I cling so to the Republican party and hate to have it 'disband.' I have become a candidate, I admit, also, to oblige Mr. Platt; but why should I not? Is there any man to whom I am under greater obligations? Is there any man whom it would be baser for me to desert in the hour of his extremity? No, my friends. The Republican party has been a good party to us. There always has been a Republican party in every country. Civilizations have risen and fallen, but the Republican party has survived them all. It exists and continues to exist because it meets some of the deepest needs of humanity. Man, as the old writer well said, ages ago, cannot live on wind alone. He needs food and clothing, and, since the invention of street-railroads, has needed car-fare. Principles will not fill his stomach. The Republican party has been the first after Tweed's party to recognize these tremendous facts of human history and deal with them."

SPAIN'S DILEMMA.

The practical exhaustion of Spanish resources, after the tremendous exertions of the past two years in attempting to put down the Cuban rebellion, is admitted in Spain. It may not be true that the Bank of Spain has refused to advance $10,000,000 more to the Government, but it is certain that more money can be had, from that source or any other, only with the greatest difficulty and on the most onerous terms. The official organ of the Government lately spoke of the Treasury as "exhausted." Sagasta, before taking office, declared that the financial situation was deplorable, if not desperate; and it has since been given out that a frank statement of the case would soon be made public. It is confessed that the troops in Cuba are six months in arrear in their pay, and there is no money to send to them.

Moreover, one has only to trust Spanish testimony to be convinced that the unparalleled efforts put forth in Cuba have failed in their aim. Gen. Weyler's latest official dispatch asserted that the western end of the island was completely pacified, yet in a week's time he had to report a serious engagement with insurgents in the very province of Havana. As for the eastern section of Cuba, where the rebels are in force, and where they recently captured an important garrison after a set siege of two weeks, the most that the Captain-General could promise was that the rebellion should there be put down "by next March." Meanwhile he confesses to heavy losses through disease. In fact, invalided soldiers are sailing for Spain nearly every week. One ship's load of 600 men recently lost sixty men in the passage

home. Good judges now put the Spanish effective in Cuba at not above 100,000 men.

This is the discouraging situation in Cuba after two years of fierce and exhausting exertion. Never before in the world's history has a nation made such sacrifices and put forth such effort to subdue revolting colonies as has Spain since 1895. A recent official report of the Spanish Minister of War sets forth the astounding figures. Between November, 1895, and May, 1897, no less than 181,738 men, 6,261 officers, and 40 generals have been sent to Cuba. Counting the garrisons already in the island, the total fighting force must have been hard on to 225,000 men. In addition, and during the same period, Spain has had to send 28,000 men to the Philippines. It is safe to say that no nation in modern or in ancient times ever sent across the seas so many of her fighting men in her own ships in the same length of time. It has been a supreme and unequalled display of energy, but it has been fruitless.

There are military experts in Spain who assert that this whole policy of massing a colossal force in Cuba has been one huge mistake. It was playing the insurgents' own game, they say. The announced policy of the rebels was, not to fight, but to exhaust, Spain. There was no regular campaign; no open fighting; no pitched battles. The war was a guerrilla war; the work of the army was largely that of doing garrison and police duty, or of pursuing, in light columns, the fleeing bands who raided here and there, but who never stood up for a square fight on equal terms. In these circumstances, say some Spanish military critics, the enormous dispatch of troops was a blunder. The men could not operate to advantage in such numbers; they were in each other's way, so to speak; they made camp and city congested; and their sustenance was a frightful drain on Spanish resources. The policy but hastened the time for which the insurgents were looking, when Spain, wearied and exhausted, should be ready to think of abandoning Cuba altogether.

While a good deal is to be said for this view, from the purely military standpoint, there were other reasons of a political nature which justified, if they did not compel, the lavish pouring out of men and treasure. It was indispensable that the rebellion be crushed quickly. Cánovas saw, all Spanish statesmen saw, that a prolonged and smouldering insurrection would be fatal to Spanish supremacy in Cuba. In the aroused and sensitive condition of public opinion in the United States, that would have infallibly meant interference by us. But interference by the United States was also from the first a high card of the insurgents. They counted upon that as much as upon tiring Spain out. So the Spanish Government was wise, on the whole, in its resolve to spend every power in making a speedy end of the rebellion. That was the only way to retain Cuba. The pity of it all is that Spain has spent every power, has exhausted herself, and yet has not quickly ended the rebellion. In other words, the insurgent policy has triumphed in both its grand aims: Spain is baffled and breathless; sympathy for Cuban independence has risen to great heights in the United States, and is rising higher every day.

In these altered circumstances it is inevitable that Spain's policy should have altered. It is clear that the new ministry intends to try the plan of political remedy, of placating by reforms and a grant of autonomy, while still making a show of crushing out opposition by force. It is a question if this is not too late—if the change will not mean to the insurgents a final confession of weakness, and cause them to stand more stubbornly than ever for independence. The better opinion seems to be that such will be the case. If so, Sagasta's task will be the difficult one of inducing the Spanish people to submit to the inevitable. He may be aided, or he may be hampered, by the attitude of our own Government. At present, we must confess, a diplomatic collision and a rupture appear the most probable. But whichever way Spain turns, the dilemma that confronts her is most cruel; and no one possessed of the historic imagination can fail to see pathos in the situation to-day of the nation that, three centuries ago, was at the head of Europe and of civilization.

BIOGRAPHY REGAINED.

One of the sources of delight in the Life of Tennyson is the conviction, which strengthens upon the reader as he is led on through its fascinating pages, that, with these volumes, English biography is recovering its sane and sound methods. We have to glance a long way back to realize fully the dislocation and demoralization which fell upon biographical writing a dozen or fifteen years ago. From Southey's Life of Wesley, Stanley's of Arnold, Trevelyan's of Macaulay, it was a sudden and a violent leap to Froude's Carlyle. The shock brought by the latter work to minds trained in the old traditions is well illustrated in a story which Tennyson himself wrote of with approval in a letter to Gladstone. It is as follows:

"I heard of an old lady the other day to whom all the great men of her time had written. When Froude's 'Carlyle' came out, she rushed up to her room, and to an old chest there wherein she kept their letters, and flung them into the fire. 'They were written to me,' she said, 'not to the public!' and she set her chimney on fire, and her children and grandchildren ran in—'The chimney's on fire!' 'Never mind,' she said, and went on burning. I should like to raise an altar to that old lady, and burn incense upon it."

Tennyson did a great deal of similar burning towards the end of his life, if reports may be believed, and his son and biographer tells us that he himself did a great deal more. At any rate, whether by fire or otherwise, the Life of Tennyson has been purified. Not an unsavory scandal lurks in it from cover to cover, not an unexplained insinuation, not a jeer at weakness, not a fling at inferiority or failure. One feels that he has got back to the bracing and clarified atmosphere of the great biographies.

The enormous value of this literary achievement is the more evident when we recall the many recent examples going to show the general searing of the sense of delicacy and reserve in both biographers and readers. Of the biography of Manning it has been sadly said that Mr. Purcell appeared to set out not so much to write the Cardinal's life as to take it. Manning's friends wanted to prosecute his biographer for murder. Nor could we necessarily expect better things of Hallam Tennyson simply because he was writing of his father. Filial obligations have not always prevented biography from becoming a "chronique scandaleuse." Augustus Hare has drawn a picture of his mother with unsparing hand, as Barrie has of his mother with reverent though still indelicate touch. Mr. P. G. Hamerton thought it right in his own autobiography to uncover his father's nakedness in a way that would have seemed brutal even if a stranger had done it.

From all this, as from all malice and innuendo and recrimination and backbiting, the Life of Tennyson is so absolutely free as to make its writing and publication a great event in letters, quite irrespective of its positive merits. It is something to have the record of this long life, in touch as it was with all the great and honored ones of his time, and find in it not one ungenerous line, not one squint suspicion. Any other result would, to be sure, have been peculiarly outrageous in the case of Tennyson. No man valued reserve more than he, none ever writhed or burned more at the crimes of an eaves-dropping and newspaper-ridden age. Once when he thought he was dying, he cried out in a greater agony than that of physical suffering, "Oh that Press will get me now!" His son prints some remarks which he once let drop on the indiscreet and indecent school of biography:

"I hate the blare and blaze of so-called fame. What business has the public to want to know all about Byron's wildnesses? He has given them fine work, and they ought to be satisfied. It is all for the sake of babble. As for the excuse, 'Tôt ou tard tout se sait,' nothing can be falser as far as this world is concerned. The surface of the *tout* may be, but the *tout* never is, correctly known. 'If one knew all, one would pardon all,' is much more likely to be the truth. The worth of a biography depends on whether it is done by one who wholly loves the man whose life he writes, yet loves him with a discriminating love. Few of

these gossiping biographies are the man, more often the writer."

Lord Tennyson's Life of his father would be entitled to the highest praise if it had but escaped adding one more to the list of "gossiping biographies." It has, of course, the solidest claims to admiration for what it gives as well as for what it refuses. It shows that it is not necessary to write in a whispering-gallery or servants' hall in order to produce a biography of surpassing interest. This is not the place to pass a formal judgment upon the Life of Tennyson. But it may be said that his son has given us all we need to show us the growth whether of man or poet, and that one closes the volumes feeling that the man was greater than his poetry—that his poetry was great because it came from a great heart and a rich and wise mind; that, in short, the contents of this biography fulfil the promise and justify the choice of the lines printed on the title-page:

"I have lived my life, and that which I have done
May He within Himself make pure!"

BLACKSTONE.—II.

How is it that Blackstone's 'Commentaries,' whatever the deficiencies of their author, stand apart from and far above all our other legal treatises?

The answer is that Blackstone was an eminent man of letters, and, by virtue of literary genius, favored by the circumstances of his time, produced a treatise on the law of England which at once became and will for ever remain a part of English literature: the 'Commentaries' live by their style.

This reply, however, needs explanation. Style, to ordinary readers, means little more than the command of a copious and appropriate vocabulary; but in truth the possessor of a good style must be endowed with at least three qualities—power of expression, clearness of aim, and literary judgment or tact. Each of these gifts, which are rarely found in combination, belonged to Blackstone. His language, or "style" (in the narrower sense of that word), was universally admired by the educated men of his age; it was certain to be appreciated by a generation trained in the school of Johnson. At times, if tried by the canons of modern taste, it degenerates into pomposity, but on the whole it well deserves the commendation which it has received from good judges. Blackstone's thought is often wanting in precision and is open to the charge of confusion, but his language is always clear. He says what he means to say, and says it on the whole with simplicity, and (what is a fair test of good writing) his expressions rise and fall in accordance with the requirements of the subject-matter. His language is simple and plain enough when he is engaged in explaining legal technicalities, and it rises to dignity, and even to eloquence, when, for example, he is insisting upon the glories of the English Constitution. His style fascinated his hearers, and if for readers of a later age its fascination has vanished, it still retains a certain attractiveness.

Even the best English writers of the nineteenth century are apt to lack clearness of aim, and are unable to place clearly before their eyes the exact object which they seek to attain; they have not made up their minds what is the precise character of the audience whom they intend to address, or what is the precise scope of the work which they hope to produce. This planlessness mars the writings of an author so eloquent as Froude and of a writer so capable and interesting as Mr. Lecky. But the fault which detracts from the merit of even the best literary work of our day is, or rather has been (for in this matter there has of recent years been a great improvement), the special vice of all but a very few of our writers on law. The vast mass of legal treatises are utterly without plan; their writers have generally collected together a vast mass of information, but they have no clear notion what is the class for whose benefit they are writing. At one moment they have in their minds the wants of an ignorant student. At another moment they wish to meet the requirements of practitioners. They have formed, again, no conception of the scheme on which their subject is to be treated. No sane man would ever dream of seriously examining or criticising the arrangement of a book such as Chitty on Contracts, and this for the simple reason that of anything like logical distribution of a subject—such, for example, as is displayed by Sir Frederick Pollock in his admirable work on the Law of Torts—the author had probably no idea whatever. Now from all this vice of planlessness Blackstone is utterly free; his book is addressed to a definite and, from a literary point of view, to an admirably chosen class of persons. He addresses educated gentlemen who, for one reason or another, wish to study the law of England and to understand its principles; these men may be students who wish to go to the bar, they may be magistrates who take part in the administration of justice, they may be members of Parliament, or persons who hope to shine in political life. In any case they are assumed to be an audience who are neither on the one hand practitioners who want to learn the details of their business, nor men who had not acquired the elements of a liberal education. Blackstone writes, in short, for educated gentlemen who desire to become acquainted with the principles of English law. He knows not only who are to be his readers, but also what is his precise design. His book is written on a carefully considered plan. Few persons will nowadays entirely approve his scheme of arrangement, but the scheme is never out of his mind. His intention is to cover in outline the whole field of the Common Law. He distributes his subject into four books, each of which is intended to deal with a separate branch of law. His arrangement is open to very severe criticism from a logical point of view, but for literary purposes it has some strong recommendations. Knowing, as he does, both the persons for whom he is writing and the exact scope and plan of his book, he avoids the faults of books which are, often mistakenly enough, called "practical," and of still more worthless books which aim at being what is termed popular. He makes no attempt to supply the details for which you must properly refer to books on practice, and he does not, on the other hand, aim at meeting the wants of uneducated ignorance. He aims at producing, as he has produced, a book on law which may interest men of education and intelligence.

Neither Blackstone's command of language nor his clearness of aim would have enabled him to succeed in the performance of the task he had set before him, had he not been endowed with the gift of literary judgment or tact. This is the quality in which even excellent writers often fall short. It would be possible to point to one book after another which contains extremely good writing, and which is formed in accordance with a thoroughly sound design, but has never achieved complete success because of the writer's want of tact. This defect may show itself in various ways. It may easily take the form of pedantry. An author who has been at great pains to acquire information finds it all but impossible not to make use of the facts which he has laboriously collected together, and therefore intrudes upon his readers statements which it may have been well worth his while to verify, but which are not necessary for the treatment of the matter which he has in hand, and which do not interest those whom he addresses. Learning is a means, not an end, and the useless display of learning is the vice of the pedant. Want of judgment, again, may well take the shape of an exaggerated desire for completeness. There are books, no doubt, which ought to be in the strictest sense exhaustive, and such works fall short of their end if they do not deal with every part of their topic. But a treatise belonging to this class must, almost of necessity, be written for, as it will assuredly be read only by, experts, and the exhaustive method of treatment is utterly unsuited for literature which is intended to meet the wants of a wide though educated public. Blackstone at any rate has realized to the utmost the worth of the well-worn dictum that the half may be more than the whole. His omissions are one main source of his literary success.

But the want of tact which leads a writer to touch upon every part of his subject may also induce him to treat no one part with fulness. Exhaustiveness may be combined with meagreness; the result is that the reader who is told something about everything is told nothing which is interesting about anything. From this mistake Blackstone is saved by his tact; he does not dread omission, he is also able to indulge in suitable expansion. He knows where to curtail and also where to abound. It is in this point more than any other that Blackstone displays his special genius. In virtue of his tact he has succeeded, as has no English writer before or since his time, in blending the history with the exposition of law. He has avoided at once the dry dogmatism which infects the whole school of systematizers and codifiers, and the antiquarianism which is the bane of authors devoted to the historical method. Not by the use of any logical formula, but by reliance on his native good sense, he perceived exactly the amount of historical information which was needed to explain each rule of law, and never gave his readers either more or less of history than was sufficient to render the law of England intelligible. He always remembered that he was a teacher of law, and neither a legal dogmatist nor a legal antiquarian. Hence, amidst the mass of subjects which form part of the law of England, he selected for special exposition topics which, because they were interesting, have interested and instructed his readers. Among such topics one may specially refer to his

"Introduction to the Law of England," to his account of hereditary right, to his sketch of the feudal system, to his history of the doctrine of the "benefit of clergy," to his account of the action of ejectment—where the solemn description of a portentous series of legal fictions becomes not only interesting but also almost amusing—or to his statement of the growth and nature of "Equity," which, even at the present day, for practical purposes is probably the best, as it is certainly the most readable, account of a matter as to which even lawyers are often a good deal perplexed. But the truth is one might fill a page or more with a list of the interesting disquisitions on different parts of the law which fill up Blackstone's 'Commentaries.' In the art of so dealing with law as to make legal problems of interest to laymen of intelligence, Blackstone is unrivalled, or rather he had no rival till Maine published his 'Ancient Law.'

Blackstone, then, was a consummate master of style, and in virtue of his style produced a law-book of supreme literary merit. It were idle in this matter to compare his writings with most of the standard works on English law. We may say of nearly every law-book produced before the last thirty years (when, under the influence of Maine, lawyers attempted again to write in the spirit of men of letters), that style it had none. It were idle to talk of the style of the Chittys, or the Addisons, or the Archbolds; it would savor of unseemly irony to talk of literary grace or lucidity in connection with Sugden. No doubt to this condemnation there are one or two splendid exceptions. Serjeant Stephen, Kent, and Story had as writers great though different merits. It is noteworthy, by the way, that two of this trio had acquired or practised the gift of exposition in the lecture-room, and these eminent lawyers wrote for lawyers rather than for laymen; they did not, like Blackstone, aim consciously at adding to English literature.

Yet the Commentator's genius as a man of letters would hardly have insured his lasting fame had not the circumstances of his time singularly favored his endeavor to exhibit the law of England in an adequate literary form. English law had, when Blackstone wrote, assumed a fixed and, we may say, coherent shape. The foundations of the Common Law and even of Equity were, in his day, too firmly established to be greatly modified by judicial legislation. Mansfield had done all that a great judge could do to amend the law, and Mansfield's efforts in the direction of legal reform had come at least a century too late; he left no successor. The legislative innovations of Parliament had not begun. To most men the law and the Constitution, though legally capable of change, seemed practically unchangeable. It is just possible that Blackstone's legal apologetics betray, like the theological apologetics of Paley and others, a half-conscious prescience of coming revolution. At any rate the catastrophe was not nigh at hand. More than fifty years, dating from the publication of the 'Commentaries,' elapsed before the period of constant parliamentary alteration or reformation of the law began its course. Blackstone, like Gaius, could contemplate the law which he described as a coherent and immutable body of doctrine. The reformation of the law by means of parliamentary enactment, which, inaugurated under the influence of Bentham, has lasted to the present day, has been the source of infinite benefit to the world. But though it has promoted human happiness, it has been an almost fatal obstacle to the rise of any other author who should repeat in later days the success of Blackstone. The law has become, especially as regards real property, incoherent, and acts of Parliament, whatever their merits, have, while greatly increasing the bulk, ruined the symmetry of the law of England. Were Blackstone to arise from his grave, he could, with all his talents, make nothing, from a literary point of view, of the modern statute-book, which, with its delusive look of clearness, is written in the worst kind of English known to civilized men; and even in Blackstone's time it was well for a writer on law to avoid acts of Parliament. It is instructive to note how deftly and lightly he passes over the Statute of Frauds.

Nor was it only the fixity of the law and the legislative torpidity of Parliament which were favorable to the composition of the 'Commentaries.' It is of almost equal importance that Blackstone lived at a time when the so-called learned world was a reality, when there was an established standard of style, and when men of letters addressed themselves neither to experts nor to that very unsatisfactory class known as general readers. The audience of whom Johnson, Hume, Adam Smith, Gibbon, and Blackstone courted and received the approbation, was the whole body of the educated gentlemen of England. It is no accident that these authors, greatly as they differed from one another, had this characteristic in common, that they were all of them masters of style. It was the Commentator's happy fortune to have lived at a date when the law of England could still be expounded in a satisfactory literary form, and when the world of letters supplied him with the right form of expression. Of this good fortune he availed himself to the very utmost. As regards not so much Blackstone's fame as the permanent influence of his teaching, the happy circumstances on which we have dwelt were balanced by one piece of ill luck: his official successors did not continue his work. One of them wrote a book on law which no one ever reads; another, and he by no means the least distinguished of a very undistinguished body, occupied the Vinerian professorship, and discharged its duties, if at all, by deputy, while he himself held a judgeship in India. Blackstone, because he was followed by no real successors, did not create a body of disciples. Had his place been taken by teachers of half his energy, even though they had not been endowed with his own genius, he would have retained his deserved reputation. His successors, while correcting his errors, either logical or historical, would have worked out the fruitful suggestions to be found throughout the 'Commentaries,' and he himself would have been known, as he ought to have been known, to the world as the founder in England of a great school of law.

PETER THE GREAT.—I.

PARIS, September 21, 1897.

M. Waliszewski is devoted to the history of Russia; his two volumes on Catharine II. of Russia were received with much favor by the public; the first ('Le Roman d'une Impératrice') has already attained the eleventh edition, the companion work ('Autour d'un Trône') the sixth edition. He gives us now a volume, which is even more important and richer in original documents, on Peter the Great. At a moment when the fever of the Russian alliance was at its height, it was rather bold to show us Peter the Great as he really was; the Russian Empire as a land hardly emerging from a barbarous and inorganic state. I confess that the book has produced on my mind almost the effect of a nightmare. Peter appears in it as a sort of monster, as a prodigy, as the embodiment of another and inferior humanity. A modern philosopher has written eloquent pages on the *Uebermensch;* the Slav, as personified by Peter, is a sort of *Untermensch:*

"Peter," says M. Waliszewski, "is Russia itself, its spirit and its flesh, its temper and its genius, its virtues and its vices. With the diversity of his aptitudes, the multiplicity of his efforts, the tumult of his passions, he seems a collective being. . . . The physiognomy of the world which he seems to have drawn out of nothingness may have been modified in some of its features; not so the principle of its existence. There is a force there, immeasurable, which in three centuries has defied all calculation, and which out of the small land of Ivan, a poorly populated steppe, has made the patrimony of the Alexanders and the Nicholases, an empire larger in size and in population than any which Europe, Africa, and Asia have known, than those of Alexander and of Rome, those of the Caliphs, the British Empire, with all its colonies. Twenty millions of square kilometres and a hundred and twenty million men! This force was once called 'Peter the Great.' The name has changed, the character has not."

Peter the Great was born on May 30, 1672. He was the son of Natalie Narishkin, the second wife of Tsar Alexis Mikhailovitch, who died in 1676. The mother and the young child had to leave the Kremlin, and were sent to a village near Moscow. The Tsar Alexis had other children by his first wife; the eldest, Feodor, died in 1682, without posterity. The second was an idiot. The high dignitaries pronounced in favor of Peter, who was five years old. It was a triumph of his mother's family, but it did not last long. The Miloslavski, relations of the first wife, proclaimed her daughter Sophia, who was already twenty-six years old. She had been brought up in the *terem* of the Kremlin, a sort of cloister; the Patriarch and the near relations were the only visitors. "The doctor was admitted only in the case of a grave malady. When he arrived the shutters were closed, and he could feel the pulse only through a piece of linen." The Princesses lived there, slaves of an immutable and Oriental etiquette. "The people only knew their names, which were pronounced in the public prayers. The Princesses knew nothing of life; they were not allowed to marry a subject on account of their rank, nor a foreign prince, on account of their religion."

Notwithstanding many difficulties, Sophia was able to become the instigator of the *coup d'état* which was marked by the revolt of the Strelitzi, and which made Ivan Peter's associate—Ivan the idiot, the brother of Sophia. "The *terem* was certainly under the direct influence of Byzantine ideas, comprising the historical mixture of asceticism and of intrigue which composed the life of the Lower Empire." Sophia found an instrument in Vassili Galitzin, with whom she was in love, but she was the soul of the plot against the Narishkin faction.

The Kremlin was besieged, the Strelitzi began a massacre which lasted three days; at the end of it, Sophia threw off the mask. Ivan was proclaimed second Tsar, a great banquet was served for the soldiers, and Sophia did the honors of it. The red shirts of the Strelitzi were still covered with blood; she helped them to drink. On May 29 she was proclaimed Regent.

Meanwhile, young Peter was a passive victim. At the age of eleven, he did not yet know how to read and write. He came back to the Kremlin only on the days of great functions, to sit on the double throne (which is still to be seen in the Museum of Moscow). The rest of the time he remained at Preobrazhenskoi. He made friends with grooms, with country boys, played at soldiers and sailors with them. There was a constant rivalry between the Kremlin and Preobrazhenskoi. The Regent Sophia and Galitzin were living in an atmosphere of plots and counter-plots. On the historical night of August 7, 1689, Peter was awakened from his sleep by men coming from the Kremlin to tell him that an armed band was on its way to put him to death. He dresses rapidly, jumps on a horse, and takes refuge with some stable-boys in the nearest forest, and afterwards in the monastery of the Troitsa. His friends assemble; the Strelitzi pronounce for Peter; the favorite Galitzin is exiled, and Sophia is sent to a cloister.

Peter is now really the Tsar, but he at first abandons the government to his friends, and feels the desire to complete his very imperfect education abroad, at the schools of the civilized world. He did not execute his project immediately, but spent six years in idle amusements, with his friend Lefort, a Swiss officer of fortune, whose house became the centre of gay companions, the comrades of the Tsar. "Ladies also were seen there, Scotch women with a fine profile, Germans with dreamy eyes, fat Dutchwomen. None of them resembled the recluses of the Muscovite *terems*, inaccessible behind iron grates or veils of silk." A great Muscovite reaction against Jesuits and Protestants had followed the *coup d'état* of 1689. In 1690 Patrick Gordon, who lived in Russia, wrote to a friend in London: "I am still at this court, which costs me much expense and uneasiness. Great rewards have been promised to me, but I have received nothing so far. When the young Tsar takes the government in hand, I don't doubt that I shall receive satisfaction." The young Tsar was in no hurry; he lived in a perpetual orgy of movement and noise, or in trying all sorts of experiments, learning trades, building a fleet on a small lake. He was very impatient to view the sea, something bigger than a lake; he sees it at last at Archangel, and appoints Gordon Admiral, he himself remaining a mere captain of the fleet. His life seems mere caprice, but under the surface there worked a hidden and profound instinct. He resolved to enter into contact with Western civilization; but, in order to gain some prestige before undertaking his journeys in the West, he conducted an expedition against Azov, which he succeeded in taking, and thought he could now show himself to his neighbors. He learned on this expedition all that he had to learn.

Such was the instinctive hatred of Western civilization in Russia that, since Ivan the Terrible, the mere act of visiting foreign lands had seemed high treason. Peter himself did not dare to give his journey an official character; he pretended to travel incognito. He was accompanied by three ambassadors, one of whom was Lefort; the letters to him were to be addressed to "Peter Mikhailof." The seal he took with him represented a young carpenter surrounded with his tools, with this inscription: "My rank is that of a schoolboy, and I have need of masters." Waliszewski gives the most minute details concerning the progress of Peter in Germany, in Holland, and in England. Two hundred and fifty persons formed his suite. Lefort alone had eleven gentlemen, seven pages, fifteen valets, six musicians, four dwarfs. Officially, the ambassadors were to solicit from all the sovereigns of Europe "a renewal of the ancient ties of friendship, with a view to weakening the enemies of the Christian name." These terms imply already the opening of the Eastern question. The ambassadors were bound to deny officially the presence of the young Tsar among them.

Saardam and the house of the carpenter Tsar have become the objects of a sort of pilgrimage; but only since the end of the eighteenth century. "Historically, most of the details consecrated by tradition in relation to the sojourn of Peter in the neighborhood of Amsterdam have no reality. It is not certain that he ever inhabited the house which has been piously preserved to our time. . . . All the houses which border the little canal that is a tributary of the Y resemble each other to a tile."

Voltaire, and his friends after him, have followed Peter hour by hour at Saardam; they have seen him making his bed, preparing his meals, constructing with his own hands the model of a ship, the model of a wind-mill; they have seen him working in the yards, with carpenter's tools in his hand, visiting all the manufacturers of the neighborhood. They have kept him in Saardam, to do all this, for two years. The truth is that he remained there eight days. He struck the minds of the people by his eccentric ways and his costume. The legend was born and has superseded history. Even Napoleon visited the more or less authentic little house at Saardam; Alexander I. set up a marble memorial at this humble cradle of Russia's greatness. At Amsterdam, the burgomaster Nicholas Witsen, who had once visited Russia and written a book upon Tartary, and was a correspondent of Lefort, opened for Peter the great workshops of the East India Company. Peter visited The Hague; his curiosity was insatiable; he entered every factory he met, and would handle the machinery; he studied architecture, printing, anatomy, learned to use every possible instrument; he constructed a frigate, a bed, a Russian bath; he cooked his own food; he learned the art of engraving. "There is evidently in all this," says M. Waliszewski, "more fever than reflection, much caprice, even a little madness. . . . With the universality of his genius, Napoleon never pretended to be a great doctor or to make etchings; he specialized his practical knowledge. However, in acting as he did, Peter . . . was preparing himself admirably for the true work which was waiting for him, and which was to be, not the construction of a ship, of a factory, or of a palace, but the installation of a whole civilization."

In January, 1690, the young Tsar left for England. He had already met William III. at Utrecht and at The Hague. Admiral Mitchell and Lord Caermarthen, a great brandy-drinker, were attached to his person. He lived either in Buckingham Street, in the Strand, or in Norfolk Street—there is some uncertainty which. He visited William at Kensington, had a long conversation with him in the Dutch language, showed himself very attentive to Princess Anne, and was pleased with her. He visited the Mint, the Observatory, the Royal Society. He did not care for pictures, but allowed Kneller to take his portrait, which is kept at Hampton Court and is the best there is of him. He spent most of his time at Deptford, where he lived as a carpenter, smoking his pipe and taking his glass of ale in a tavern which till 1808 kept its name of the Tsar's Tavern. He enlisted, while he was at Deptford, a number of workmen and engineers for Russia, gave concessions, made the plans for a canal between the Caspian Sea and the Black Sea. He spent, in all, three months in England. The legend will have it that, before leaving, he gave William a rough diamond enveloped in a dirty paper.

Correspondence.

THE TAX ON THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The framers of our tariff have received credit for removing, after some consideration of their own, and more protests from others, the tax upon knowledge which was at one time proposed. They at last allowed to enter the United States free of customs duty "books printed exclusively in a language other than English."

Until now I have not known that section 502 of the Act of July 24, 1897, is so construed as to admit French novels without the payment of duty, but to demand 25 per cent. ad valorem for learned works of which the title and preface are in English. I have before me a book on which duty has just been paid—a concordance to Homer's 'Odyssey,' 419 pages of closely printed Greek, without a single English word. That a title and preface of one page have been prefixed to tell what the book is—a sort of label or tag—is held to except the book from the privileges of books in foreign languages. More reasonable in my opinion would be the taxing of a foreign book if it happened to contain a single English quotation. This decision may interest others than myself.

Another curious instance of the operation of the rule has come to my knowledge. A colleague of mine, a few months ago, allowed one of his smaller scientific works to be translated into the Japanese language, and furnished a brief preface as a greeting to the Japanese reader. When the author received by mail last week a complimentary copy of his work in its Japanese form, the book was held for the payment of customs duties because the *preface* had not been translated, but had been left in English. In this case, of course, the *title* was in Japanese. At last, however, the collector saw the absurdity of the situation, and on the pretext that no one in the country knew the cost of the volume in Japan, he allowed the book to be delivered without payment of duty.

Σ.

[We append the text of the decision of

the Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, dated September 30.—Ed. Nation.]

"In reply to your letter of the 27th instant, I have to state that a book printed in a foreign language with the exception of the title-page and the preface is not exempt from duty, such book not being printed *exclusively* in a language other than English, as prescribed in paragraph 502 of the act of July 24, 1897."

LABORERS AND THEIR FARE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: My attention has been called this morning for the first time to your reference in the *Nation*, under the date of September 9 of this year, to the second chapter of my book, 'The Workers,' which is appearing in serial form in *Scribner's Magazine*.

I beg leave to express my indebtedness for a most pertinent criticism. I see at once that, from my statements, the very natural inference might be drawn that the skilled laborers who constituted a large part of the company of men with whom I walked to my first day's work as an unskilled laborer, were also of the company of men with whom I worked. This, in point of fact, was not the case. There was much work in progress in and about West Point that summer, and the skilled workmen were employed at their own trades at a daily wage of four dollars ($4.00) for eight hours' work.

In the gang of laborers with which I worked there were men, who claimed to be skilled workmen, who were unable to find work at their trades. I had reason, however, to doubt the truth of this statement in the majority of cases. The four men, besides myself, who boarded with Mrs. Flaherty were skilled workmen, and all but one of these, and he a weaver from the north of Ireland, had work at their trades, and received the wages that I have indicated.

We paid five dollars ($5.00) a week for our board. "Juicy sirloin" was by no means the rule in the matter of meat, but we had meat three times a day, and it was usually excellent. My whole experience in this particular bears out the fact that workingmen in this country fare handsomely. Some of the men who belonged to the gang in which I worked camped out near the post, and did their own cooking. How they fared I had no opportunity of judging.

Allow me to thank you once more for a criticism which shows most plainly a want of criticism in my statements. I shall try to correct the defect in the book form. With regard to the truth of my story, I am glad to be able to assure you that, in my narrative, I have followed facts exactly as I found them.—Yours sincerely,

Walter A. Wyckoff.

Princeton University, October 6, 1897.

SOMETHING FURTHER ABOUT JAMES BLOXHAM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is quite true, as stated in a recent issue of the *Nation* by Mr. Wilbur C. Abbott, under the heading "Some Unpublished Washington Letters," that none of the editors of Washington's Writings have published aught about James Bloxham beyond the letter of George Washington to Arthur Young; but among the treasures in the Department of State can be found the history of this "James Bloxham, Farmer," in a nutshell. The first paper relating to him is entirely in Washington's familiar and strongly characteristic chirography, and sets forth the compensation, duties, privileges, and penalties of the situation James Bloxham was to fill; in other words, it is the *Articles of Agreement* given *verbatim et literatim* below. It contains six examples of a striking feature of the contracts drawn up by Washington: whenever he was compelled to write his own name in the body of a document it was always done in his ordinary handwriting, and was noticeably dissimilar from the same name as written for his signature. The seals opposite the two signatures are small lozenges of writing paper attached to the document by red wafers. The witness, Geo. Washington, was George Augustine Washington, the nephew of and at one time the manager for the General. The text of the Agreement is as follows:

Articles of Agreement entered into this 31st day of May in the year 1786 between George Washington Esqr of the County of Fairfax and Commonwealth of Virginia of the one part, and James Bloxham lately from the Shire of Gloucester in the Kingdom of England, Farmer of the other part Witnesseth, That the said James Bloxham for and in consideration of the Wages, allowances, and priviledges hereinafter mentioned, doth agree with and oblige himself to serve, the said George Washington for the space of one year; to commence the first day of the present Month, in the capacity of a Farmer and Manager of such parts of Husbandry, as shall be committed to his charge; and will, to the utmost of his skill and abilities, order & direct the same (with the approbation of the said George Washington) to the best advantage.—That he will at all times, and upon all occasions, suggest such plans for the improvement of the said Washington's Farms, and the stocks of Horses, Cattle, Sheep, Hogs, &c^a which are on them as to him shall appear most conducive to his interest.—Will keep regular Acct^s of the said Stock—and will strictly observe & follow all such orders and directions as he shall, from time to time receive from his said employer; for this, and for other purposes.—That when thereunto required, he will buy, at the expence of the said Washington, Cattle, or Sheep for feeding, or for Store; and will dispose of the same, or any others, to the best advantage; attending particularly to the care & management of the Stock of every kind, both in Winter & Summer—as well those for the use and benefit of the Farms, and for family consumption, as those which may be fatted for Market.—That he will use his utmost endeavours to encrease, and properly distribute, the Manure on the farms; and also will improve to the best of his judgment, the impliments of husbandry necessary thereto—and will instruct, as occasion may require, and opportunities offer, the labourers therein how to Plow, Sow, Mow, Reap, Thatch, Ditch, Hedge &c^a in the best manner.—And generally, that he will consider the said Washington's interest as his own, and use his true endeavour to promote it accordingly. In consideration whereof the said George Washington doth agree to pay the said James Bloxham Fifty Guineas for his year's Services, to be compleated on the first day of May, 1787; and will allow him the said Bloxham, ten guineas besides, towards defraying the expences of bringing his Wife and family to this Country.—That when they shall have arrived, he will provide him, & them a decent and comfortable House to reside in, by themselves; will lend them two Cows for Milk—a Sow to raise Pigs for their own eating (but not to sell) and give them as much Bran as is sufficient to brew Beer for his family's use.—And moreover, will allow them for the part of the year which will remain after the arrival of his family and leaving his present board, at the rate of Six hundred pounds of Pork or Beef, and Eight hundred pounds of Middling Flour, per annum;—and likewise a piece of ground sufficient for a Garden, and firewood.—The said George Washington also agrees to provide the said James Bloxham with a horse to ride on for the purpose of superintending the business herein required—or, if the said Bloxham shall find his own horse, to allow pasturage, & reasonable feed for him.—Lastly it is agreed between the said George Washington & James Bloxham, that if the said James should not return to England at the expiration of the year for which he now engages, and his conduct shall be such as to merit the approbation of the said George Washington, that then and in those cases, his wages for the next year shall be Sixty Guineas; and the other allowances and priviledges the same as those of the present year. In testimony of all, and each of these Articles and for the full and perfect compliance therewith, the parties to these presents hath interchangeably set their hands and seals, and to the other, doth bind himself in the sum of One hundred pounds Curr^t money of Virginia, the day and year first written.

Signed, Sealed &c^a

in the presence of Geo: Washington — G^o Washington [s.]

James Bloxham [s.]

Turning to Washington's large book of accounts, we are able to glean the name of Bloxham's wife (Mary); the actual length of his service (four years and one month); the day when he set up his household gods in America (June 9, 1787); the fondness of his family for meat and fish; and the date of final settlement of his account (June 1, 1790). The entries in this book are in various hands, as Washington himself or a private secretary attended to this part of the daily routine. Bloxham's account is found in two parts of the book, on page 237 and again on page 303. One notes the punctilious change from "James Bloxham (Farmer)" of the first or "old" account while he was serving Washington in that capacity, to the "Mr. James Bloxham" of the second or "new" account, which runs on for one year and six days after he ceased to attend to the Mount Vernon farms.

Concerning the Col. Fitzgerald of the first account, to whom in November, 1786, Washington paid eleven shillings freight of Bloxham's chest, etc., Washington gives the following interesting item in his diary for 1788:

"*Sunday, November 2d*, M^r George Mason came here to dinner and returned in the Evening—After dinner word was bro^t from Alexandria that the Minister of France was arrived there and intended down here to dinner—Accordingly, a little before Sun setting, he (the Count de Moustiers) his Sister the Marchioness de Breton [Brienne]—the Marquis her Son and M^r du Ponts came in.

"*Monday 3d.* Remained at home all day.—Col^o Fitzgerald & Doct^r Craik came down to dinner—& with a copy of an address (which the Citizens of Alexandria meant to present to the Minister) waited on him to know when he would receive it."

Many interesting items may be gathered from these old account-books, whose entries preserve the names of those with whom Washington had business relations; they also shed much light on the customs and habits of the times, and are models of neatness and accuracy.

Mary Stevens Beall.

Washington, October 4, 1897.

Notes.

We are glad to learn that Dr. Horace Howard Furness has completed another volume of his Variorum Edition of Shakspere's Plays, viz., "A Winter's Tale," which Lippincott will bring out in the course of a few months.

Charles Scribner's Sons will publish on this side of the water a posthumous work of Mrs. Oliphant's, the 'Annals' of the publishing house of William Blackwood & Sons of Edinburgh. They will also have a share in

Messrs. Dent's "Temple Waverley" for the pocket, and will put their imprint on Robert Louis Stevenson's 'St. Ives: The Adventures of a French Prisoner in England.'

Dr. Edward Dowden is the author of 'French Literature,' the volume next to appear in Appletons' "Literature of the World" series.

B. H. Russell's fall announcements include 'The People of Dickens,' a portfolio of photogravures and copper etchings by C. D. Gibson; 'Drawings by Frederic Remington,' illustrating wild life in America; 'The Blackberries,' humorous drawings in color by E. W. Kemble; 'Phil May's Sketchbook'; a portfolio of twelve photogravures by Alfred Stieglitz, 'Picturesque Bits of New York, and Other Studies'; and 'Going to War in Greece,' by Frederick Palmer, with sixty photographic illustrations.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. will issue immediately 'Self-Cultivation in English,' by Prof. George Herbert Palmer of Harvard University.

Ginn & Co. have nearly ready a 'Course in German Composition, Conversation, and Grammar Review,' by Dr. Wilhelm Bernhardt.

William Patton, Philadelphia, is about to publish 'The Graphic Age: a Biographical and Historical Souvenir of the Calligraphic and Typographic Arts.'

'Men in Epigram,' and 'With a Pessimist in Spain,' by Miss Mary F. Nixon, are promised shortly by A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

Dr. A. Rose, 126 East Twenty-ninth Street, New York, solicits subscriptions to a work on 'Christian Greece and Living Greek,' with a plea for Greek as the international language of physicians and scholars in general.

The "Oxford University Press, American Branch," has just been incorporated, Mr. Henry Frowde being the President. The business will be carried on by a staff of American citizens, some of whom are stockholders.

The lapse of ten years might be thought to have detracted somewhat from the value of that coöperative work, 'The American Railway' (Scribners), and its freshness has naturally been impaired. Its reissue, nevertheless, implies a demand for it, and the larger part of this popular presentation, with its numerous excellent pictorial illustrations, has still power to interest and instruct. The same publishers have brought out a uniform edition, in five gayly covered volumes, of Mrs. Burnett's stories of and for children, 'Little Lord Fauntleroy' and the rest, of which it would be superfluous to speak; and have once more cut the cable of Mr. Stockton's 'Rudder Grange,' freighted with Mr. Frost's illustrations. Finally, the elaborate "Outward Bound" edition of Kipling's works is continued with 'The Naulahka,' in which the elder Kipling's relief illustrations show him at his best.

From Macmillan we have the fifth annual issue of the useful 'Handbook of Graduate Courses,' edited at Cambridge, Mass., for the Federation of Graduate Clubs; a revised translation of Zola's 'Lourdes,' in two trim and handy volumes; three more of the Dent translations (among the best, and in manufacture quite the most elegant) from Balzac—his 'Cousin Betty,' 'Seraphita,' and 'The Seamy Side of History'; 'The Rivals,' in the little "Temple Dramatists"; and, above all, one might say, Chapman's 'Odyssey,' in two pocket volumes, in the "Temple Classics."

The 'Life of James Macdonell, Journalist,' by W. Robertson Nicoll, which was reviewed in these columns on its appearance in England in 1890, is now republished in this country by Dodd, Mead & Co. Mr. Macdonell's work as editorial writer for the London *Times* was of a high order, but it is chiefly on account of his character that American journalists may be advised to read his life. They will find in it a more exalted standard than that commonly presented to them, as well as some warnings concerning overwork that should be heeded.

Mr. F. G. Kitton's 'Novels of Charles Dickens' in the "Book-Lover's Library" series, edited by H. B. Wheatley (Armstrong), is a timely contribution to the Dickens revival. In some 250 pages Mr. Kitton sketches Dickens's literary career, and relates his publishing adventures with his novels. On the side of bibliography, much information is given as to the value of early editions which should appeal to book-collectors, while here and there the editor has been able to give us fresh items of personal history furnished by the surviving friends of Dickens. With these exceptions, the substance of the book is derived from Forster's 'Life.'

Henry C. Shelley's 'The Ayrshire Homes and Haunts of Burns' (Putnams) is unequally divided between a brief survey of the poet's territory and extracts from his poems, embellished with local photographs taken by the author; the whole prettily bound.

Prof. Miall's presence, as one of the sectional presidents, at the August meeting of the British Association in Toronto, will no doubt add to the number of readers of his recent book, 'Thirty Years of Teaching: Reprinted, with Additions, from the [London] *Journal of Education*' (Macmillan & Co.). The contents of this very neat little volume are so varied that it is difficult to say just what class of teachers will be most benefited by it. It will probably interest those engaged in scientific work more than others, but it is to be recommended to all—not as a work bearing any great message to the profession, but rather as a help in revising one's own methods and views of educational questions.

'The Gist of Japan,' by Dr. R. B. Peery of the Lutheran American Mission at Saga in Hizen (Fleming H. Revell Co.), is a capital book of accurate information, well illustrated, and full of common sense. In sixteen short and well-constructed chapters, the author, rich in reading of the best authorities and in actual experience, tells of the people and their country and of Christian mission work. The tone is that of a catholic mind, and of a modest and scholarly person who is charitable and cautious. As a nation does not grow in a day, so neither is judgment to be hastily formed or quickly passed upon a people with such marked characteristics as the Japanese. We learn that they control the camphor trade of the world, have a prejudice against cats having tails, are trying to shed all their mythology except that which relates to their Emperor's ancestry; that sheep are curiosities to be seen only in menageries, and that the climate is damp and ozoneless. We also have a luminous discussion of morals and religion by one not swift to be satisfied with his own judgments and very slow to condemn. No other book, not even Dr. Gordon's 'American Missionary in Japan,' discusses so fully, so honestly, and so luminously the missionary work and problems. Certainly all zealous youth and candidates for appointments as converters of the Buddhists ought to read Dr. Peery's chapters. Notwithstanding the author's insight into the difficulties on the surface and in the depths, his tone is one of imperturbable faith in the final victory of Christianity in Japan. We have found no error of importance, but there is no excuse for lack of an index in a work like this.

In a finely printed quarto of nearly 600 pages, the heirs of the late Dr. Benjamin Apthorp Gould have just presented to astronomers the substantial completion of the photographic work undertaken by him twenty-five years ago at the Argentine National Observatory in Cordoba. Although Dr. Gould did not live to see the completion of this task of his inception, still all had been so nearly finished that, with Dr. Chandler's supervision, the whole is now brought forth in entire harmony with the original plan. On Dr. Gould's first going to the southern hemipshere, celestial photography had not yet yielded tangible results in the line of accurate stellar positions, chiefly because the now familiar dry plates were not then available. Much pioneering thus was matter of necessity; and the misfortunes and obstacles that beset his endeavors were most astonishing—not the least of them a broken object-glass, the death of two photographers from pulmonary disease, and of a third from a stroke of lightning. The Argentine National Government has, however, supplied the necessary funds, for preparation and publication, and the finished volume now before us, really monumental in character, gives the accurate positions of nearly 10,000 stars, with a chapter devoted to each of 37 stellar clusters, mostly in the southern celestial hemisphere and invisible to observatories generally in the United States. The conclusion of a significant labor like this, in a field by no means yet overworked, may well induce pride, not only in the astronomers whose patient faithfulness has conducted it through all these years, but in the enlightened officials of a sister republic whose helpful generosity alone has made it possible.

We feel assured that students and younger teachers of French, of both sexes, will be greatly interested in Dr. E. Koschwitz's 'Anleitung zum Studium der französischen Philologie' (Marburg: Elwert; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). The little book is astonishingly practical for one coming from the pen of such a distinguished scholar as Prof. Koschwitz. It is intended for Germans, but there are a hundred hints that will prove useful to students of any nationality, especially those intending to study in foreign countries. The author's desire to be helpful to women students also, and the pains he has taken in gathering information for their benefit, even such as regards boarding-places in French and Swiss cities, expenses, etc., deserve especial recognition.

A monograph on the states of the western Sudan, by Dr. P. C. Meyer, is published as a supplemental number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen*. It is prefaced by a bibliography of the literature of the subject and a chronological list of explorations from the earliest times to 1896. A condensed account of the history, ethnology, commerce, and industries

of each of the twenty separate states or races is given with numerous references to the sources of information. It is accompanied by three maps showing the race and political divisions, and the trade routes. These are so arranged as to indicate the nationality of the traders, as well as the character and direction of their business. The trade route from Lake Chad to Tripoli, for instance, is used by Arabs and Moors to carry north slaves, grain, and native cotton goods, the south-bound caravans bringing salt and European wares. The regular number, eight, of the *Mitteilungen* contains a map with notes showing the boundary between Chili and Argentina in Tierra del Fuego, a description of the river basins of Africa, and a short account of explorations to the west of Lake Tanganyika with a map.

A bibliography of geographical literature for the year 1896 is contained in the September number of the *Annales de Géographie*. The titles of 1,021 works and important articles in periodicals and scientific publications are given under subject-headings with descriptive notes signed by the writers, among whom are Dr. H. R. Mill of London and Prof. W. M. Davis of Harvard University. The list is practically complete for the lesser known parts of Asia and Africa, while for the other countries only works or articles of a scientific character are entered. There are useful indexes of authors and subjects.

Only twenty-six years have elapsed since the railway was built up the Rigi, and to-day Switzerland has forty-six mountain railroads. The most popular of them at present is that up the Wengern Alp, from Interlaken, via Lauterbrunnen or Grindelwald. A few years ago there were only a few small hotels near Wengern; this summer 700 guests jostled each other in the new hotels, while some of the other resorts complained of a lack of tourists. The Wengern Alp owes its present vogue not only to the wonderful view it affords of the Jungfrau snowfields and frequent avalanches, but to the fact that it is the starting-point of the much-discussed Jungfrau railway, the length of which, from the Scheidegg, is conveniently reduced to 6,000 feet. On December 21, 1894, permission to build was granted by the Swiss Bundesrath by a vote of 25 to 3. No time was lost in beginning, and this summer the electric works were visible to all visitors in the Lauterbrunnen valley. The road itself will not be visible, for most of it will be through tunnels, and where it comes to view it will be so small an object on the gigantic sides of the mountain that a good telescope will be needed to find it. The motive power will be electricity, and the tunnelling also will be done with electric power. The total expenses are estimated at $2,000,000.

The railway from Chemulpo to Séoul, or from the chief seaport to the capital of Korea, is now under construction by American engineers, who employ native labor under Japanese and Korean bosses. One cutting is over forty feet deep and several hundred feet long. The bridge over the Han River will have a total length of 2,450 feet; 1,650 feet being the length of the iron trusses, and 800 feet that of the wooden trestling. The road will be twenty-five miles long, and of the standard gauge. The iron and steel work, locomotives, and even the frame of the Séoul station, were made in the United States.

Dr. Dörpfeld reports that the mouth of the new grotto recently discovered by Kabbadias on the northern slope of the Acropolis and east of the grottoes of Apollo and Pan was walled up during the middle ages. This grotto lies immediately below the mediæval rock-cut steps on the Acropolis northwest of the Erechtheion. The bottom of these steps is connected with the grotto below by means of a perpendicular shaft, in which there were never any steps. Accordingly, it seems clear that a wooden ladder must have been used to facilitate ingress and egress. No antique remains were found in the neighborhood of the grotto.

Skias has been conducting excavations on the left bank of the Ilissus in the neighborhood of the Kallirrhoe. About one hundred steps from the spring he discovered the foundations of the celebrated "Ionic temple on the Ilissus," which was seen and drawn by Stuart and Revett in the last century. Thereafter the temple disappeared, and its destruction was so complete that the present ruins would scarcely be regarded as the foundations of a temple but for the drawings of Stuart and Revett, with which they correspond exactly. Dörpfeld regards this as the temple of Artemis Agrotera, which Pausanias mentions immediately after he had crossed the Ilissus, and before he turned towards the Stadium.

—In the current number the *Atlantic Monthly* celebrates its fortieth anniversary, and the editor in a few pages recounts the history of its years. There is not much in what he says that is new, but it is pleasant reading. He stands up manfully for the present as compared with the past, and maintains that (except in poetry) there is no real decline in "the literary work done in the United States to-day." He admits, however, that we have "no single group of men of such genius as the group that contributed to the early numbers." But we must not be too exacting; if every generation produced a group such as Hawthorne, Emerson, Lowell, Longfellow, Holmes, and Whittier, letters would become too common, like air and water. One statement the editor makes which has now been repeated very often, as an explanation of our seeming decadence—that, "as a result of the spread of culture, no man of less than the very highest rank can now hold as prominent a position as a man of the same qualities held when good writers were fewer." This means that there has been a multiplication of, and a widening of the market for, authors of the second or lower ranks so great that no one of these can get the attention he formerly would have got. But does the "spread of culture" produce this result? Has not the spread of culture on the contrary made this the heyday of second-rate authors? and is it not one of the peculiarities of our day that we continually see a second-rate man temporarily elevated to the position of a great light in the literary world, and bowed down to and worshipped and puffed, while the crowd passes his superiors unnoticed by? In the number for October, perhaps the most original article is that on "French Mastery of Style," by F. Brunetière. Both this and Mr. H. D. Sedgwick, jr.'s, notice of D'Annunzio point in a direction which some readers will regard as conservative, others as novel. We do not know of any word for it other than anti-fatalist, or individualist, criticism. There can be little doubt that, ever since the announcement of Taine's celebrated formula, the trend of literary criticism has been to minimize the weight of the individual will as a factor in letters, and to subordinate the character of every writer to the influences of race, epoch, and "milieu" under which he writes. This is all nonsense, says M. Brunetière, and to prove it he takes the French language and style as proof. The fatalist view is that the French language "grew" by some internal law into the wonderful organ of style and expression we know it to be. No, says M. Brunetière, it was made consciously by the French, adapting it to these ends purposely, and changing it from a speech of a different sort with this very object in view. An interesting African article is contributed by Henry M. Stanley, who blows the bellows for the equatorial part of it. Without wishing to speak disrespectfully of the equator, it seems to be still hard to get people to settle on it in any great numbers.

—Among the most entertaining papers in *Scribner's* are those on the "Conduct of Great Businesses." In that magazine for October Mr. J. Lincoln Steffens writes about newspapers, his article being accompanied by illustrations by W. R. Leigh. He insists upon the contrast between the modern newspaper, which he describes as a mere commercial speculation, and the newspaper of an earlier day, in which he thinks editorial opinion played so much more important a part. But it is worth while to remember that the present craze about "news" as the foundation of newspaper prosperity is to a great extent factitious. Three-quarters, if not nine-tenths, of the news of the day is furnished to so many newspapers that there is little or no exclusive property in any one of those which have a right to a share in the supply furnished by the various agencies; so that the reason why one paper is selected by the buyer rather than another is some sympathy with its opinions, or that general tone which is but the reflection of the mind of the person in control. In other words, a paper is bought to be read; and as it is impossible to print without advancing or showing that you hold opinions of some kind, what really floats a newspaper and gives its only lasting hold on its readers is suitability to their minds. It is a consequence of this that some of the most valuable newspaper properties are those which are read by the people who have the best minds—mind being generally found among possessors of property, and possessors of property being those for whom it is best worth while to advertise. No one will advertise brown-stone houses, or grand pianos, or expensive books extensively in a paper with a million circulation, if they know perfectly well that most of the million have no idea where they are going to get their next meal. Mr. Henry Norman contributes an article on "The Wreck of Greece" (illustrated), and shows that part of the disaster was due to not following his advice.

—Naval strategists will be interested in Capt. Mahan's article in *Harper's* on "The Strategic Features of the Gulf of Mexico and the Carribbean Sea"; but for the wayfaring layman the popular scientific article by Henry Smith Williams, M.D., will prove as entertaining as anything in the number. It is on "The Century's Progress in Chemistry," and is one of a series which will, we suppose, be published as a book. Most

people not chemists have heard something of the extraordinary course of inquiry which has led the chemists of our day into fields of investigation recalling the researches of the alchemists, the transmutation of metals, and the quest of the philosopher's stone. When the hero of Locksley Hall, "nourishing a youth sublime with the fairy tales of science," foresaw "the Vision of the world, and all the wonder that would be," he predicted, like most prophets, a good many things that have not happened at all, and failed to foresee most of the wonder that science was to reveal. Certainly in this department Dr. Smith is very cautious in his statements, but his résumé is a wonderful story, and leaves us face to face with the theory that we are on the eve of discovering that "single, unique form of primordial matter" out of which the diverse cosmos has been fabricated.

—In the *Century* Mr. Theodore Roosevelt takes a leaf out of his enemy's book. His "Roll of Honor of the New York Police" (illustrated by Jay Hambidge) is a vindication of the claims of peace to produce victories of energy, daring, discipline, hardihood, and bodily prowess no less remarkable than those of war. It comes very naturally from him as the late head of the New York police force, but his enumeration of the soldier's virtues shows that his Jingo leanings have produced a curious confusion in his mind on the subject of what the Romans called *virtus*. What his examples of police heroism really prove is, that every quality that could make a man count in the world comes out in peaceful occupations, except pugnacity, or the desire for physical conflict as an end in itself. This a good fighting man must have, just as a bulldog, a game-cock, or a prize-fighter must have it. But it is not part of the outfit of a good patrolman. The price we pay for peace (or, as we should say, one of the rewards of peace) is the tempering of this quality, and not, as Mr. Roosevelt says, "a certain softening of national and civil fibre," which, "if carried too far, would be very serious indeed." It is luxury and ease which produces this softening, as we see in the Dude and the *Gigerl*, not peace; and we want no better proof than the facts marshalled in this article. In fact, Mr. Roosevelt, in it, rolls the very altar of the great god Jingo over in the dust. "Wild Animals in a New England Game-Park" is a valuable account, with illustrations, of the Corbin Game Preserve, a vast New Hampshire property, of 26,000 acres, bought up by the late Austin Corbin. "Abandoned farms" formed the bulk of it, and a grotesque sight it must often be to see a buffalo cow chewing her cud in the old apple-orchard, or a wapiti encouraging her young to approach the chain-pump. But the forest is rapidly reappearing, and the traces of the agricultural period will soon vanish. The writer mentions also Mr. W. C. Whitney's park in Berkshire, Mass., and several others in different parts of the country.

—Chief among the foreign guests at the dedication of the Yerkes Observatory of the University of Chicago next week (October 18-22) will be M. Henri Deslandres of Paris, well known for his researches upon the spectra of the sun and stars and as chief of two eclipse expeditions, one to Japan last year and the other to Africa in 1893, when he discovered the rotation of the sun's corona. The principal addresses will be given on the morning of October 21 by Prof. Keeler of Allegheny, on the "Importance of Astrophysical Research, and the Relation of Astrophysics to Other Physical Sciences," and on the afternoon of October 22 by Prof. Newcomb, on "Aspects of Modern Astronomy." The University has provided a special train to convey the Trustees and official guests from Chicago to the Observatory at Williams Bay, Wis., where the dedication exercises are to be held. Following Prof. Keeler's address, Mr. Charles T. Yerkes, the generous donor, will make the presentation, and President Harper the address of acceptance. In the evening of Thursday will occur the banquet to the visiting men of science; and on Friday, a reception to Mr. and Mrs. Yerkes, the visitors, and members of the Observatory staff. Prof. Hale, the able and energetic director of this new institution, has arranged a programme of conferences on physics and astronomy, extending through dedication week, and they will be participated in by Profs. Pickering, Hough, Barnard, Comstock, Stone, Crew, and many others among American scientists, and Prof. Runge of Hanover, Germany, who will review the evidence of oxygen in the sun. On the evenings of Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday, Profs. Hale, Burnham, and Barnard will give exhibitions of numerous celestial objects with the great forty-inch telescope.

—Much interest is manifested by scientists in the giant "iron-stone" which, after two ineffectual efforts, Mr. Peary has succeeded in removing from the shores of northwestern Greenland to this country. This block of planetary rock (for such it assuredly is, whether it be determined to be meteorite or tellurite) is roughly estimated to weigh 100 tons, and it so completely surpasses in size all other known specimens of its kind as virtually to dwarf them in any scale of comparison. Its abiding-place for probably many centuries, if not for hundreds of thousands of years, has been a locality on the borders of Melville Bay, not many miles east of Cape York; but, despite its proximity to a route almost annually followed by whalers, it had escaped discovery until two years ago, when Mr. Peary located the prize, which had been the object of search and inquiry by almost every expedition which has followed the Smith Sound route since the days of Sir John Ross. In its structural character the mass is described as having the appearance of nickelized steel, an appearance not wholly unlike that of some of the famous Ovifak stones or irons discovered in 1870 by Nordenskjöld on the southern shore of the island of Disko, and concerning the nature of which there has been much scientific and not a little bitter discussion. By their first discoverer these irons were unhesitatingly referred to the class of meteorites, and this view is supported by the composition of metallic iron and nickel, as well as by the exhibition of the well-known Widmannstättian figures on an etched surface. The more special researches of Lawrence Smith and Steenstrup have led to a conclusion very wide of Nordenskjöld's, and to the recognition of a class of bodies, the tellurite, whose origin is assumed to be the deep metalliferous depths of our own planet. The close association of the Ovifak irons with the basalt masses which largely build up the island of Disko, and the occurrence of smaller, even granular, parts exhibiting the supposed distinctive etched figures in the lava mass itself, were to many geologists evidence conclusive of their telluric origin, although up to that time no terrestrial objects of that precise nature had been known. On the other hand, it has been justly contended that the association of these singular bodies with basalts was not necessarily an indication of volcanic (or plutonic) origin, since a meteoric shower, occurring in a region and at a time of lava discharges, must perforce have deposited much of its material in the flowing liquid magma, thence to be subsequently liberated by atmospheric decay or water erosion. It is interesting to note in this connection that the Cape York finds were not obtained from a region of lava discharges, and in so far they distinctly argue in favor of an extra-terrestrial production.

—By the terms of the treaty between Great Britain and Venezuela, the four arbitrators named in it, namely, Chief Justice Fuller and Judge Brewer of the United States, nominated by Venezuela, and Lord Herschell (ex-Lord Chancellor of England), and Sir Henn Collins, a judge of the High Court of Judicature, nominated by Great Britain, have agreed to have as the fifth member of their court Feodor Feodorovitch Martens, the famous international jurist, who will accordingly be President of the Court of Arbitration at its sittings in Paris. Prof. Martens is a Russian by nationality, and is in the prime of manhood. His great works have been a collection of 'Treaties and Conventions' made by Russia with other countries, and a treatise upon international law. He has written also upon the law affecting consuls, and a political study of the relations of Russia and China. It will not be charged against President Martens that he will unduly favor British claims, when it is borne in mind that he is the author of 'La Question Égyptienne et le Droit International,' and of a monograph upon Russia and England in Central Asia. The Court of Arbitration cannot, by the provisions of the Treaty of Washington, meet until the month of November, 1898. Meanwhile, those concerned in getting up the respective cases are actively employed in preparing their statements. The results must throw a flood of light upon the history of Guiana, which has hitherto been involved in almost Cimmerian darkness.

THE PUBLICATIONS OF THE GOETHE SOCIETY.

Both of the annual publications of the Goethe Gesellschaft are now in the hands of its members: the eighteenth volume of the *Jahrbuch*, and the eleventh volume of the *Schriften*. The latter is an interesting innovation. It is a large folio, containing seventy-eight settings of the songs of Goethe, composed by the poet's contemporaries. Dr. Max Friedlaender, one of the leading authorities on the music of the eighteenth century, is the editor of this volume, and he has supplied it with notes of more than usual instructiveness. Prof. Suphan, the indefatigable director of the Goethe-Schiller archives, has written the general introduction. This work adds another telling touch to the picture which, through these annual publications, the society is gradually constructing of Goethe in the midst of his fellow-men and in his relations to the most diverse interests of his time. In February, 1896, the tenth volume of the *Schriften* was

noticed in these columns; it was an album of reproductions from Goethe's own portfolio, including several portraits which he had had made by Schmeller of personal friends and distinguished visitors to Weimar. A collection of the poet's own drawings constituted the third volume, and Prof. Suphan assures us that the treasures of this domestic storehouse are "schier unerschöpflich." Lovers of Goethe may, therefore, look forward to an indefinite number of years, each of which will bring some new item of instruction and some new object of delight out of the poet's home environment.

Goethe's love of music is well known. Musicians as well as poets and artists looked to him for inspiration, approval, and encouragement. His house was the centre to which were attracted the creative spirits in all branches of art, and none was more welcome than the genius which expressed itself in music. In music Goethe found the highest element of art manifested in its highest degree, the demonic. The demonic, in his parlance, is that elusive quality in a work of art which produces a profound emotion, but which is not susceptible of analysis by the reason or the understanding. "Music," he once said, "occupies a place so high that the understanding cannot get at it, and it exerts a moving power that dominates all else; for this power the reason cannot account." This is the demonic in its purest form; but since neither the reason nor the understanding can touch the demonic, an appeal to these faculties cannot injure music, but only add new elements of beauty and interest. Apropos of Rossini's "Moses," Goethe could not comprehend the attitude of mind that could praise the music and condemn the text—how sweet tones could please the ear while the absurdest actions offended the eye. In our own day Goethe would have been chief among the admirers of Wagner, whose demonic control of our emotions is rendered the more absolute by his constant and subtle appeal to the intellectual faculties; but Goethe lived only to see the beginning of the great age of dramatic song-composers.

In this collection of songs by his contemporaries there are six settings of the "Erlkönig," three of them commonplace and unimaginative. One, by Bernhard Klein, a young composer who died in the same year as the poet, shows the true dramatic conception; the deep voice of the fast-riding father alternates with the anxious questionings of the child, while the wooing persuasions of the elfin king are sung in one unvaried tone (an idea suggested by Zelter) to an exquisite accompaniment, culminating in a few quick crashing chords that thrill with the fairy's threat. It is a song fit to stand beside Loewe's fine composition of 1817 and Schubert's immortal work written two years earlier. Indeed, one of the chief features of interest in this publication is the opportunity it affords of comparing different conceptions of the same poem. There are, for instance, five settings of "Das Veilchen," five of "An den Mond," four of "Mignon," and four of the "Heidenröslein," etc. It would be an undertaking well worth his while if Dr. Friedlaender would extend the scope of his comparisons, and include the best settings of Goethe's most famous lyrics composed by men of a later time. Beethoven, Mozart, Schubert, and Berlioz are the great names in the present collection. One of Goethe's youthful poems, "Mit einem gemalten Bande," which was written about the time of Beethoven's birth, was set to music by the latter in 1811, and it is interesting to note that the opening bars contain the world-celebrated theme from the last movement of the ninth symphony, where they reappear eleven years later in the same key, set to the words of Schiller's "Lied an die Freude." There is also an exquisite setting to the lines of Faust, "O schaud're nicht," composed by that versatile child of genius, the friend both of Beethoven and of Goethe, Bettina von Arnim. On the whole, this volume is the most delightful of the entire series.

Incidentally, Prof. Suphan's preface raises the curiously confused question as to the origin of the widely quoted simile which likens architecture to "frozen music." Goethe altered the phrase to "dumb music," saying that a "noble philosopher" (in allusion, doubtless, to Schelling) had called it "petrified music," which after all is the happier phrase. It is evident, however, that Goethe laid no claim to the idea, although Emerson in 'Nature' attributes it to him and to Mme. de Staël. Mme. de Staël did, indeed, quote it, and Henry Crabb Robinson, who correctly assigns it to Schelling, says she considered it in bad taste; but this did not deter her from using a similar figure in 'Corinne': "La vue d'un tel monument est comme une musique continuelle et fixée." Coleridge may have had some dim recollection of the words of Schelling when he called a Gothic church a "petrified religion." Eckermann relates that Goethe, in 1829, found among his papers a loose sheet on which architecture was likened to petrified music; but in the poet's posthumous works the phrase is altered to "dumb music," as Emerson quotes it. Düntzer, finally, in his notes on Eckermann, tells us that Friedrich von Schlegel invented the phrase "frozen music," whereas Schelling had merely said "plastic music." Byron was another of Schelling's contemporaries who was haunted by this bold figure. He thought he had seen it quoted in 'De l'Allemagne,' and in his diary of November 17, 1813, he writes: "Architecture, says this Macaronico Tedescho, reminds me of frozen music. It is somewhere, but where?"

The whole confusion seems to have arisen from the fact that for more than half a century the phrase was only an oral tradition. Schelling was the first to use the figure, and he fully exploited it in his lectures on the "Philosophie der Kunst" which he delivered at Jena in 1802-1803, but which were not published until 1859, five years after the philosopher's death. Schlegel, who was privat-docent at the University of Jena in 1802 and on intimate terms with Schelling, seems to have been the one who chose the attribute "frozen." The word used by Schelling was not "gefrorene," but "erstarrte," "rigid" rather than "frozen." Schelling frequently reverted to this thought: "Architecture," he says, "is a concrete music"; "a beautiful building is nothing but music felt by the eye, a concert of harmonies and harmonic relations subject to the conditions of space instead of those of time." He cites Vitruvius, who declared that every architect should be a musician; and even in the ancient fable of Amphion and the walls of Thebes he finds the underlying conception of the essential connection between architecture and music. It is amusing to see the international interest which this idea of Schelling's excited. "There was much shaking of heads over it," said Goethe.

The *Goethe-Jahrbuch* for 1897 continues the useful career of this literary scrap-book. A fine portrait of the distinguished protectress of the Goethe Gesellschaft, the late Grand Duchess of Weimar, is prefixed to the volume, and there is a brief, modest, but feeling tribute to her gentle and beneficent virtues from the pen of Prof. Erich Schmidt. This able and great-hearted woman possessed the best characteristics of the sturdy race of the House of Orange. To a lofty sense of her public obligations as heiress of the Goethe treasures, and to a wide knowledge of literature, she united a high degree of executive ability and tireless energy; she has won a place among the foremost of those who have labored to spread the serene influence of the German poet.

From the batch of seven letters of Goethe which here appear too late to take their chronological place in the Weimar edition, it is evident that supplementary volumes will be necessary to receive the tardy documents that are constantly coming to light and to render that monumental work complete. There are three letters from the younger Voss which give an amiable glimpse of his father; several from A. W. von Schlegel; a short bit of correspondence between Goethe and Lichtenberg, and a series of dull communications from a youth who was sojourning in Wetzlar in 1778 when the Werther fever was at its height. The latter reveal once more the mad enthusiasm which the unfortunate Werther let loose over Germany, but they possess no real value. The only scrap of information they contain is old: the separation from Lotte at the end of the first part of the story is a poetic fiction, since the scenes among which Werther continues to move Goethe painted, like all the preceding, directly from the region in and about Wetzlar.

To the plain lover of literature whose interest in the dusty accumulations of the "philological method" quickly grows languid, a letter from Pius Wolff to Lilienstern is more likely to appeal. Wolff was an actor at the court theatre of Weimar, and it was at his instigation that Goethe undertook to modify "Romeo and Juliet" for the German stage. Wolff was delighted with the result, and described it in detail to his correspondent. The alteration that excited the most comment was the omission of the reconcilement at the end of the play. It had been observed that after the death of *Juliet* the audience invariably prepared to depart. Accordingly, Goethe ended the drama with *Juliet's* death. With the following lines *Friar Laurence* closes the tomb and the play:

> "This gloomy portal shall here shut you in
> Until I may disclose your hapless fate.
> Blessed is he who loveth without sin,
> For finally the tomb encloseth love and hate."

A certain nobleman in Weimar called Goethe to account for this alteration: "Excuse me," he said, "why have you left out the reconcilement?" "Christian love, my dear sir," replied Goethe simply, "can doubtless supply the reason." But succeeding theatre managers in Germany, failing to apply this test, have adhered to the Shaksperian version.

The annual report of the Society shows the usual prosperous condition. Although the membership has fallen off by seventeen, this in a total enrolment of 2,676 has no significance. The acquisition of the original letters of Goethe to Frau von Stein is

here recorded. They have long been the coveted treasure of the Stein estate at Kochberg, but now, by purchase and formal presentation to the Grand Duchess, they have been permanently incorporated in the archives at Weimar. Another valuable addition to these manuscript collections was made by the wise generosity of Mrs. Ida Freiligrath, the widow of the poet. It consists of the whole extensive correspondence of her husband, including letters from Chamisso, Uhland, Brentano, Immermann, Geibel, Kerner—in short, from all the members of the brilliant Romantic group to which Freiligrath belonged. This is another and important step in the direction which the management is consciously and consistently following, of making the Goethe-Schiller archives a universal safe-deposit vault for all the manuscript treasures of German literature in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. The value of such a concentration of literary "sources" to students cannot be overestimated. The year ending with May, 1897, shows a greater advance towards this goal than any previous year since the bequest of the last of the Goethes to the late Grand Duchess called the Society into existence.

SKEAT'S CHAUCERIAN PIECES.

Chaucerian and Other Pieces. Edited, from numerous manuscripts, by the Rev. Walter W. Skeat, Litt. D., etc. Being a Supplement to the Complete Works of Geoffrey Chaucer. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1897.

The black-letter editions of Chaucer contain, as everybody knows, a considerable amount of matter not from his pen. Much of this has been dropped by modern editors, but much has been retained, and a number of poems which no competent scholar can for a moment believe to be genuine have, by a kind of tradition, become so closely associated with Chaucer's name that the writers of hand-books and other works of ready reference, as well as some easy-going literary men, still refer to them as his. This is particularly the case with "The Flower and the Leaf," "The Cuckoo and the Nightingale," and "The Court of Love," which, in this regard, seem to bear a charmed life. In his six-volume Oxford Edition (1894), Prof. Skeat included only such works as he regarded as genuine, with the single exception of the "Romaunt of the Rose," only a part of which he ascribes to Chaucer. The interest attaching to some of the spurious pieces is, however, so great, partly from their own merits and partly from their having been so long associated with the works of the poet, that a seventh volume was called for, which should take up the most important portion of this miscellaneous material. Such a volume has now been issued, purchasable separably, but uniform in type and size with the six of the Oxford Edition. The contents are, as we have suggested, of a highly miscellaneous character. In date, they range from the last quarter of the fourteenth century to the last quarter of the fifteenth, or even later; in subject and style, they range from religious polemics in prose to amatory allegory in courtly verse. In one point only they all agree: they include nothing that is Chaucer's except for the numerous passages which their various authors conveyed from his works.

Of the 450 pages of text, 145 are occupied by "The Testament of Love." The literary history of this curious document is extraordinary enough. The author gives us a good deal of information about his life. In his youth, he tells us, he was implicated in certain political plots. He was arrested, but life and liberty were offered him if he would inform against the ringleaders of the conspiracy. He accepted the offer, betrayed his masters, and was pardoned by the king. He complains that this conduct caused him to be much blamed, although his revelations were made, he insists, not from a selfish regard for his own safety, but on the principle that private friendship should not stand against the welfare of the state. Besides, the leaders of the conspiracy did not attempt to help him in his misfortunes: they were using him as a catspaw merely. What more could he have done "unless he wished to be a stinking martyr in a false quarrel"? He had accused no man unjustly. Indeed, he had "proffered his body so largely into proving of those things that Mars should have judged the end" (*i. e.*, he was willing to establish his veracity by wager of battle), but no one accepted his challenge.

All these statements were utilized by Godwin and others in the manufacture of Chaucer biography; for Chaucer long passed for the author of the "Testament," despite the abundant evidence the document itself affords that it was written not by him, but by some warm admirer of his genius. The theory of a Chaucerian authorship for the "Testament" was exploded a good while ago, but it was reserved for Prof. Skeat and Mr. Henry Bradley, Dr. Murray's learned associate in the editorship of the 'New English Dictionary,' to clear up the whole problem. Prof. Skeat made the happy discovery that the initial letters of the various chapters of the work were meant to form an acrostic, which he read as follows: "Margarete of Virtw [virtue], have merci on THSKNVI." He conjectured that THSKNVI contained the name of the unknown author, but he did not succeed in reading the riddle. Meantime Mr. Bradley, working independently, had found that the biographical hints of the "Testament" correspond to known facts in the life of one of Chaucer's contemporaries. He had also observed strange signs of dislocation in book iii. In some instances the beginning and the end of a sentence had nothing to do with each other. Clearly, several leaves of the manuscript used by Thynne, who is our sole authority for the text, had been accidentally shuffled. With admirable patience and skill Mr. Bradley rearranged the folios of this (lost) manuscript so as to reduce the text to coherency. He then read the acrostic discovered by Mr. Skeat, and had the well-deserved satisfaction of finding that the mysterious THSKNVI became THIN VSK, *i. e.*, "thine Usk," the name of that contemporary of Chaucer whose life Mr. Bradley had already found to agree with the autobiographical statements in the "Testament."— Thomas Usk was clerk to John of Northampton, Mayor of London in 1381-'82 and 1382-'83, and betrayed his master in precisely the fashion suggested by the "Testament." Mr. Bradley immediately communicated his brilliant discovery to Prof. Skeat, whose text of the "Testament" was accordingly readjusted by the cancellation of several sheets already struck off. The mystery of "The Testament of Love" is thus happily solved, and a not unimportant chapter is contributed to Middle English literary history. Usk seems to have been a poor creature—he certainly was a vague and confused writer and a good deal of a plagiarist; but the historians of English prose cannot afford to neglect his treatise.

Another piece restored to its author in Mr. Skeat's volume is "The Cuckoo and the Nightingale," one of the best of the pseudo-Chaucerian poems, and modernized, our readers will remember, by Wordsworth. This is ascribed in a hitherto neglected manuscript to "Clanvowe," whom Prof. Skeat, with Dr. Furnivall's assistance, has identified with a Sir Thomas Clanvowe who lived in the time of Richard II. and Henry IV. The mention of the "queen at Woodstock," which has played its rôle in Chaucer biography, is now explained on the theory that the poem "was addressed to Joan of Navarre, Henry IV.'s stepmother, Queen of England from 1403 to 1413, who held [this manor] as part of her dower." There seems to be nothing against Mr. Skeat's identification of the author of this pleasing poem.

Of the other pieces in the volume several are by known authors. Gower is represented by his lines to Henry IV. ("O noble worthy King, Henry the Ferthe"), now christened "The Praise of Peace," and by some Latin verses. Hoccleve furnishes "The Letter of Cupid," his translation of the "Epistre au Dieu d'Amors" of Christine de Pisan, as well as two *ballades*. To Lydgate belong some nine pieces, among them "The Complaint of the Black Knight" and "The Flower of Courtesy." Two or three of these, however, are of somewhat doubtful authorship. Henryson's "Testament of Cresseid"; "La Belle Dame sans Mercy"—Sir Richard Ros's translation from Alain Chartier—and the "Moral Balade" of Henry Scogan, which, though of no literary merit, has a strong personal interest for every reader of Chaucer, are of course included in Mr. Skeat's collection. A stanza called "Prosperity" closes the list of the pieces whose authors are known. This has been lately recognized by Prof. Liddell as part of the prologue to John Walton's Boethius. Besides these, the volume contains—to neglect three or four scraps of no consequence—the very important "Plowman's Tale," generally admitted to be by the author of "Pierce the Plowman's Crede"; "Jack Upland," the vigorous prose attack on the friars, amusingly printed by Thomas Wright as alliterative verse; "The Flower and the Leaf" and "The Assembly of Ladies," both held by Prof. Skeat to be the work of one and the same woman; and "The Court of Love." A considerable number of writers, it will be observed, are represented in this collection of pseudo-Chauceriana. Mr. Skeat makes out fourteen, with the possibility of three or four more.

It will be seen that Mr. Skeat has taken in everything that could reasonably be expected, with one exception—"The Isle of Ladies" (commonly known as "Chaucer's Dream"). This is, in our opinion, an unfortunate omission. Mr. Skeat excuses it by alleging "the inordinate length" of the poem and its accessibility in "the texts by Moxon, Bell, and Morris." As to the length of the "Dream," that is a poor reason for leaving it out. Space could have been made in a variety of ways. One could have spared, for example, the "List of Subscribers," which fills twenty-one whole pages; or, if this list is holy, some of the Lydgate and Hoccleve matter might have been sacrificed. For, though the "Dream" is accessible after a

fashion, it is no more so than several other poems which Mr. Skeat has not thrown out, and no critical text has ever been printed. Besides, it offers several quite particular points of interest. Its connection with the cycle of stories represented by the "Lai d'Eliduc" of Marie de France has long been familiar to scholars, but it has not been pointed out, so far as we know, that the essential part of the poem is the story of a visit to the Other World—an island Paradise of Ladies, quite in the Celtic (Irish) manner. The whole has been worked over into a conventional love-poem in the court style of the fifteenth century. Prof. Brandl of Berlin has a theory that the "Dream" is an allegory on the marriage of Henry V. and the fair Katherine of France—a theory which one would be glad to see discussed. Altogether the omission of this poem from Mr. Skeat's book is very much to be regretted.

In editing the 'Chaucerian Pieces' Mr. Skeat has, of course, followed the method of his Oxford Chaucer. He has based his texts on fresh collations of the printed and manuscript materials, and he provides introduction, glossary, and copious notes. The volume shows the merits and the defects on which we have already commented, at considerable length, in a previous review, and we may therefore, with a clear conscience, spare our readers an enumeration of details. It would be easy to fill many columns of the *Nation* with such minutiæ, but it is fairer, as well as more agreeable, to refrain and to thank Mr. Skeat, as we do most heartily, for one more substantial service to English scholarship.

Political Letters and Speeches of George, Thirteenth Earl of Pembroke and Montgomery. 2 vols. London: Richard Bentley & Son. 1896.

"The man was greater than his work." These words, borrowed from Lord Pembroke's writings, form his best epitaph; but if the rare qualities of his character are what most forcibly strikes students of his writings, Lord Pembroke's work itself was most noteworthy, and his position and influence are deserving of special notice by an American, because they could belong to no one but a high-toned English gentleman, and therefore bring into view a side of English political life well worth attention. The leading traits of Lord Pembroke's character were his sense of justice and his high public spirit. Both of these qualities are apparent in every line which he has left behind him. He was "just" in the two-fold sense of that word: he hated oppression, and, whenever it lay within his power, opposed and checked it; but his justice was something more than the fierce indignation which inspired the satire of Swift no less than the rhetoric of Burke. It was also equity to see things as they are. To allow for the errors of opponents, to try in all matters to get at the truth, to place principles above personalities, was Lord Pembroke's natural impulse, and this was an impulse which he fostered and trained by careful study. These admirable moral traits might exist in a man who, for want of the proper gifts or talents, could hardly make his character tell on others. But Lord Pembroke possessed to a singular degree the endowments which were needed as the complement of his devotion to justice and to reason. His natural grace and courtesy must necessarily have charmed his associates; his clear brain enabled him to discover and bring into relief the essential features of every question which he discussed, and the width of his interests led him to enter into discussion of all the problems which for the last twenty or thirty years have occupied the minds of English statesmen. Add to all this that he was master of a lucid style which was admirably suited for the expression of his own opinions, and for the confutation of the fallacies by which his arguments were opposed.

When one thinks of Lord Pembroke's character and talents, one's wonder is that he did not stand among the first rank of English statesmen, and that his name should be less known to foreigners than the names of men who possess neither a tenth of his worth nor half of his talents. The explanation is, we believe, to be found in the word ill-health. Want of physical strength was with Lord Pembroke, as with other men of rare gifts, the cause of his not coming more decidedly to the front. The man, as we have said, was greater than his work. Yet it would be a grave error to suppose that the result of his labors was insignificant. Over all who knew him, over his friends and his neighbors, he did exercise a profound influence. Nor was it only those with whom he was personally acquainted that he influenced. His powers as a writer gave him ready access to the public press. He was one of those men to whose opinions both the public and leading statesmen paid attention. His voice was the voice of reason, and of reason which could insist upon obtaining a hearing. To think that because Lord Pembroke's name cannot be associated with definite acts of Parliament, or with the carrying through of some great political change, he did not do a work in the world which was well worth doing, is to mistake appearance for reality, and also to misapprehend the conditions of public life in England. The writer or speaker who has kept before the world views like ly to be forgotten—who, for example, has insisted, as did Lord Pembroke, on the vital importance of maintaining the navy at the strength necessary for the defence of England at a time when politicians were more anxious to remit taxes than to make certain that the country was safe against attack—may not have been heard with applause by huge public meetings, or have occupied a high place in any cabinet, but he has rendered a service of infinite worth to the nation. The class of men, moreover, of whom Lord Pembroke was a striking representative, are almost peculiar to England, and exercise there a sort of power which foreign critics neither understand nor for the most part note. The class consists of the body of independent thinkers and writers who take an active part in the political conflicts of their time, and yet, for one reason or another, can hardly be termed politicians. Men of this stamp are sometimes well-known writers and thinkers, such as were Mill, Bagehot, or Greg. They are sometimes gentlemen of weight in their own country, men who write little, but whose words and acts guide and form the opinions of a neighborhood. They are occasionally men, like Lord Pembroke, who combine high station and remarkable intellectual powers both with rare literary gifts and with a practical knowledge of public life. Men of this stamp are often for a time overlooked. They may seem for a moment to be thrown into the background by the practical politicians or the enthusiastic fanatics who court and receive the attention of the public. But in the long run the men of high character and of thoughtful and independent minds—in England, at any rate—get themselves heard, and the conclusions at which they have arrived generally determine the policy of the nation.

He who at any time can discover what is the direction in which the opinions of thoughtful men are veering, will be able to predict with some confidence what is the course which England will ultimately follow. A little more than a century ago the best and most independent men in England had condemned the French Revolution. It was their condemnation which made it certain that English conservatism would steadily oppose the revolutionary enthusiasm of France. In 1830 Eldonian Toryism had been tried and found wanting by the men of fair minds and of high character. Reform from that moment became a certainty. Before 1846, while the conversion of Peel was still a secret or a mystery, the thought and the morality of England had been enlisted on the side of free trade. It was certain that within a very few years some leader would perceive the current of public opinion and deal a death-blow to protection. It is this tacit, though hardly acknowledged, deference for independent opinion which is the saving element of English politics. Men like Lord Pembroke, therefore, exert a power the extent of which cannot be measured, but the reality of which does not admit of doubt; they help in forming the true national judgment; they are the teachers, if not exactly the leaders, of the nation. Their lives may or may not be conspicuous, but their lives are not thrown away, for such teachers insure the ultimate triumph of wisdom and of justice.

Dictionary of American Authors. By Oscar Fay Adams. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1897.

Mr. Adams's book fills a long-felt want. He has condensed the notices of American authors in the 'Dictionary' of Allibone and Kirk, the 'Library of American Literature,' and 'Appletons' Cyclopædia of American Biography'—all voluminous and massive works—into one volume of 444 pages, whose convenient shape will be appreciated by everybody having need of ready reference. He has not only abridged, but occasionally has corrected or supplemented the material used. His criticism is nearly always sound and expressed with epigrammatic brevity; but can it truly be said of Theodore Parker (what is justly not allowed to Henry Ward Beecher) that "since his death his influence has deepened both in America and Europe"? There are, in fact, only three points at which fault can fairly be found—his failure to acknowledge his obligations to his predecessors, his occasional errors, and the want of any apparent principle which governed him in deciding which authors should be taken and which left.

Although the book contains some 8,000 names, the omissions are innumerable, while blunders are not infrequent, though often, no doubt, mere misprints. Such are "Sydney" for Sidney Fisher; "Graydon" for Grayson, under J. M. Bixby; "1793" for 1798 in the notice of J. P. Brace; "Swartout" for Swartwout, under Cozzens; "1850" instead of 1858, as the death-year of H. M. Stephens;

"Arcadia" for Acadia, under Cheney; and "Tulley" for Talley, under Mrs. S. A. Weiss. For some misstatements and blunders, however, the compiler must be held responsible. Such are double entries of the same person, as (p. 30) "Bloomfield-Moore, Clara," and (p. 259) "Moore, Clara"; also (p. 55), "Chaillé-Long, Charles, Md., 1843," and (p. 233) "Long, Charles Chaillé, Md., 1842," with a longer description of his life, etc. J. H. Ingraham's entrance into the ministry is postdated by eight years. The notice of Mrs. L. C. Lillie does not mention her kinship to Mrs. Catherine White, or the fact that her name, for several years, has been Harte, though similar facts are recorded in the case of other writers. The elisions in the name of Mrs. Jamison are unnecessary, as appears from the sketch published in *St. Nicholas*, so that instead of "Celia V—— [Hamilton]" we should have Cécile Viets (Dakin) (Hamilton). The notices of the Virginia Tuckers are inaccurate: Henry St. George is said to have been born in Bermuda, instead of Virginia; Beverley is called Nath. Beverly, and St. George Tucker 2d is likewise provided with a forename (Henry) unknown to the family Bible.

Space fails us to mention more than a few of the omissions. Among them are the silly but immensely popular "Ruth Ashmore," known to the accurate cataloguer as Mrs. Isabel (Sloan) Mallon; Elizabeth Balch, who died in 1890 after writing the supposititious answers of Mérimée's 'Inconnue'; Mrs. Julia Perkins Ballard, author of some admirable children's books, whose death occurred in 1894; Anne H. Brewster, 1818-'92; "Ned Buntline"; Matthew St. Clair Clarke, who wrote a Life of David Crockett here ascribed to the hero of it, as is also another life written by R. P. Smith; Eliza Cushing, who wrote a once valued historical novel called 'Saratoga,' and whose sister, Mrs. Cheney, is duly entered; James De Mille, Mayne Reid, and Charles Sealsfield (the two latter, at least, claimed to be citizens); Miss Trumbull, of the famous Connecticut family, called on her title-pages "Annie Eliot" (J. H. Trumbull's death is not noted); A. K. Fiske; Sarah C. F. Hallowell; Frances A. Humphrey; W. Landon, author of a once famous novel called 'Stanley'; Margaret Lee; J. Loffland, formerly well known as "The Milford Bard"; Mrs. St. Leon Loud, whose poems Poe engaged to edit, and which were published by Ticknor in 1851; James McHenry, author of 'The Wilderness' and other renowned novels; E. S. Maclay; Julia H. Moore, whose fame, as "The Sweet Singer of Michigan," long filled the Western world; Eldridge F. Paige, whose 'Patent Sermons' are still in demand, though their author died thirty-eight years ago; C. C. Shackford, who died in 1891, etc.

The number of works, or their importance, apparently does not enter into consideration in the selection. For example, William T. Davis, author, among other works, of the large and laborious 'Ancient Landmarks of Plymouth,' is not an obscure American, but he and his books are ignored, while we find this precious entry: "Rice, Isaac Leopold. *Bo* [*hemia*], 1850 —. A lawyer of New York city who has written 'What is Music?' " Indeed! Turning up this author in the 'American Catalogue,' we learn that his screed forms No. 140 of the "Humboldt Library" and is issued in paper covers at fifteen cents! We need go no further to show how arbitrary is Mr. Adams's choice; but we must not conceal W. J. Bryan's admission to the Addenda on the strength of his catchpenny 'First Battle,' a review of the campaign of 1896. For Mr. Adams's purpose "America" is not Canada, and hence only immigrants like Prof. Roberts and Bliss Carman are allowed a place. Mr. Goldwin Smith's temporary residence on this side of the border counts for nothing. Present residence, as in the case of Dr. von Holst, is an open-sesame. There is an occasional infelicity in description, as of J. F. Rhodes as "An historian of Boston," where a comma is needed after "historian." Finally, the dates of death are often omitted, or incorrectly given. Barlow's birthyear is given as 1754 instead of 1755.

While recognizing the conscientiousness of Mr. Adams's work, we are obliged to say of it, as of so many works of its class, that it is welcome in spite of its deficiencies.

The Gladwin Manuscripts. With an Introduction and a Sketch of the Conspiracy of Pontiac. By Charles Moore. Lansing: Robert Smith Printing Company. 1897.

Major Gladwin, the defender of Detroit against Pontiac, has suffered in reputation both from Parkman's comparative neglect and, perhaps more, from a phrase which occurs in one of his letters to Amherst. Towards the end of 1763, when the danger was over, he advised a policy of conciliation. Nothing was to be gained by prosecuting a war where the enemy were so difficult to catch. Moreover, says Gladwin, there is a better way of getting rid of them than by retaliatory warfare. "They have lost eighty or ninety of their best warriors, but if your Excellency still intends to punish them further for their barbarities, it may be easily done, without any expense to the Crown, by permitting a free sale of rum, which will destroy them more effectively than fire or sword." The passage just quoted has generally been wrested from its context, and used to exemplify a method of treating the aborigines more shameful than their own treacheries. The fact is that Gladwin only suggests a means to be used in the last resort. At the end of the same sentence he expresses the hope that matters may be otherwise accommodated for the sake of the peltry trade and for the preservation of the Mississippi frontier against barbarous nations more remote than the ones in question.

Though Parkman is inclined to give Gladwin the cold shoulder, and does not even spell his name correctly, it would be unjust to accuse him of neglecting his sources. Only exceptional diligence and good fortune have enabled Mr. Moore to lay hands upon the documents which he has used in preparing his article for *Harper's Magazine*, and which he publishes with an account of their acquisition. The discovery of Gladwin's great-grandchildren under other names and the chances of the auction-room were needed to put him in possession of the information he had long been seeking. With its aid he is able to establish the degree of Gladwin's activity at Detroit and the extent of French complicity in Pontiac's revolt. Leaving the reader to make out from Mr. Moore's interesting preface how he managed to secure his prize, we shall content ourselves with saying a word on each of these two points.

With regard to Gladwin's success in feeding his garrison, keeping open communication with a food depot, and repelling the thousand howling savages without, it is obvious that he stayed the course of the rebellion, which the fall of Sandusky and other forts had rendered formidable. In order, however, to estimate his resourcefulness at its proper value, one must see him behind the palisades after Dalzell's fiasco, which cost the English 159 killed and wounded, against the trifling loss of 20 Indians. Gladwin permitted the sortie only on Dalzell's threat that he would withdraw the relieving force unless permitted to lead an attack. The "battle of Bloody Run" came in the nick of time for Pontiac, and brought him large reinforcements. "Yet never since the siege began," in Mr. Moore's words, "was Major Gladwin more confident of ultimate success."

With regard to the attitude of the French, these new documents prove almost conclusively that Pontiac was more their cat's-paw than the compeller of their unwilling services. The evidence given at Gladwin's inquiries, held during the siege, points straight to their active complicity.

"Mr. Clairmont told Col. Gladwin [May 11, 1764] in the presence of Capt. Grant and Lt. Hay. That the 9th day of May 1763 (being near the Mouth of the River Huron getting timber where was also Mr Massac and many other Frenchmen) at three in the morning some Indians came by there with a Belt inviting all nations of Indians they met to fall upon the English wherever they found them. That they sung the War Song in Mr. Massac's house or Cabbin . . . . and that Mr. Massac sung with them & when he struck his stroke in the song he struck with a little loaf of bread. That one Dunoir and one Campeau was present."

There is much more in this strain.

Altogether Mr. Moore is successful in rehabilitating his hero. Incidentally, he illustrates the improvement of English regular officers in fighting Indian foes. Gladwin had been a member of Braddock's expedition, and was also before Ticonderoga. He must either have possessed a marked aptitude for guerilla warfare, which is very possible, or have learned caution by hard experience. One certainly notes a strong contrast between the ambush of Little Meadows and the siege of Detroit.

Sources for Greek History between the Persian and Peloponnesian Wars. Collected and arranged by G. F. Hill, M.A., of the British Museum. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1897.

It is well known that, in this country, historical method has been developed almost exclusively in connection with mediæval and modern history, and that few colleges have as yet made provision for the scientific study of the history of Greece and Rome. Many things are needed, therefore, to bring historical scholarship and teaching in the field of classical history up to the level of its importance. There is need, for instance, of abler and more liberally endowed instruction, of better text-books, and of collections of sources in the original languages and in translations, for the use of students and pupils. Mr. Hill's book helps to supply one of these needs. His work has been done for a period that is highly interesting, both for its political developments and for its still unsolved historical problems. The book treats of eastern and western Greece, of Athens and Sparta and the federative and imperial systems that these two cities repre-

sented, of the external and constitutional history of the Greek States, and of the lives of eminent men. The selections are in the original languages, and are both literary and epigraphic. The work is thus adapted to the needs of scholars and of advanced college students. The sources are arranged topically in chapters, and detailed indices have been added.

The scope of the work is comprehensive, facilitating a broad and thorough study of the political history of the period. The editor has rarely added a note or offered a conjectural reading of his own: his individuality appears only in the selection and arrangement of the material. Thus he has avoided placing himself between student and source. It is his opinion, expressed in the preface, that "the student of [ancient] history is too apt to study it, not in the light of ancient authorities, but in the reflections of modern writers." The study of sources should be emphasized as much for ancient as for modern history. Original research is, indeed, the only basis on which sound historical scholarship can be built. It would be a fatal mistake, however, to ignore the results of modern criticism. The modern historians, though but interpreters of ancient sources, are nevertheless absolutely indispensable. It would be a waste of time to reiterate so trite a truth, were it not that survivals of eighteenth-century methods of writing ancient history are still manifesting themselves in certain quarters. Mr. Hill has left us in doubt as to his position in relation to this matter. Perhaps he would admit that the student must be guided through his book by experienced hands, but would prefer to leave such guidance to the various modern authorities on the period treated. At all events, his work, so far as it goes, has been ably and carefully done. May we hope that it is the beginning of a series of collections of sources that will include all the important epochs of classical history?

Vita Medica: Chapters of Medical Life and Work. By Sir Benjamin Ward Richardson, M.D., LL.D., F.R.S. Longmans. 1897.

Most readers, as they lay down the 'Vita Medica' of Richardson, will say, "Here is a book of five hundred pages with scarcely a dull line." From first to last the record is permeated with an interesting personality—a born doctor, who, like the Great Physician, went about doing good, and that chiefly to the poor, whose needs are greatest and whose helpers are fewest. In describing his own career, he draws to the life English customs in middle-class schools and society, especially in the sphere of provincial practitioners. These things—as it were paper and twine thrown in for nothing—wrap up and diversify the medical narrative, and make it easier for readers to carry.

Beginning with rural practice, Richardson soon gravitated to London as naturally as a planet to the sun. Reaching that metropolitan goal early in the fifties, and in his third decade, he never left it, save for country lectures. We never hear of him beyond the four seas. But his home activities were intense, and they were never interrupted save by one fever of fourteen weeks, caught while on a tour of duty. His writings were voluminous, and in a single periodical filled more than five thousand pages. He did much hospital work, and was laborious, as president, and otherwise, in several associations of his professional brethren. Few men have been inspired with such courage of their convictions and by their convictions. In 1869 and for decades afterward, he stood as a medical advocate of total abstinence. He had been in practice a score of years before he became convinced that alcohol was an enemy to life, both in health and in sickness, and that it was his duty to proclaim his conviction. Nothing so cut him to the heart as the social and professional ostracism, or boycotting, which he encountered.

"I remember," he says, "nothing like the mischief which befell me when I made the first [temperance] sortie. Before then, my lecture-rooms had been filled by medical men, who liked to see new experiments and to listen to what might now be styled 'post-graduate courses.' Afterwards the rooms were simply vacant. From the outside world the sick had sought me, and life was on the crest of the wave. The charm ceased so soon as I declared for the principle of total abstinence" (p. 377).

With many other touching utterances he shows multitudes who had cried Hosanna, eager to crucify. But he survived to serve for twenty years in a total abstinence hospital, and to chronicle a corresponding revolution in medical opinion and practice where he had been maltreated.

The three graces, faith, hope, and charity, abided in Richardson, but of these three the greatest in him was hope. He had much charity for the baffled but well-meant endeavors of the past, more faith in the achievements of the present, and, most of all, hope in the medical future—a hope which rendered him to his last week of life a tireless and sanguine experimentalist. His dealings with anæsthetics give us a typical taste of his quality. He had charity for the drastic James Wardrop, who, "when vaporous inhalation was still unknown, had produced deliquium, or fainting, and thereby insensibility, by bleeding, and then performed operations painlessly" (p. 412). Again, he had faith in gaining the same painless end without bloodshed, and that from the smoke of a puff-ball—the "devil's snuff-box" (p. 162); and much more faith in the chloroform anæsthetic imported from America. This invention he hailed as foreshadowing the abolition of pain. The objection that it often lulled patients into a sleep which knows no waking he saw to be serious, and through life made full proof of chemical compounds and devices which would render anæsthesia as safe as natural sleep. He devised, among other things, the ether-spray apparatus (p. 286), and, though he died without finding what he sought, his hope was unfaltering to the end. "Pain," said he, "will be utterly abolished, and, as a part of an operation, will not be taken into consideration because it will not be called forth" (p. 289).

Richardson's mind was so sensitized in regard to his own line of inventiveness that trifles light as air or shadows photographed themselves upon it, or were there transfigured into potent anodynes. Thus some drops of cologne shot through a tube upon his forehead by a lady with whom he was about to dance gave him the ether-spray invention. Besides being a trained chemist, he was a natural mechanician. Hence, not only were his manipulations skilful from the cutset, but, thanks to witty inventions nobody had thought of before, they grew more and more successful and spectacular. He could not fail to become a favorite lecturer on his specialty. Speaking to popular audiences he more and more eschewed such a professional dialect as is "not understanded of the people." He had early been taught in this line. His first prize was the Fothergillian gold medal for an essay on "Diseases of the Fœtus in utero." This production he carried to a publisher who, as he had no doubt, would be glad to share in the profits of publication. The only reason given for the rejection of his manuscript, without even a reading, was that its title proved to the publisher that its author could not write anything the world would read.

Richardson's quests and experiments were numberless. A partial list of them embraced antiseptics and lethals, the blood, nervous centres, reanimation, and the germ theory. But his chief end was treason against his own profession, for his heart's desire was to make doctors useless through sanitations so perfect and pervasive that disease would be extinguished. His idea of the city Hygeiopolis, analogous to Plato's ideal Republic, he bodied forth in a lecture in Brighton Dome before the Social Science Association. In preparing this discourse by the seaside, he traced a plan of the city of health with his cane in the sand for the amusement of his little daughter. He thus illustrated model sewage, water-supply, ventilation, parks, etc. The night wind blew away the sand sketch, and it had to be renewed in the morning. But, said an American critic, though "the winds blew it away, they blew it all over the world." Nor were these words hyperbolical, for the address took the audience by storm, and all London papers, from *Punch* to the *Times*, as well. It made the fortune of the *Sanitary Review*, and added more to the lecturer's fame than any single effort of his career. Much of what Richardson hoped for, and for which all creation yearns, may be a transcendental reverie. He believed himself on the point of producing, by the operations of the laboratory, milk better than any cow can yield, "because free from any possibility of causing disease." He was inclined to vegetarianism, and held that chemists would soon transmute vegetables into food that would be practically animal in taste and quality and (if they pleased) appearance. More than this, "all races, in his visions, were to be dyed of one color, with their highroads through the skies, and their paths on the floors of the seas." No idealist rises to the height of his ideal, but he rises higher than he could but for soaring on such a pinion, and his failures are often better than other successes.

A History of Pembroke College, Oxford, Anciently Broadgate's Hall. By the Rev. Douglas Macleane. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde.

We have here the thirty-third volume issued by the Oxford Historical Society, comprising in its 544 closely printed pages an elaborate history of the foundation and the fabric, with a series of biographical sketches of "its best remembered sons," drawn up, so far as we can see, with care and judgment. A college which can reckon among its alumni Bishop Bonner the Marian persecutor, Beaumont the poet, Camden the antiquary, Pym the parliamentarian, Sir Thomas Browne the author of 'Religio Medici,' the browbeating Chief Justice Scroggs,

Blackstone, with his oppressive spirit of orderliness, and the perfervid Whitefield, not to mention such notable men of science in our own day as Rolleston the physiologist, and Hatch the ecclesiastical historian, has no lack of interest and variety in its traditions; and to all these we have to add the name of Samuel Johnson, "the greatest of the sons of Pembroke." Johnson has conferred on the modern cicerone the inestimable benefits of a good story—the pair of boots thrown down stairs; and a good phrase—"a nest of singing birds."

Most of the matter in the book is necessarily compiled from other and obvious sources, and in the present form can appeal only to Pembroke men. But, like all these Oxford publications, there is much in it to interest the historian of manners, especially of academic manners. A few examples may be taken at random. Early in the seventeenth century a change is noticed in the composition of the undergraduate body owing to the growing practice of sending "nobellmen's sonnes" into France "when they are very yonge" (p. 240 and note). On p. 360 will be found some observations worth considering in defence of the old servitorships, which brought poor men to the universities "from the plough and the shop." Mr. Macleane makes the not unnecessary comment that "there are still servants attached to the colleges, but they are not admitted to lecture-room or chapel." With this may be associated the defence, on p. 445, of the old local endowments: "The earlier founders believed that any lad of average parts who was willing to study might be made into a student. They supplied him with bare necessaries and hedged him round with scholastic discipline. There was no reason, therefore, why their bounty should not be annexed to certain schools, localities, or families." As the present Archbishop of Canterbury remarked when the restrictions were being abolished forty years ago, "the change of manners has deprived us of the check which once restrained idle men from undertaking what was then a laborious life." There are some instructive entries (p. 407) from the day-book of an eighteenth-century Fellow which display a liberality in the purchase of standard books when still an undergraduate which might put to shame many a well-to-do student of to-day. But when he was elected Fellow, at the ripe age of seventeen or eighteen, he seems to have felt a desire for a little mild dissipation, and on that very day he—not bought, he was too canny for that, but—"hired" 'Joseph Andrews' for sixpence. His appetite growing by what it fed on, two months later he "hired" 'Peregrine Pickle' for a shilling! Let us add, in view of much recent talk about Jowett, that a glance may well be given to another reforming head of a college, of a somewhat earlier period, Dr. Jeune, of whom there are here several anecdotes of the fine old crusted Oxford kind (pp. 468-9). The result of recent reforms, however—not, indeed, in Pembroke, but "elsewhere"—has, according to the author, been the conversion of the colleges into "barracks of undergraduates, officered by stranded tutors and adventitious hired chaplains" (p. 459). Mr. Macleane, it should be observed, has "gone down" from Oxford, and so can speak his mind in comfort.

Samuel Sewall and the World he Lived in. By Rev. N. H. Chamberlain. Boston: DeWolfe, Fiske & Co. 1897. Pp. xv, 319.

This volume, the author modestly warns the reader, "does not . . . pretend to original research; it avoids, with intention, the minute exactness of the antiquarian, and it uses for its groupings and pictures of the ancient Puritan life such material, from any quarter whatsoever, as could be verified and made useful"; but it is none the less evident that Mr. Chamberlain's book is the fruit of much labor and care. With Sewall's well-known diary as his guiding thread, and with constant quotation from it, the author sketches many features of the life and character of the New Englanders of the second and third generation, their conceptions of Church and State, their business characteristics, their home life, their courtships, their literature, their relations to the other races with which they were brought in contact. If he has added little that was novel, he has described the traits of the age with which he deals with much clearness of insight and fair-mindedness. The Puritan, as he sees him, was not altogether a hero, a fanatic, or a creature of quaint and amusing habits and surroundings. The Puritan was an emigrant Englishman, facing and solving as best he could the problems of his day, many of which press equally on our own.

Mr. Chamberlain's characterizations and generalizations are often suggestive, as a description of Roger Williams may illustrate:

"No wise man will willingly affront his memory, even when pointing out his weaknesses. The fact is that Roger Williams was made up after a polyglot pattern. He was a sort of Oriental caravan, bearing all sorts of balm, myrrh, and frankincense for delight and use; but he wandered often from the track, brought little bread, though a few pearls of great price; and, to say truth, had not great store of anything to feed the hungry into mastery in the land to which he fared."

For the diary that lies at the basis of the volume, and for Sewall himself, Mr. Chamberlain has high admiration.

"It is very much as this land then was—chaotic, migratory, rough, granite, actual, sincere. The barbaric wilderness, savage, cruel, vast, serves as the background of all his pictures, and not seldom, as an atmosphere, is often blown into them. While the Diary is rough, uncouth, and almost Gothic in its blunt, sometimes even coarse, downrightness, it is always sincere, confidential, and friendly. Sewall puts no gall in his ink, shows no malice, means to be just, with an intention that does not often fail him, and, in short, writes himself down as a strong-bodied, great-souled, honor-loving Puritan; not altogether above his age—no genius, no saint except in intent, but withal as good 'an all-round man' as New England has ever had. It is this man who has written our one great diary."

Indeed, one may question whether Mr. Chamberlain, in his hearty appreciation of Sewall's good qualities, does not pass too kindly a judgment upon the foibles which were no less manifest. Yet an honest diary is an unsparing revealer of character, and few men could unburden themselves as freely as Sewall evidently did in his pages with less ground for serious reproach.

Mr. Chamberlain has fallen into error in the location of two at least of his minor incidents. The deaconess who "sat in a convenient place in the meeting-house with a birch-rod in her hand to awe little children," was not at Plymouth. Bradford, who gives a picturesque description of her in his Dialogue, saw her on the other side of the Atlantic, as one of the officers of the Separatist Church under Johnson and Ainsworth at Amsterdam. Nor was it of "a fishing congregation in Plymouth Colony," but of one in quite the opposite direction from Boston, that Cotton Mather tells the story of the interruption of the preacher who urged fidelity to the religious purpose of the founders by the exclamation from the pews, "Sir, you are mistaken; you think you are preaching to the people at the Bay; our main end was to catch fish."

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 21, 1897.

The Week.

The extraordinary character of the foreign trade of the United States this season may best be judged by comparing the September export and import statement with that for the same month in other years of heavy exports. In September, 1891, the outward trade in breadstuffs was extremely heavy. Wheat exports in particular ran closely on a level with the "famine month" of September, 1879, and with the current season. Yet in September, 1891, our excess of exports over imports was less by $36,500,000 than it was last month. The nine months ending with September, 1891, showed total net merchandise exports of $10,177,509; the excess of exports up to September's close this year is $157,639,393. For this remarkable showing there is again a double cause: enormous and continuous increase in our exports, and similar slackening in our import trade. It is, moreover, worthy of careful notice that export of manufactures is not slackening at all. In August, for example, shipment of iron and steel goods increased nearly a million dollars over 1896. Meantime the import trade has actually fallen to the lowest autumn level of the present generation. In September there was received in merchandise from abroad $8,400,000 less than even in 1896, when the paralysis of the trade was attracting wide attention. Many of the causes of this extraordinary decrease have no connection with the excessive importations of last summer, but reflect a permanent and not discouraging change in the nature of our industrial situation. But the framers of the Dingley law were either totally ignorant of these changed conditions, or else snapped their fingers at them. With dutiable importations of the entire United States nearly 25 per cent. less last month than they were a year ago, and less by 41 per cent. than they were in September, 1895, the pitiful showing of the federal revenue will astonish nobody.

Mr. Dingley rises to explain, in his paper, the Lewiston *Journal*, about the woful failure of his estimate of $10,000,000 a year from his "personal effects" tax. He now admits that the revenue from that source may not exceed $1,000,000; but his estimate was not at all a failure, and this for two reasons. In the first place, his estimate was "simply a reiteration" of what somebody had told him; so you must catch the other fellow. No responsibility, it is clear, can attach to a chairman of the ways and means committee who simply reiterates what others tell him. That is what he is there for. As a matter of fact, we suppose Mr. Dingley can evade all his predictions and all his taxes in that way. They were not his. He simply prophesied and taxed as he was told to. But he has another defence. His estimate of $10,000,000 was meant to be taken as revenue resulting either "directly or indirectly." There is the sly catch. Mr. Dingley was reckoning in not only what would be actually collected, but what would have been collected if the $40,000,000 of free goods, "mainly luxuries," brought in by returning tourists, had only gone on manfully coming in and had paid duty. This should hereafter figure in the Treasury statements. For example, the deficit up to date is $34,746,000, but it should be added that this does not reckon in the $9,000,000 which is constructively, or "indirectly," in the Treasury through Mr. Dingley's baggage tax.

The Commissioner of Pensions is the latest official at Washington to say that he, too, must have more money. Why not? Mr. McKinley's message urging the Dingley bill specifically demanded "ample" revenues for the sake of increased pensions. To be sure the revenues are not turning out exactly ample; October is evidently in for a $10,000,000 deficit, and the total running behind will be about $45,000,000, apparently, by the time Congress meets; but what difference does that make? We trust that a great party which put down a gigantic rebellion and ran in debt to the tune of $2,500,000,000, is not going to mind a little deficit like that. At any rate, as Commissioner Evans says, the pensions go on piling up, no matter what happens to the revenue. He has spent $3,000,000 more than his predecessor. He would like to cut down the total below $142,000,000 a year, but doesn't see any way to do it unless Congress will legislate to prevent young women from marrying old soldiers and so getting on the pension list for life. The fatal objection to this is, as Mr. Evans sadly points out, that it "would meet with much opposition from the Grand Army men."

The result of the municipal election in Indianapolis last week is full of encouragement to the friends of good government in the Greater New York. A Mayor was to be chosen for two years. The contest was between the incumbent of the office, Thomas Taggart, a Democrat, who was first elected in 1895, and a Republican. Mr. Taggart depended upon his record as chief magistrate. That record was one of efficiency and fidelity to the public interests. Since he became Mayor the streets have been kept cleaner than ever before, and at a greatly reduced expense; the cost of paving has been lowered; the Fire Department has been enlarged and improved; the telephone and telegraph wires have been put under ground; in short, the government of the city has been well administered. The question for the voters was, therefore, simply whether a good Mayor should be given the second term which he had deserved. The result was the reëlection of Mr. Taggart by a plurality of more than 5,000 over the Republican candidate, in a city which last fall gave McKinley 6,000 plurality over Bryan. More than 5,000 voters who supported the Republican for President last November, vindicated their independence by supporting the Democrat for Mayor on Tuesday week.

Gen. Harrison of Indianapolis has had a conversation with the New York *Sun* by way of helping us to elect our Mayor. He is utterly opposed to the election of Mr. Low on municipal issues solely. The reason is that the voters for McKinley "will inquire how the candidates for Mayor of Greater New York stand upon the questions whether public and private debts are to be paid at forty cents on the dollar, and whether the just powers of the courts are to be upheld against the assaults of the mob." They will want to know, further, whether a particular election "is going to scatter or weaken the forces that won those issues of 1896." His theory, doubtless, is that such an inquiry would reveal Low in his true light, as a "repudiationist or a friend of the mob," and it is very good of him to come so far to suggest the putting of these plain questions by the voters. Low ought to be asked, and Gen. Harrison would confer a great kindness on the community by asking him, whether he is "a repudiationist or a friend of the mob or not." If he is not, why does he insist on putting municipal questions in the foreground? Can it be that he is for a gold standard and *also* for a non-partisan mayor? That he not only wants the streets cleaned by a non-partisan force, but *also* is opposed to free silver? That he is in favor of a non-partisan police and *also* opposed to assaults of the mob on the courts? Gen. Harrison rightfully doubts that such intellectual gymnastics are possible in an honest man. One or other of these views is all his own mind can hold. Were he to become a Citizen Unionist, he feels he would incontinently begin to howl for free silver, and were he to advocate non-partisanship in municipal affairs, he would head a mob in attacking the courts. These are serious men-

tal limitations, but they are the mental limitations of a great man.

Croker has driven Mr. Dayton, one of the most powerful men in his organization, into open revolt by his insolent exercise of the nominating power for Tammany. As Mr. Dayton says, no man can get a Tammany nomination who exhibits the "slightest hesitation to execute Croker's despotic orders," and hence no man can get into office through Tammany Hall who is not a "mere shadow of Croker," using his office, not for the people, but for the personal benefit of Croker. The same thing is true of the methods of the other boss. No Republican who as an official has failed to do "what the old man wants" in every instance, or who, as a candidate, is not willing to pledge himself to do it in future, can hope to receive a Republican nomination in this city or State. Moreover, in his assertion of exclusive possession of the nominating power, Platt has gone a step beyond Croker. He not only denies the right of the people to nominate candidates by petition through the Citizens' Union, but he has vainly sought to prevent them from exercising the right to nominate by petition which the ballot law confers upon them. He has filed a formal protest against some 17,500 citizens who have gone about in an orderly and legal way to avail themselves of the right to the nomination of candidates for the municipal and State Legislatures. He is so furious at their audacity and impudence in presuming to desire other candidates than those whom he and Croker have selected for them to support, that he invokes the aid of the courts to put a stop to their proceedings. He thus makes enemies of 500 voters in every one of the thirty-five Assembly districts in which the petitions have been signed. These 17,500 or more voters have signed these petitions under the unjust requirements of the ballot law as "doctored" in Platt's interest by his men in the Legislature. He had the number of petitioners necessary to make independent nominations raised so high in all cases as to amount, in his opinion, to a complete barrier. That such a number has still been found, and found without difficulty, in every district of the city, ought to be a startling warning to him of the condition of the public temper.

While the Platt machine was trying to keep the non-partisan ticket off the official ballot in the Greater New York, it was trying to force upon that ballot the sham nomination of a Populist for Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals, under the name of the "United Democracy," in order to draw off votes from Judge Parker, the candidate of the regular Democrats. Just before midnight of the last day upon which independent State nominations could be filed with the Secretary of State, a bundle of certificates containing 6,000 signatures to the nomination of Charles Frederic Adams by the "United Democracy" for the judgeship was brought into the capitol by Lafayette B. Gleason, the Republican journal clerk of the New York Senate, and John A. Cole, a Republican clerk of the Assembly. Mr. Adams afterward declined the nomination, and the name of Lawrence J. McParlin, a leading Populist, was substituted by the committee charged with the filling of vacancies, as the law allows. The regular Democrats entered protests against the placing of this ticket upon the official ballot on various grounds. The one which will appeal most strongly to the public is the fact that the bulk of the signers to the petitions for the nomination were not members of the shadowy "United Democracy," or Democrats of any sort, but Republicans, and in many cases prominent Republicans. It was conclusively shown that the scheme had been worked up by the Republican State committee, the members of which were perfectly open about their share in the business. Quite aside from this objection to the sincerity of the petitions as really representing the organization for which they purported to stand, there were fatal flaws in the petitions themselves, as that some of the signers were not qualified electors, that others had not sworn that they were residents and electors, and that the necessary number of names in one county had been eked out by plain forgeries. The Secretary of State overruled all these objections, but Justice Herrick of the Supreme Court, whose decision is final, has reversed the determination of the Secretary, and the elaborate scheme of the Platt machine is thus defeated.

Both Croker's and Platt's nominees for the Assembly are declared to be "very bad" this year. But that is only a part of their system of government by blackmail. Platt rakes out of the ooze, as Carlyle said, a set of desperadoes, and sends them to the Legislature, and then he turns to the corporations and says, "Really, the people are electing such a lot of ruffians that your property is not safe for a day unless you pay me money to look out for your interests and beat off these robbers." That is the way Platt is able to figure as "a saviour of society." He first puts a set of brigands in power, and then demands a ransom from the people whose property is endangered by their predatory schemes. Under this system the Legislature must be made visibly worse from year to year in order to keep the corporations and rich men frightened. If they are let off with $50,000 apiece one year, the growing rapacity of the Legislature must justify doubling the assessment the next year. Of course, Gen. Tracy has to be paid more for heading off an attack on property in an assembly of desperate characters than in one of average virtue. So the worse the Legislature is, the bigger the profits of the boss business. Platt is, by nature, such an unpromising-looking, such a mean and unlikely "saviour of society," that he has to make his Legislature very bad indeed in order to get society to believe that he is the man to hire as saviour.

Another outrageous injunction has been issued by the Federal Court in Kansas. Under the law of Kansas, foreign insurance companies may do business in that State on complying with certain formalities. On neglect to pay a loss to any person in Kansas for three months "after final judgment," a foreign company may be prevented from carrying on business. The Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, having a legal defence, refused to pay a claim, whereupon the Kansas Superintendent revoked its license. This was an illegal act, and the federal judge, on being applied to, at once granted an injunction. It is regarded as an outrage by all true Populists, however, for two reasons—first, because they say that to sue the State Superintendent is virtually to sue the State of Kansas, which is unconstitutional, and, second, because Kansas had made all tight and secure by another law requiring that all actions brought against the Superintendent should be brought in the State courts. Both objections have been brushed aside by the federal court, and as to the last, the court cites several decisions to show that even had the company agreed to the provision as a condition of doing business, it would have been of no avail, for no one can "barter away his life, his freedom, or his constitutional rights." That is, the federal judge will protect the foreign insurer even if the wretch waives all his rights and stipulates that Kansas may strip him at will.

This case throws a strong light on some of the causes of "government by injunction," and shows why it is mainly federal. As the State Legislatures have become more and more corrupt, dishonest, and ignorant, their interference with life, liberty, and property has become incessant; in the same way, as their police, sheriffs, etc., have run down, outside the cities, the danger to life, liberty, and property has increased. As their courts have been more and more filled with elective judges, these have become poorer and poorer. The federal judiciary, on the other hand, with its life-tenure and simple administration, and a resistless power behind it, has steadily increased in importance, while at the same time the multiplication of corporations doing business all over the country, and the revolution in transportation which has made nearly all business in some of its forms "inter-

state," has made it more and more possible to extend the federal jurisdiction over questions which were formerly purely local. An improvement in the character of the State governments in the West would no doubt do much to reduce the harvest of federal injunctions; wherever they remain Populist—*i. e.*, anarchical—in character, the foreign devils who do not like being cheated and mobbed and robbed and murdered, will invoke and obtain the aid of a government whose courts and executive are ubiquitous and feared.

The Governor of Arizona is out with the annual plea for the admission of that thinly settled territory as a State, with power in the Senate equal to that of New York or Pennsylvania. He claims that Arizona has as much wealth as the average of the twenty-two States admitted from 1791 to 1876, and estimates its population at 87,500. The former claim is too vague for analysis, but the latter can easily be tested. In 1888 there were cast in Arizona 11,538 votes for delegate to Congress; in 1896, after a much more closely contested canvass, 14,051. This represents a gain of only about 20 per cent. in eight years, and the population in 1890 was but 59,620, of which more than 1,500 were Indians, nearly 3,000 Chinese, and over 3,000 Mexicans. A gain of 20 per cent. would bring the total now up to only about 70,000, from which deduction must be made for Indians, Chinese, and Mexicans. Even that reckless advocate of premature statehood, Senator Platt of Connecticut, will hardly favor giving two seats in the Senate to the few thousand men in Arizona who have the right to vote.

The memorial of the English business men to the Chancellor of the Exchequer, regarding the silver craze, goes far to elucidate all we have been saying for years about the influences which govern English monetary action. We have over and over again pointed out the folly of our strolling bimetallists from this side of the water, in basing their opinions of what England is likely to do on interviews with their own brethren in that country, the professors who work out theories of currency on the blackboard, the embarrassed landlords, and the socialistic reformers, who propose to make the mint give human society a great lift. Nothing has been more diverting during the last ten years than to hear men like Mr. W. C. Whitney and the venerable Hoar of Massachusetts tell you, on their arrival from Europe, about the closeness of England to bimetallism. "Why, sir, when such minds as Mr. Balfour's," etc., etc. The secret of English success is, that "such minds as Mr. Balfour's" have no more influence on currency and business than their opinions on aerial navigation. The men who really control England's currency are the great business merchants of the City, who look after her enormous commercial and shipping interests all over the world, and the great banking-houses which bank for them. The investments of this class, which are immense, and which have made England the great creditor nation of the earth, have all been made on the theory that the pound sterling is as stable as the monarchy. Since the report of the Bullion Committee in 1810, these men have never had the slightest wavering about the things which constitute the value of a coin, and never will have. England, through them and the stable standard of value, is the great trader of the globe. When they speak, they speak with an authority which no Chancellor of the Exchequer ventures to disregard.

The report of the Royal Commission on the West Indian sugar industry is a document which shows how much the English have to learn. The commissioners discovered, what is in fact notorious, that the cane-sugar industry in the West Indies was in a bad way; that it was not the fault but the misfortune of the planters that this was so; that they were simply going down before the competition of the bounty-grown sugar of Europe. As for a remedy, the only thorough-going one ever proposed was a protective or "countervailing" duty on the competing sugar. But the strange insularity of the commissioners led them to argue against this. They thought the British consumer might object to having to pay more for his sugar, not seeing how much more important it is to have the industry than to have the sugar. There was also the doubt whether such duties might not conflict with treaty obligations; they would certainly inconvenience trade (the idea of caring about that!); and when all was said, the countervailing duty might not be permanently effective, and then all the disturbance would have been in vain. Besides, the United States was about to go into the beet-sugar industry on an extensive scale, taxing its own citizens heavily for the purpose, and even if the Europeans could be induced to give up their bounties for sugar, the United States could not. Therefore, weakly said the commissioners, we can only let nature and the progress of invention and of industry take their course. And this with Mr. Dingley's success in getting the better of nature by a tax, right before their eyes!

Lovers of those very treacherous affairs, historical parallels, will be disposed to see in Spain's latest policy of placating Cuba an analogy to the last desperate shift to which Philip II. resorted in order to retain his sovereignty over the Netherlands. After Alba's rule of blood and iron in the Low Countries had failed to break their spirit, he was recalled, as Gen. Weyler is now, and Alexander of Parma was sent in his stead. He was to detach the Catholic nobles from the cause of the rebels, as Capt.-Gen. Blanco is now to draw off the Cuban autonomists from the insurgents. Parma won much immediate success in the new policy of conciliation, only to fail miserably in the end. This does not, of course, prove that Gen. Blanco will meet the same fate, but it does suggest that the same difficulties and dangers beset him. For him to come with an olive branch in one hand and a sword in the other, not as alternatives, but as the contradictory things to be put into play at one and the same time, is enough to make the Cubans look twice at their new Captain-General. They will be justified in asking whether it is peace or the sword.

Russia's predominance in European diplomacy, so evident in all the dragging Turkish negotiations, has almost withdrawn attention from her great projects and successes in the Orient. Some of these are detailed in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* of September 15. First of all is the approaching completion of the trans-Siberian railroad. The engineers now talk of seeing the last kilometre laid in 1898, three years ahead of time. This means, in addition to the vast new territories brought under cultivation and within reach of a market, a direct outlet to the sea. Shut out for the present from Constantinople, diverted from what at one time appeared to be her plan of reaching the sea via Afghanistan and India, Russia now has attained her object on the shores of China. A recent treaty with that country gives her, besides the port of Vladivostok, which is shut by the ice for a part of the year, a harbor in the Bay of Pe-chi-li open all the year round. To it will run direct a branch of the Siberian railroad, and thus the fleet will be in touch with the army and with a base of supplies. In this way, therefore, the object of Russian diplomacy for a hundred years is all but attained. Not yet on the Black Sea (where she will undoubtedly get her outlet some day) or on the Indian Ocean, on the Yellow Sea she has her unobstructed approach to the ocean. She has, besides, valuable trade privileges accorded her in her treaty with China, and is eager to be first in the exploiting of that country. The title of the *Revue* article is, "Who Will Exploit China?" China is, of course, there only to be exploited. As a matter of fact, Russia, France, and England are straining every nerve in the exploiting. Yet our apocalyptic bimetallists utter dire prophecies about "the Yellow Terror"—the invasion of Chinese and Japanese goods. The real Yellow Terror is the fear the Yellow people have of European invaders.

THE DAWN OF COURAGE.

A striking passage in William Everett's speech, at the time of accepting the National Democratic nomination for Governor of Massachusetts, deplored the sordid and shrinking tone of our political manifestoes and appeals. Nowhere did one catch the note of a brave man uttering brave words. We seemed to be a feeble breed of men fallen on feeble times. The encouraging voices, the elevated principles, the heroic stand for a cause, which had marked other political contests, were this year making their absence painfully felt. All was timidity or truckling; and no cry of real leadership and inspiration could be heard in any part of the field.

A common explanation of this dull and plodding level, which few would deny that our political life seems to have reached, is that the questions now engaging public attention are themselves dull and plodding. Who can be heroic about taxation? Who can get into a fine glow over more or less greenbacks in the currency? Who can grow enthusiastic over the flinging out of one boss, or one machine, simply for the purpose of installing another? Give us back great questions of humanity and justice and national good fame, and we shall have again the ennobling oratory and the dauntless leadership of other days. But this explanation does not explain. Taxation is a dry subject, but when it can be shown to involve social and political injustice, its appeal to generous minds is as urgent and irresistible as was that of the anti-slavery cause itself. So of an honest currency, so of municipal reform; they can be made to appear indissolubly linked with national honor and civic self-respect, and so are capable of arousing the loftiest and most flaming political zeal. No, the fault is not in our causes, but in ourselves, if we are political underlings.

A truer explanation, if still inadequate, may be found in the type of policy and of public man which we have come to reckon successful. Our highest political wisdom seems degenerating into mere opportunism. The ablest politicians are those who can maintain themselves in the nicest equilibrium between opposing principles. How can they stride boldly off, bidding the people follow, when their business is to walk a tight-rope with consummate skill? They must be for protection so delicately adjusted as not to interfere with the revenue, though shutting out foreign goods, and yet not allowing baneful domestic monopolies. They must be resolutely for the gold standard, yet with a tender side for international bimetallism and a hand open as day for silver. And their "Americanism" must be swung on a pivot of similar delicacy; they must be just truculent enough towards foreigners to win applause and delegates, but not so much so as to chill the stock markets or dim prosperity. They spend their days and nights in cultivating, like a county-fair acrobat, sureness of step and balance in the most ticklish positions. It is their perpetual bowing to the crowd on either side of their tight-rope which makes many impatient spirits cry out for thoroughgoing and fearless politicians of the old school, even if the school were to be uncompromising Toryism. That in its worst form, says a writer in one of the English reviews, would be preferable to the nerveless, spineless policy, without principle and without courage, which we see party after party and public man after public man adopting.

The strangest part of it is that the people like courage and conviction as much as they ever did. Our race of political trimmers is not reared to meet a popular demand. Democracy still says, as in Hosea Biglow's day, "By time I *du* like a feller that ain't a Feared." Such a man has but to show himself in public life to see the people rise to him. But when it is a case of taking service with a party or under a boss, instead of for the people, the situation is at once altered. A party is timid by nature; where are the votes to come from if anything is said to offend anybody? A boss is a very rabbit for courage. He neither has nor will tolerate outspoken initiative or clear-sighted leadership. Intrigue and bargaining and compromise and head-in-the-sand are his only skill. The touch of his hand upon a politician is paralyzing. Nothing, in fact, makes a party or a boss more speedily take fright than a man of ideas and boldness in speaking them out. Every such man whom, by mistake, they have admitted to their ranks, they make all haste to silence or expel. Then all is walking the tight-rope of non-committal again.

One of the inspiring things about the Low canvass in New York is that it comes as a fresh breath over what has so long been a stagnant fen. Mr. Low's candidacy had its origin in a bold movement. Daring and resolute in its conception, the Citizens' Union has gone towards its goal with a directness and sincerity which of themselves have been a great inspiration, and which, whatever the final result of the election, will long be felt as a revivifying influence. There is a vast stock of unused public spirit in the country. It has not been drawn upon because the people, confused and puzzled by the choice of evils to which the two political machines have shut them up, have not seen how to apply it. A way out has been shown them in the Citizens' Union movement and the Low canvass. Here were directness, courage, principle, after all the years of juggling and trickery. The swift response of the people, not only in New York but all over the country, marks the appearance of a new political force, which is certain in the next few years more and more to trouble the dreams and bring to naught the plottings of the bosses.

RAILROADS AT WASHINGTON.

During the coming winter several railroad questions of the first importance will be decided at Washington. To say nothing of the Nebraska maximum-rate question, which involves the power of States over railroads, the Joint Traffic case will be decided, and at the same time Congress will be once more strongly appealed to to permit "pooling." The question of "pooling" is directly connected with the question involved in the Joint Traffic case, and apparently the whole matter was passed upon in the Trans-Missouri case (U. S. vs. Trans-Missouri Freight Ass'n, 166 U. S., 290) six months ago; but as that case was decided by a bare majority of the Supreme Court, on a point merely of interpretation, the decision seems to be regarded nowhere as a finality.

The point decided in the Trans-Missouri case was that the federal anti-Trust law of 1890, making criminal all contracts in "restraint of trade," applied to interstate contracts between railroads designed to prevent fluctuation in rates, even though such contracts were perfectly reasonable and publicly advantageous, and would, but for the act, have been enforced. This decision was rested by Justice Peckham, who wrote the majority opinion, on the ground that Congress, under its power over interstate commerce, had sovereign jurisdiction over all interstate business, and that the word "reasonable" could not be read into a statute so as to allow reasonable contracts in restraint of trade. Four Judges took the opposite view, and in the courts below the contracts had been sustained. Substantially the same question will come up in the Joint Traffic case, but there are in it other points which will make necessary a reconsideration of the whole subject.

Should Congress give the railroads the right to "pool," or apportion their earnings equitably, so as to prevent ruinous competition (and this involves a modification of the interstate-commerce act which hitherto has been steadily refused), they will escape most of the immediate evil effects of the anti-Trust decision, but it will not relieve them of the legal incubus evoked by Judge Peckham, which can be got rid of now only by the discovery of some means by which the Supreme Court may mitigate the effects of his decision. If some such means cannot be found, then we are face to face with a situation which might easily produce intolerable consequences.

For the anti-Trust decision is the only one ever rendered by the Supreme Court which not merely makes Congress perpetually supreme over an enor-

mous field of human activity, but seems to lay down in advance that its power is beyond the control of the courts. The States have in the "police power" a sovereign right to regulate commerce within State lines, but the courts have always held that it must be reasonably exercised; and this really means that it must be exercised under the supervision of the courts, and that State Legislatures cannot so use it as to impair ordinary contractual rights, which, of course, include the liberty to make reasonable contracts in restraint of trade. The latest legal-tender decisions give Congress the right to debase the currency, but this right has never yet been exercised, and probably never will be. But the field of interstate commerce is, owing to facts which every one knows, the whole field of business itself. With the exception of petty local trade, all business is, or may be, interstate. Every manufacturer, farmer, and merchant carries on more or less interstate business, and if the domain covered by the anti-Trust decision could be made perceptible to the senses, it would be seen that what the Supreme Court has done is to give Congress absolute power over three-quarters of the business of the country, and to declare that as to this business Congress may make any reasonable or innocent act a crime, provided it is in restraint of trade—a phrase so elastic as to mean whatever you please. This is a very terrible power, and has never been asserted before, so far as we know, by any constitutional authority or by any court.

The decision has brought out a great deal of vigorous criticism from the bar, and the discussion, so far as it has proceeded, shows pretty clearly that it is hoped that in the Joint Traffic case the court may be persuaded to take the view that the rule of interpretation laid down by itself in the Trans-Missouri case makes the act which that rule upheld itself unconstitutional. This seems to be the upshot of Mr. Guthrie's widely quoted article on the subject, and of the recent discussion in the American Bar Association. The committee of the latter body which has taken the matter in hand, one of whose members is Mr. Moorfield Storey, emphatically calls attention to the argument that if Judge Peckham's decision be correct, "it must logically follow that the act of July 2, 1890, is unconstitutional, in this, that it violates the fifth amendment of the Constitution of the United States, which declares that no person shall be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law"; the Supreme Court having steadily held that "liberty" includes all reasonable contractual common-law rights.

While it is idle to attempt to predict what the Supreme Court will do, the importance of the matter cannot be exaggerated. To our minds it is inconceivable that the court can go so far as to make the sovereignty of the United States, within the sphere of what three generations of judges, from Marshall down, have uniformly treated as "delegated powers," an absolute tyranny. Such would unquestionably be the effect of the rule or interpretation apparently laid down by the court in the Trans-Missouri case, which actually puts Congress in the position of the Roman Emperor, and substitutes for the test of Reason which courts of justice apply to all law, the "Sic volo, sic jubeo, stet pro ratione voluntas" of the despot.

A GREAT JUDICIAL CAREER.

The retirement of Justice Field from the bench of the United States Supreme Court ends one of the great judicial careers in the history of the nation, and indeed of the English-speaking race. Exceeding by a few months the hitherto unprecedented term of Chief-Justice Marshall, not only does this term stand first of all in point of length, but the third of a century in the court's history which it covers is rivalled in the importance of its decisions only by the other third of a century in which that great jurist interpreted the new Constitution.

Stephen J. Field possessed the qualities which eminently fit a man for the bench, and yet his early career gave little promise that the New York lawyer of thirty-three, who sailed for California as one of the Argonauts in 1849, would in 1897 be retiring from the bench of the Supreme Court after a record of more than thirty-four years' honorable service. As things turned out, however, it was his infection with the gold fever which opened the way for his later career. His knowledge both of laws and of human nature fitted him for something higher than merely heaping up money like a Fair or a Mackay, and the pioneers recognized his qualifications by making him first a member of the California Legislature and afterwards of the State Supreme Court. His prominence in this latter capacity rendered him the one man to be considered for the place when Congress, in the second year of the Lincoln administration, authorized the appointment of another Judge of the United States Supreme Court, who was expected to be taken from the Pacific Coast.

Beginning service at Washington midway in the civil war, Justice Field not only has remained on the bench long enough to see all the issues which grew out of that conflict finally settled (if we except the legal-tender question), but he has himself been one of the chief agencies in this settlement. The retiring Judge, with entirely justifiable feeling, thus characterizes the period and his share in it:

"The war ended in a couple of years, and then came the great period of reconstruction and the last amendments to the federal Constitution. In the effort to reëstablish the nation, to adjust all things to the changed political, social, and economical conditions, questions of far-reaching import were developed—questions of personal liberty, of constitutional right—which, after ofttimes heated discussions before the people and in the halls of Congress, came to us for decision. I do not exaggerate when I say that no more difficult and momentous questions were ever presented to this or any other court. I look back with pride and joy to the fact that I was permitted to take part in the consideration of all those important questions, and that not infrequently I was called upon to express the judgment of this court thereon. And now that those times of angry debate, deep feeling, and judicial decision have passed, it is pleasant to realize that the conclusions announced by this court have been accepted, not simply of necessity, as so prescribed by the fundamental law, but in the main as in themselves both correct and wise."

Justice Field omits to mention what we must consider the greatest of the services which it has fallen to his lot to render in the last third of a century. This was his firm assertion of the unconstitutionality of the legal-tender acts. He concurred with Chief-Justice Chase in the opinion pronounced by the latter for the majority of the court in 1870, that the making of notes or bills of credit a legal tender in payment of pre-existing debts was inconsistent with the spirit of the Constitution, and was, in effect, prohibited by the Constitution; and that, therefore, the legal-tender acts, so far as they applied to debts contracted before their passage, were unconstitutional and unwarranted. When the court in 1871, having meanwhile been enlarged in numbers, reversed its position, he dissented in an opinion upon which he may well be content to commit his reputation to the judgment of posterity.

Justice Field showed that the policy of maintaining a fixed and uniform standard could not be carried out, and that a fixed and uniform metallic standard of value throughout the United States could not be maintained, so long as any other standard was adopted which of itself had no intrinsic value and was for ever fluctuating and uncertain. He admitted that the acts in question had been passed in a great emergency by patriotic men, who were convinced that this policy would increase the ability of the Government to obtain funds and supplies, and thus advance the national cause; but he declared that, sitting as a judicial officer, and bound to compare every law enacted by Congress with the greater law enacted by the people, and being unable to reconcile the measure in question with that fundamental law, he could not hesitate to pronounce it, in his judgment, unconstitutional and void. He added this admirable exposition of loyalty:

"In the discussions which have attended this subject of legal tender, there has been at times what seemed to me to be a covert intimation that opposition to the measure in question was the expression of a spirit not altogether favorable to the cause in the interest of which that measure was adopted.

All such intimations I repel with all the energy I can express. I do not yield to any one in honoring and reverencing the noble and patriotic men who were in the councils of the nation during the terrible struggle with the rebellion. To them belong the greatest of all glories of our history—that of having saved the Union, and that of having emancipated a race. For these results they will be remembered and honored so long as the English language is spoken or read among men. But I do not admit that a blind approval of every measure which they may have thought essential to put down the rebellion is any evidence of loyalty to the country. The only loyalty which I can admit consists in obedience to the Constitution and laws made in pursuance of it. It is only by obedience that affection and reverence can be shown to a superior having a right to command. So thought our great Master, when he said to his disciples: 'If ye love me, keep my commandments.'"

In his letter of farewell to his associates Justice Field recalls the circumstances of his appointment. There had up to that time been no representative of the Pacific Coast in the court. "A new empire had risen in the West, whose laws were those of another country. The land titles were from Spanish and Mexican grants, both of which were often overlaid by the claims of the first settlers. To bring order out of this confusion, Congress passed an act providing for another seat on this bench, with the intention that it should be filled by some one familiar with these conflicting titles and with the mining laws of the coast." As Judge Field had framed the principal of these laws, and was then the Chief Justice of California, the Senators and Representatives of that State, as well as of neighboring Oregon, recommended to Lincoln his selection. In other words, an able man was appointed to the highest tribunal on the ground of demonstrated fitness, and thus was given the opportunity for a great judicial career.

THE REHABILITATION OF THE TURK.

The Sultan has within a fortnight furnished a comic illustration of his contempt for the "Concert of the Powers" by proposing that the new Governor of Crete should be a Turkish subject appointed by himself, and that Turkish troops should assist those of the Powers in restoring order. This is his comment on the promise of autonomy and of the removal of the Turkish troops made over and over again to the Cretans. He has no more idea of conceding them autonomy and withdrawing from the control of their affairs than he had twenty years ago. He looks on his signing of the treaty about Greece as a concession on his part which entitles him to some return in concessions on their part about Crete. He has said as much in a letter. The Greek war and the negotiations which followed it are, in fact, the only really happy conclusion to a foreign complication which has befallen the Turks since they retired from Vienna in 1683. Every other war has ended either in the loss of territory, or in increased privileges for the Christians, or in some sort of humiliation, making the Turks more and more sensible of their dependence on, or subjection to, Christendom.

The reason has been that, when every other conflict was brought to a close, there has been some Power on the scene which refused to the Sultan any place in the family of Christian nations, or offered him, at best, only some sort of protection. At the close of the Greek war in 1827 England and Russia destroyed his fleet, and the French compelled him to get out of Greece. At the close of the Russian war in 1829 the Russians dictated peace to him in Adrianople. At the close of the Crimean war England and France saved him by making him promise more concessions to Christians and general good behavior. At the close of the war of 1877 he bought peace and his capital by surrendering Bosnia, Herzegovina, Cyprus, Servia, and Bulgaria, and agreeing to pay a large sum in damages. On none of these occasions did he escape the position of an humble protégé saved by some powerful friend from utter extinction. It was reserved for Lord Salisbury's ministry to admit the Turk freely to the European "Areopagus," to treat him as an equal, to respect his rights as a conqueror of Christian people, and to insist on their paying him a ransom for not ravaging them, as Solyman the Magnificent might have done. The Turk actually holds Christian territory and Christian people in pawn for a sum of money, with the full assent of Christendom. About his manner of governing these people or in what manner he makes them pay his taxes or assessments in the meantime, while they are in pawn, every other nation refuses to concern itself.

The result is that the present Sultan is now probably in a state of pride and exultation such as none of his predecessors have felt for 200 years. Every one of them, since 1683, has lived in a state of fear of Christendom, of consciousness that he was on his good behavior, and that any European Power with which he got into trouble might extinguish him if he did not get another to help him. He has, in fact, never made a treaty before with a Christian Power, inflicting on it the miseries of conquest such as ransom and Turkish rule, with the sanction, acquiescence, and assistance of other Christian Powers. The thing is unprecedented and unparalleled. Ever since 1453, when he took Constantinople, until now, Christendom has agreed to treat the Turk at first as an infidel to be crusaded against, and then as a barbarian robber, to be watched and guarded against. For two centuries young men from the West went forth to fight the Turks as the grandest duty they owed to their own religion and civilization. For one century, at least, civilized men in the West have quieted their consciences for allowing the Turk to exist in Europe as a political organization, by pretending to shrink from the convulsion that would result from the partition of his territory. Never until now has he been treated as a member of the family of nations, with a right to exist, with pride to be considered, with the privileges and immunities of international law to be inherited.

Yet to this new departure, to the full admission of a ferocious Mussulman barbarian, red-handed from Christian slaughter, to the circle of Christian civilization, the British Premier has freely consented, and five Christian Powers are chuckling over the exploit. The terrible Lord Salisbury, whose advent to office Mr. Curzon naïvely said was hailed with delight in all the British embassies, and who was to give the poor Irish "twenty years of resolute government," is the man who has done it. There remains but one thing to lay this whole transaction bare before the civilized conscience, and that is for the Sultan to refuse to leave either Thessaly or Crete. Who will compel him? Not the desperate Lord Salisbury, not Italy, not Germany, not Russia, not France, for France has vacated her old place as the champion of oppressed nations. He will, or all precedents fail, stay in Thessaly and in Crete until Christian guns are pointed at him and Christian fleets blockade his ports.

When one looks at this transaction in connection with "the forward policy" in India, the disappearance of Mr. Gladstone from the political arena assumes the proportions of an immense public calamity. Whatever his faults, he would have been incapable of the ignoble rôle played by Lord Salisbury. Help for the clergy and the landlords, and vigorous operations against the uneasy tribesmen in the Indian hills, and endless concession to the Turk, seem now to be the whole Tory programme. Gladstone could not have wished a better illustration of what he was to England than what is now going on in Europe and India. They are the gorgeous colors in the sunset of his life. Every one who sees the Turk in Thessaly will sigh in thinking that the old man's "bugle-horn" is for ever silent.

THE PRINCIPAL LIBRARIAN OF THE BRITISH MUSEUM.

LONDON, October 7, 1897.

At the international conference of librarians held in London, in July last, some one observed that "there were Libraries and Libraries." In like manner, it may be said, there are Librarians and Librarians. To go a step further, one might interject that a Librarian may not be a Librarian at all. Such, in fact, is the case of the distinguished official who is charged with the care of that great storehouse of knowledge and art called the British Museum. The name of Prin-

cipal Librarian is, in his case, altogether a misnomer. Director-in-Chief would be a fitter title for a functionary who is responsible for property worth millions sterling, who directs the labors of a staff of experts and highly educated officials, and accounts for the spending of large sums of money. The name of Principal Librarian was given to the office by the Act of Incorporation of 1753, when the institution was only a Library, and the conservative spirit of the British nation is content to let the title continue. But the Principal Librarian is also the secretary to the Trustees, who are the governing body of the British Museum, and in whom is vested the freehold of the premises. At one time the office of secretary was held by an independent officer; but the arrangement did not work, and the two officers were joined together in one official.

In discharging his several functions, the Principal Librarian acts directly under the orders of the Trustees, with whom he is brought into frequent contact at the various meetings of the standing committee, of the sub-committees, and at the annual meeting of the whole body. The Trustees do not appoint the Principal Librarian, but, when the office becomes vacant, they submit two names to the sovereign, who, advised by the Secretary of State for the Home Department, selects one of the persons named and appoints that person by a royal warrant. So identified is the Principal Librarian with the functions of the Trustees that something should be said of that distinguished body. In round numbers there are about fifty Trustees. Of these the larger number consist of the Official Trustees, of whom most are great officers of state, and the remainder are the Presidents of the Royal Society, the Royal College of Physicians, the Society of Antiquaries, and the Royal Academy. The topmost of all are the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Lord High Chancellor, and the Speaker of the House of Commons. By these three Trustees the patronage of filling up offices is exercised, guided to a certain extent by the advice of the Principal Librarian. After the Official Trustees comes the Trustee appointed by the Queen, now the Bishop of Winchester. Then there are the Family Trustees, who represent the families of Sloane, Cotton, Harley, Towneley, the Earls of Elgin (of Elgin Marbles fame) and Knight. Last of all are the Elected Trustees. It is a high distinction to be an Elected Trustee, and the names of these elected members include such well-known persons as the Duke of Argyll, Lord Acton, Sir John Lubbock, the Earl of Rosebery, Sir George Trevelyan, the Earl of Crawford, Sir John Evans (President of the British Association), Mr. John Morley, and Sir William Vernon-Harcourt.

As so large a body would be likely to be unwieldy in its movements, the Trustees, year by year, elect a standing committee of nineteen members of the Trust, for the dispatch of business. This committee meets ten times during the year, and the business for its consideration is so methodically brought before it by the Secretary that an hour is found to be sufficient time for its sitting. Mr. John Morley and Mr. Cavendish Bentinck are among the most frequent attendants, and the Prince of Wales is present at six out of the ten meetings. The senior Trustee present at the time of meeting takes the chair; but the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Lord Chancellor, and the Speaker of the House of Commons, in their order, if present, preside before all others. The Prince of Wales escapes taking the chair by uniformly coming a few minutes late. The standing committee has, for prompt action, resolved itself into sub-committees for buildings, finance, printed books and manuscripts, antiquities, prints and drawings, and for coins and medals.

In the exercise of their authority, the Trustees have, for the guidance of their chief officer, defined his responsibilities. The duties of the principal librarian are laid down, generally, in the "Statutes and Rules for the British Museum," as approved by the Trustees on the 8th of May, 1886. Therein the Principal Librarian is made responsible for the safety of the Museum and of its contents; for the superintendence of the several departments into which the institution is divided, and of their respective officers; and for advising the Trustees upon the reports of officers of the establishment. He is required to grant admission to the Museum to persons of eminence, either for learning or rank, "especially foreigners, desiring to inspect the collections, but not able conveniently to avail themselves of the usual mode of admission." He is to take care that the institution be kept open during the appointed hours, and that proper order be observed by all persons. He is to grant admission to the reading-room, the print-room, and the sculpture galleries, and to afford readers and students all proper facilities. He is responsible for giving effect to the orders of the Trustees, and for the editing and publishing of the guides to the collections. Lastly, the Principal Librarian is required to be in attendance when the Museum shall be visited by the sovereign, or by any members of the royal family, or by royal personages of other countries. The dignified presence and courtly manners of the present Principal, in addition to his other qualifications, render him a very fit person to welcome royalties to the great temple of learning.

The *Statutes and Rules* above mentioned define the duties of the Secretary of the Trustees after the following manner: He is to issue summonses for, and to attend all meetings of, the Trustees held at the Museum, and to take minutes of their proceedings. He is to take charge of all records and other documents connected with the business of the Trust. He is to submit all accounts due from the Trustees and payable from the Parliamentary grant, for approval at each meeting of the standing committee, and to take care that orders for payment are duly made upon the Paymaster-General. He is to conduct the correspondence of the Trustees. Payments on account of the Museum from the Funds account at the Bank of England are to be made by him. To do so, he is authorized to sign checks for payments from the Funds account. Of these payments he is required to keep an exact statement, and to lay it before the standing committee at the close of each financial year. He is required to give security for the due discharge of his office to the amount of £10,000—in his own bond for £5,000, and two sureties in a joint and several bond for £5,000. He is to examine all accounts against the Museum, and to certify to their correctness, and to keep a weekly account of all work done for the Trust, paid otherwise than by fixed salaries, and to certify that it has been authorized and that the charges are accurate. He is to account for the various transactions with books published by the Trustees; is to examine and check the printers' and booksellers' accounts, and receive moneys due from booksellers and others; and he is to keep an account of the stationery received and expended, and make all applications to the Stationery Office.

In the exercise of his functions and responsibilities, as thus defined, the Principal Librarian controls the several Departments into which the institution is divided. All the reports of the keepers pass through him to the Trustees. He accounts for the spending of the sum of £163,000, which is voted annually by Parliament, under the head *British Museum*. This amount includes the sum voted for the National History Museum at South Kensington, the accounting for which is his only connection with that otherwise distinct institution, but which, like the Museum, is also subject to the Trustees. The Principal Librarian advises the Trustees as to purchases for the Museum of works of art, books, manuscripts, and otherwise. He conducts a large correspondence; not merely signing his name to thousands of documents, but writing scores of letters with his own hand; among the latter being beautifully worded letters of thanks for donations to the institution. He supervises all admissions of readers and art-students; fights disagreeable persons; soothes ruffled people's feelings; and redresses all reasonable complaints of the public. The "fighting of disagreeable persons" takes various forms, the most severe of which is in the form of lawsuits. An instance in point is that of the lawyer to whom a reader's ticket was refused, and who took proceedings in court after court to try and compel the Museum authorities to issue a ticket to him. But the judges held that it was within the discretion of the authorities to withhold a ticket when they thought fit; and the result of the long-drawn-out litigation was the passing of an Act of Parliament to prevent vexatious actions being brought against the Principal Librarian.

As regards his own staff, he has to maintain due discipline; to regulate the purchase of acquisitions; criticise the arrangement of the collections; keep an eye upon the catalogues of the various departments; push on the labelling, and enthuse the keepers, if such a need were to be possible. To drive a team of about 350 persons, and to manage about half a million of visitors, year by year, requires business aptitudes which the Principal Librarian must possess. In all circumstances, that official must have the command of his own temper. At times, in the interests of the public, he has to attempt to soften the heart of the Treasury and to wheedle the Chancellor of the Exchequer. Then there is the writing of guide-books; the working of the sales of the publications of the Museum, which brought in last year £1,800; and the settling of donations to libraries and other institutions. As the custodian of a vast pile of buildings, the Principal Librarian has, moreover, to attend to the cleaning, lighting, warming, and general up-keep of the fabric. He must, perforce, imagine himself more or less of an expert in drainage, electricity, fire apparatus, hydraulics, and hydrants. Added to the foregoing, and to other duties "too numerous to be specified," the Principal Librarian has to discharge the ordinary duties of a house-agent, in letting the surrounding property acquired by the nation for the prospective enlargement of the Museum. In this capa-

city the Principal Librarian collects rents amounting, yearly, to the respectable sum of £4,200.

Of course, in the discharge of his multifarious duties, the Principal Librarian is assisted by a staff of very able men, some of them individually of high distinction in their several branches of knowledge. Only men who have taken honors at a university are now allowed to be even enrolled as candidates for employment on the staff of the Museum; and a knowledge of the Greek, Latin, French, and German languages is obligatory. Ask one of the juniors how many languages he is acquainted with. If he tells you half-a-dozen, and you compliment him on his acquirements, he modestly deprecates your thinking much of his attainments while some of his colleagues so far excel him, as he points out. The Principal Librarian's immediate staff consists of the Assistant Secretary, the accountant, three first-class assistants, one second-class assistant, three second-division clerks, two boy copyists, and an attendant. Then comes that great division of the institution, so dear to bookmen, the Department of Printed Books, Maps, Charts, and Plans. Of this branch Dr. Richard Garnett, C.B., himself a walking cyclopædia, is the distinguished head. Under him are three assistant keepers, of whom the senior is Mr. George Fortescue, a most popular official. With them cooperate fourteen assistants of the first class and twenty of the second class. These gentlemen are all scholars of exceptional attainments. The linguistic acquirements of some of them are, to the ordinary student, simply amazing. Mr. Bain, for example, is said to be master of about thirty languages, mostly Slavic. But even he does not come up to a former member of the staff, Mr. Martineau, who is said to have been silent in almost all the languages of the civilized world. Mr. Coote, who has charge of the maps, is a master of cartography. About one hundred attendants of different grades serve with this department, with which are associated the Reading-Room and the Newspaper-Room.

Of the important Department of Manuscripts Mr. Scott is the keeper, having Mr. Warner as assistant keeper. With them are nine assistants, among whom are Mr. de Grey Birch, Mr. Bickley, and Mr. Kenyon. Mr. Bickley presides over the Literary Search Room, where his helpfulness to students is highly appreciated. Mr. Kenyon leaped into fame by his identification of the Aristotle manuscript. Fourteen attendants serve with this branch. The Department of Oriental Printed Books and Manuscripts has Mr. Robert Kennaway Douglas as its keeper, and he has four assistants under him. Five attendants are here. Mr. Sidney Colvin is the well-known keeper of the Department of Prints and Drawings, and he has eleven assistants and two attendants. Of the Department of Egyptian and Assyrian Antiquities, Dr. Budge is the keeper. He has three assistants and six attendants. Mr. Stuart Murray is keeper of the Department of Greek and Roman Antiquities. He has an assistant keeper and three assistants with him, and eight attendants. Mr. Charles Hercules Read is keeper of the Department of British and Mediæval Antiquities and Ethnography. His staff consists of three assistants and seven attendants. Lastly, the Department of Coins and Medals has Mr. Barclay Vincent Head as its keeper and Mr. Grueber as assistant keeper. With them are three assistants and two attendants.

The foregoing make up the establishment proper. Besides these are a large number of employees, ranking under the general heading of "House Attendants, Servants, etc." Among these are twenty commissionaires, seven gate-keepers and watchmen, thirty-two laborers and window-cleaners. Twenty-six policemen are stationed on the premises, under an inspector and two sergeants. There is a staff for warming and ventilating the building, another staff for electric lighting, and a staff of masons. In all there are between 350 and 360 persons subject to the control of the Principal Librarian, and for whose correct discharge of their duties he is directly responsible.

The office of Principal Librarian is not only held, but filled, by Sir Edward Maunde Thompson, K.C.B. A Rugby boy and an Oxford man, and a barrister-at-law of the Middle Temple to boot, Sir Edward administers his great department of the state with high efficiency. Appointed at a comparatively early age, he is still in the prime of a vigorous manhood, intellectual and physical. A scholar, distinguished by his successes in palæography, he is also a thorough man of business. Having worked his way up from the starting-point of an assistant, he has risen, grade by grade, to the headship of the Museum, and most fittingly does that honorable office become hm. As a chief who will not allow undue laxity of any sort, he is regarded by some as unduly strict, but, as a most constant visitor to the Reading Room of the Museum observed, though he and others had wished that another of the staff had been appointed to succeed Mr. Bond, the previous Principal, they could not but agree that Sir Edward was a very fit person for the appointment. "Write to him in a businesslike way when you feel aggrieved, and he will always give you satisfaction. He is a real man of business," said the person referred to.

That vigorous man, Sir Antonio Panizzi, left his name "writ large" upon the Museum. The Reading-Room of itself is a monument to the genius of that illustrious Italian exile. When Panizzi retired on his well-earned pension, he was succeeded by Mr. Winter Jones. The latter, it is thought by some, had hardly a fair chance of distinguishing himself. He was still overshadowed by the powerful personality of Panizzi, who, living hard by in Bloomsbury Square, still exercised his influence with the Trustees. Mr. Gladstone himself is said to have at times walked round to Bloomsbury Square, after a meeting of the Trustees, to have a chat with Panizzi. To Mr. Winter Jones succeeded Mr. Bond, a man spoken of to this day with affectionate regard, on account of his charming personality. He left his mark upon the institution by extending the hours for use of the Reading-Room and by starting the printing of the catalogue of books. Before his time the Reading-Room was closed at four P. M. in winter and at six P. M. in summer. Mr. Bond extended the hours to eight P. M. both summer and winter. He was enabled to make this change through the introduction of the electric light, to the inventors of which, as well as to Mr. Bond, students owe gratitude for lengthening the hours for research.

To Mr. Bond succeeded Sir Edward Thompson, for whom his predecessors had left little scope for adding to the advantages which the nation derives from its splendid institution. Sir Edward maintains these advantages, and, where practicable, adds to them. During his administration the Museum has been opened to the public on Sundays. By the exercise of tact and address, with which he is abundantly provided, Sir Edward has managed to get the three principal Trustees to forego, in the interest of the institution, a bit of their patronage. The attendants form a considerable number of the staff. It was usual, heretofore, for these subordinate officers to be recruited from the ranks of the butlers and other dependents of the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Lord Chancellor, and the Speaker of the House of Commons, and of their friends and relations. But by good management on the part of Sir Edward those great officers of state have allowed the Principal Librarian to employ a number of lads on probation. After these youths have served some years, and have proved their fitness, they are appointed to vacancies arising in the ranks of the attendants. It must be said for the attendants of the old régime, however, that, taken as a body, a more obliging and polite body of men could not be found.

Sir Edward has taken, also, an active part in advising the Trustees to acquire such valuable additions as the Malcom collection of prints and the Nelson papers. But his tenure of office is likely to be especially identified with his skilful management of the purchase of a considerable area adjoining the Museum premises. The buildings at present occupied by the Museum cover an area of seven and a half acres of land. Sir Edward learned that, in a few years, the leases would fall in of the land covering five and a half acres, which completes the block of houses in that part of London on which the Museum stands. He brought the matter before the Trustees, and urged the acquisition by the nation of the land and buildings in question. Negotiations followed with the Government and with the late Duke of Bedford, who, according to his cousin, Mr. George Russell, had a sort of idea that he should have been in the poor-house but for his "owning some lodging-houses in Bloomsbury." The Duke was willing to sell, but he died before completing the sale. The present Duke also fell into the arrangement, and, for £200,000, the five and a half acres, with the buildings thereon, became the property of the nation. The Museum has now a reserve of space for expansion. When fully extended, the institution will occupy thirteen acres of land in the centre of London. Meanwhile, the recently purchased premises are let out, on short leases, for seven, fourteen, and twenty-one years, and will be taken over gradually, as the needs of the Museum require. From the premises so acquired the nation is at present drawing an annual rental of £4,200.

It cannot but be interesting to Americans to know that the gentleman who adorns the eminent office of Principal Librarian of the British Museum is a native of the New World. Sir Edward Maunde Thompson was born in Jamaica.

PETER THE GREAT.—II.

PARIS, October 4, 1897.

We left Peter the Great on his way from England to Vienna. The Emperor Leopold was determined to respect the incognito of "Peter Mikhailof." Peter wished to ob-

tain the alliance of Austria against the Turks, but Austria, at that moment, was for peace at any price. The diplomatic object of the visit was not attained. Very grave news reached Peter from Russia; once more the Strelitzi had revolted. Peter, who was on the point of going to Venice, left at once for Cracow; there he learned that the rebellion had come to an end. He stopped for four days at Rawa, with King August II.

This interview has an historical importance. August and Peter were drawn towards each other by their personal tastes; August, tall, handsome, a hard drinker, a great sportsman, pleased Peter. "After four days spent in banqueting without interruption, they divided between themselves the spoils of Sweden and exchanged arms and uniforms." There was no positive plan of alliance or of war fixed—the two friends had too much to do at home first; but they prepared the alliance which was afterwards formed against Charles XII. King Augustus had to pacify Poland, and Peter had to establish a new régime in his empire. On his return from his first journey to Europe, the young Tsar showed himself to his subjects in the Polish costume, a costume of the Occident. A few days afterwards, at a banquet given by Gen. Sheïn, he took a pair of scissors and amused himself by cutting the beards of the guests. It was not a mere pleasantry; a few days later a ukase ordered the cutting of beards.

Peter had determined in his mind, on seeing Occidental troops, to suppress the Strelitzi. These were the ancient Muscovite army, already superseded by the new militia, which had taken Azov. "From his childhood Peter had always found the Strelitzi in his way: they had massacred his parents, his friends; they had protected against him the power of a usurper; now they had, when parleying with Sheïn before the mutiny which he had quelled, violently assailed Lefort and the other foreigners about him. He had had enough of it, and determined to extirpate the germ of perpetual revolts. . . . He was not content with the knout, or even with a few hangings. The thing must be done on a grand scale, after his own measure." An inquisition was instituted, and fourteen chambers of torture set to work in the village of Preobrazhenskoi. The details are too horrible to be told. The examination bore chiefly on the part taken by the Tsarevna and her sisters in fomenting the mutiny. Nothing was proved. The want of real evidence only exasperated the young Tsar; he had been a witness of the interrogatories and of the tortures. On the 30th of September he sent two hundred men to the field of execution.

"Five were beheaded on the way, before the house of the Tsar, at Preobrazhenskoi, Peter playing himself the part of executioner. The fact is attested by a number of witnesses, adopted by the opinion of contemporaries, and admitted by most historians. . . . And Peter was not satisfied to use the axe himself; he insisted that his suite should do the same. Galitzin was awkward and hurt his victims terribly; Menshikoff and Romodanovski were more adroit. Only the foreigners, Lefort and Blomberg, Colonel of the Preobrazhenskoi Regiment, refused to assist in the detestable work. On the Red Square of Moscow, where the condemned were taken two by two on sledges, with lighted tapers in their hands, they were laid down in lines of fifty along a tree-trunk which served for a block. On the 11th of October there were 144 fresh executions; 205 on the 12th; 141 on the 13th; 109 on the 17th; 65 on the 18th; 106 on the 19th. Two hundred Strelitzi were hanged before the windows of Sophia. . . . She herself was shut up in a convent."

The Strelitzi militia was condemned. The work of extermination continued. The legend of the Red Square, with its bloody memories, blends with older legends, for the Red Square is a holy place; it is situated at one of the entrances to the Kremlin. "The first relics and images brought to Moscow were deposited there, and there, in solemn circumstances, were still celebrated the ceremonies of the Russian Church; there the Patriarch gave his benediction to the faithful; there were read the most important ukases."

It is very difficult to follow Peter the Great in M. Waliszewski's book. The account which I have just given of the massacre of the Strelitzi appears only in the second part of the volume, after many events which are posterior. The author has unfortunately adopted what is called the analytic method, instead of keeping the chronological order which, in history, seems the only acceptable one. His systematic classification deprives his conscientious work of dramatic interest. All his various topics would have been blended, by a more skilful hand, in the biography of Peter the Great. We should then have better witnessed the development of Peter's work, of his ideas, of his plans, of his ambitions. It is much to be hoped that the analytic method introduced in literature by Taine, and which has its merits in a purely critical work, should not be applied to history. We wish our heroes to be alive, and we don't like to see them cut, so to speak, in pieces.

The chapter on the Tsarevitch Alexis contains much new matter, or at least matter which is new to our Western literature. The great Frederick said of Peter that he worked upon his people as the acid works on iron; it may be said that he worked in the same way on his family. The Tsarevitch Alexis was chosen by the Old Russians, the enemies of the new Western civilization, as a representative and an instrument. The Old Muscovites could not bring themselves to consider Peter as a true Russian, born of a Russian father and of a Russian mother; they thought he was a supposititious child, a German. Some believed him to be the Antichrist. The popes were the leaders of a secret and permanent opposition. "Our fathers and brothers," said one, "are beardless; our altars are abandoned; our most sacred laws are violated; we live under the tyranny of foreigners." The Tsarevitch Alexis had in him something of the spirit of the Old Russians. He was born on the 10th of February, 1690. His father married him in 1711 to Charlotte of Wolfenbüttel. Almost unconsciously, from his ardent orthodoxy, hostile to all new ideas, he became the chief of a party of opposition. He refused to serve in the army; he would not tolerate any tutors or learn anything; he would not make a campaign, and his father finally threatened to put him in a convent. Alexis took flight; he went to Vienna, to Naples, with a page, who was a Finnish woman, his mistress, a coarse and vulgar peasant girl, who had acquired almost absolute power over him.

After a long negotiation between the Emperor and the Tsar, Alexis was delivered over to his father. On the 31st of January, 1718, Peter saw his son again in Moscow. Alexis had to appear in the Kremlin, without his sword, before an assembly of high dignitaries, presided over by his father. He fell on his knees, wept, implored pardon; he had to renounce all his rights to the throne and to recognize as his heir his younger brother, Peter; he gave the names of all his accomplices. It was not enough; the revelations made by his mistress, who was arrested, were made the pretext for a new trial. This time Alexis was accused of high treason and was tortured; he died before the end of the trial. How did he die? According to the official version, he had a stroke of apoplexy. M. Waliszewski believes in a violent death, and attributes the death of the unfortunate Prince to successive applications of the knout for several days.

"Peter," he says, "killed his own son. There is no possible justification for it. I will not accept the argument of political necessity invoked by the defence. A single fact is the answer to this argument: Peter would not have this son for his heir, but to whom did he leave his heritage? To the unknown. Catherine picked up the crown in a court intrigue. For half a century Russia was given up to adventurers and to chance. This was the result for which the great man put his torturers to work. But he was a great man, and made Russia great; herein is his only excuse."

Correspondence.

THE SLAUGHTER OF THE SEALS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an editorial in your issue of September 30 occurs the following statement:

"No later than last year, when our Government was reproaching the British for pelagic sealing, with its danger of exterminating the herds, we allowed the killing of 30,000 seals on the islands, which cannot but be regarded, experts say, as an 'exhaustive slaughter.' "

This remark is very misleading. The killing on the islands is and always has been limited strictly to the superfluous young males. No females are allowed to be killed for any purpose. The polygamous habit of the fur seal renders twenty-nine thirtieths of the males superfluous. The partial suspension of this killing of males during the modus-vivendi of 1892-'93 has overstocked the islands with idle adult bulls, who, in their efforts to gain harems, kill females and trample pups to death. The killing of males as practised by the Government has only a beneficial effect on the herd.

The complaint against pelagic sealing is based upon the fact that it involves the slaughter of females as well as males. Seventy-five to eighty per cent. of the pelagic catch consists of females. These when taken in the spring off the Northwest Coast are heavy with pup; when taken in Bering Sea they are both pregnant and nursing. Not only, therefore, are the adult-breeding females killed, but their unborn and dependent offspring die with them. It is this wasteful and destructive method of slaughter which is exterminating the herd, and the contention of the United States, directed as it is against such slaughter, is wholly justified by the facts.—Very truly yours,

George A. Clark,
Secretary of Fur Seal Commission.

Palo Alto, Cal., Oct. 7, 1897.

WEBSTER ON ANNEXATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In looking forward to the question of annexation, soon to be met and answered

in the upper branch of Congress, it may not be without interest to look back to the counsel on the same subject given sixty years ago by one of the master minds of the Senate.

In a speech delivered at Niblo's Saloon in New York on March 15, 1837, Daniel Webster adverted to one of "the principal subjects of interest" of that time, namely, "the delicate question" whether or not Texas should be annexed. The analogy between the situation of that young nation, as described by him, and the newly made government of Hawaii, is close and striking. Our government had recognized the "independence of the Province" of Texas; "a very few people in a very short time" had "established a government for themselves against the authority of the parent State," which government there was "little probability . . . of the parent State being able to overturn"; the government was, "in form, a copy of our own"; its constitution was "substantially after the great American model."

Such being the likeness between the two cases, let us note Mr. Webster's advice: "I see objections, I think insurmountable objections, to the annexation of Texas to the United States. When the Constitution was formed, it is not probable that either its framers or the people ever looked to the admission of any States into the Union except such as then already existed, and such as should be formed out of Territories then already belonging to the United States." The orator then goes on to distinguish the annexation of Texas from that of Louisiana and Florida, and shows how, in the case of Louisiana, the protection and preservation of commerce on the Mississippi necessitated the control of its outlet to the sea, and how "a similar policy . . . led to the acquisition of Florida." But "the object" of acquiring the latter two States "certainly was not mere extension of territory. Other great political interests were connected with it." "Now," says Mr. Webster, "no such necessity, no such policy, requires the annexation of Texas. The accession of Texas to our territory is not necessary to the full and complete enjoyment of all which we already possess . . . We ought, I think, for numerous and powerful reasons, to be content with our present boundaries." After stating at length the specific objection of the prospective extension of slavery, Mr. Webster concludes: "I see, therefore, no political necessity for the annexation of Texas to the Union; no advantages to be derived from it; and objections to it of a strong and, in my judgment, decisive character."

If this was the attitude of this statesman's mind towards the acquisition of contiguous territory, then, in order to picture the extent of his contemptuous and overwhelming denunciation of the present proposition, there is needed nothing less than the imagination of annexationist Foster, which is capable of conceiving of the benefits to result from annexing an assortment of 100,000 Japanese, Chinese, Portuguese, and native and half-breed Hawaiians, and attempting to govern them and to keep the hands of other nations off of them at a distance of 2,000 miles from our Pacific Coast and 5,000 miles from our seat of government. S. R. T.

Lake Forest, Ill., October 9, 1897.

THE RUSSIAN CENSORSHIP.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: M. A. Leroy-Beaulieu, in the preface to the English edition of his great work on Russia, says that the book is prohibited in the country he describes. This preface is published also in the volume of 'Études Russes et Européennes' printed in May, 1897. The following facts may be of interest to your readers: Visitors to the recent International Medical Congress in Moscow were given copies of the second edition (1897) of a 'Guide du Voyageur à Moscou, par A. et F. Tastevin,' published in Moscow and bearing the usual note of permission by the "censure" dated July 26, 1897. In this the reader is advised to consult, among others, the work which M. Leroy-Beaulieu says is interdicted. It may be thought that the reference is intended for those living outside of Russia, but the writer met several Russians who knew the book and denied the prohibition. There are several copies of the work in the Imperial Library in St. Petersburg, and the librarian assured me that he knew of no prohibition of the reading of 'L'Empire des Tsars et les Russes.'—Yours truly, G. Dock.

Ann Arbor, Mich., October 12, 1897.

Notes.

Macmillan Co. announce 'Select Documents Illustrative of the History of the United States, 1776-1861,' edited, with notes, by William MacDonald, Professor of History and Political Economy at Bowdoin College. The documents number ninety in all, given in full or in significant extracts, and attended by a select bibliography. They have also in a forward state 'Essays on the Civil War and Reconstruction, and Kindred Topics,' by William A. Dunning, Professor of History at Columbia University, and 'Yankee Ships and Sailors: Tales of 1812,' by James Barnes, with illustrations.

Henry Holt & Co. will bring out at once 'The Evolution of the Idea of God: An Inquiry into the Origins of Religion.'

T. Y. Crowell & Co. will add to their "What is Worth While Series" an address by Mrs. Alice Freeman Palmer, entitled 'Why Go to College?'

'The Lovers' Shakspere,' a compilation by Chloe Blakeman Jones, and 'A Group of French Critics,' by Mary Fisher, are to be issued by A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

The first of the calendar books, intimating a new year, to reach us, possess a marked originality, but appeal to quite different tastes. Mr. Francis H. Allen's 'Nature's Diary' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is a dainty volume of which the chief aim is to note the approximate dates of the coming of birds and flowers (about Boston, according to the compiler's observation, but doubtless for a larger area). But this is accompanied by pertinent extracts from Thoreau, Burroughs, and other apostles of outdoor study, and by some charming half-tones of landscape, flora, and wild fauna. The design has been extremely well executed, and the blanks under each date allow the owner of the book to enter the natural appearances for himself.

Very different is Mr. John Osborne Austin's 'Roger Williams Calendar' (Providence, R. I.: The Author), dedicated "to all who grant 'permission of differing consciences.'" It carries a brief extract from Williams's writings for every day in the year, and is ingeniously contrived in the fore and after portions to give an outline of the apostle's life on both sides of the water. The burden of the middle portion is soul liberty. Incidentally it is made clear wherein Williams differed from the Quakers as to the domain of civil authority. Much of this matter is pithy, and one thinks of Franklin when he reads (November 18), "I fear the event of the justest war." Under April 11 we meet with the proverbial quotation "that God could have made, but God never did make, a better berry [than the strawberry]." The use of nautical imagery and illustration is noticeable, and is hardly revealed in Mr. Austin's analytic index of topics. The host of Roger Williams's posterity (among whom the compiler himself may, perhaps, be reckoned) will find here a pious memorial.

It is but a few months since we reviewed at some length Messrs. Blashfield and Hopkins's four-volume edition of Vasari's 'Lives of the Painters.' The publishers, Messrs. Scribner, have now issued a welcome popular edition from the same plates, but omitting the photogravures. This omission need not be too greatly regretted, as the originals were, if only from their scale, of uneven excellence, according to the subject, and the purchaser of this cheaper set can enjoy the pleasure of acquiring examples to suit his taste. It is, as we said last March, with all its shortcomings, the best English edition in existence.

Mr. G. Barnett Smith's account of American colonization ('The Romance of Colonization: The United States,' Dodd, Mead & Co.), is neither a remarkably learned nor a remarkably accurate piece of work. At the same time it chronicles the chief voyages and discoveries with clearness, adding thereto the sweet sauce of rhetoric. Copious quotation is a prominent feature of the book, and is, indeed, carried so far that Mr. Smith appears in the guise of an editor almost more than in that of an author.

Prof. Stephenson's 'Syllabus of Lectures on European History' (The Inland Publishing Co.) is a better performance than, after a perusal of the preface, one would expect it to be. "Dreaming of brown eyes that flashed with subtle, changeful meaning" verges much too closely on the poetical for the context in which it occurs, and when one turns the page the following sentence gives rise to some apprehension: "No one should ever attempt the serious study of history without some great Historical Atlas like Sprooner's [*sic*] at his elbow." Numerous orthographical antics also appear in the body of the text. However, if one does not lay undue stress on minor slips, he will find a good deal to commend. The headings show care in analysis, and the bibliographical hints ought to help many students whose knowledge of history is still in the undergraduate stage.

Birmingham is fortunate in possessing in the dean of the medical faculty of Mason College a public-spirited scholar of wide intellectual interests. Dr. Windle has recently been giving a course of public lectures on 'Life in Early Britain,' out of which he has made a little book that will serve as an excellent popular introduction to pre-Norman archæology (Putnams). There is nothing original in it: the author relies on a few leading authorities, like Sir John Evans, Prof. Boyd Dawkins, and Dr. Beddoes for the pre-historic portion, Prof. Rhys for the Celts, Wright and Gomme for Roman antiquities, Seebohm for the Anglo-Saxons; and he quotes freely from them, often two or three pages at a

time. But it will be convenient to a good many people to have things thus brought together. Mr. Windle writes in an interesting way and with an enthusiasm that ought to be contagious; and the book contains a large number of really useful illustrations.

A task for which intelligent women possessed of leisure are especially qualified has been performed by Mrs. Susan Whitney Dimock in 'Births, Marriages, Baptisms and Deaths from the Records of the Town and Churches in Coventry, Conn., 1711-1844' (New York: The Baker & Taylor Co.). Though printed for private distribution among societies and libraries, it will doubtless attract not a few would-be purchasers in this period of ancestral piety in research. Coventry was the birthplace of Nathan Hale, but the family name does not figure very largely in these records. Mrs. Dimock has achieved her laudable main object, "that they may be preserved from the further ravages of time." The book is handsomely printed, and the several divisions are summed up in an index.

The third edition of Prof. Albert H. Chester's 'Catalogue of Minerals, with their Chemical Composition and Synonyms' has just been issued by John Wiley & Sons. The catalogue is alphabetical, and includes all the names of species and varieties which had been determined up to the date of publication.

The growth of Berlin, no less remarkable than that of any American city, is amply described in two volumes entitled 'Berlin und seine Eisenbahnen 1846 bis 1896,' issued by order of the Minister of Public Works. The city was founded in 1225. Four centuries later it had only 6,000 inhabitants. In 1712 it had 61,000; in 1804 it had 180,000; in 1845, 322,626. In 1861 the half-million mark was reached, and in 1877 the million mark, while in 1889 the number was 1,528,712. Immigration had much to do with this rapid increase; in 1885 only 42 per cent. of the population were born Berliners. Within the last few years the increase in the city proper has perceptibly declined, owing to the tendency of the inhabitants to make use of bettered transportation facilities for living in suburbs, most of which are not yet incorporated as parts of the capital. Thus, while the city has gained only 98,341 souls during the last five years (as against 263,507 during the preceding five years), the suburbs gained 166,081 as against 104,961 in the preceding quinquennium. Notwithstanding this centrifugal tendency, the population still is more crowded than in any other large German city, the number of persons to a hectare being 745, while in Breslau it is 443, Dresden 318, Cologne 305, Munich 248, etc. Yet there has been an improvement, for between 1840 and 1893 the number of inhabitants was quintupled, and that of buildings (larger buildings, too) septupled. Property is worth twelve times what it was in 1840. State and municipal taxes have nearly doubled since 1872.

The Old South Historical Society of Boston has for its latest sheaf of "Old South Leaflets" such as were edited to illustrate the current course of summer lectures on the anti-slavery struggle. They range from a skilful exemplification of the contents of the first number of the *Liberator* to the first Lincoln and Douglas debate, taking in Theodore Parker, Whittier, Mrs. Stowe, Sumner, and John Brown by the way. The season now opening will embrace monthly lectures on the Legacy of Slavery, but without inclusion of the evils that have flowed from the civil war in the effect of power on the dominant party, the increase of the public debt, the barter of patriotism, the currency manias, etc., etc. A bibliography for the purposes of study is already being circulated with the programme.

We learn from the *Periodical* (which is always an attractive piece of printing) that the Long Vacation in the English universities had its origin in the occasional removal (commencing in the fifteenth century) of the entire collegiate body to some other place during the summer time on account of the prevalence of the plague and the insanitary condition of the town. In 1555 leave of absence for a month was given in August to the majority of Fellows of Magdalen College on account, not of the pestilence, but of the scarcity of corn in Oxford, and in 1584 it was one of the complaints against President Humphrey for misgovernment that lectures in the vacation were read only *pro forma* and without general knowledge of those in college. At length leave of absence came to be granted "ex more," but until within the last twelve or fifteen years the form of asking for it (and paying a small fine for it) still lingered.

The British Navy League have arranged with the proprietors of the London *Times* for 50,000 copies of a reproduction, in facsimile, of the issue of the *Times* in 1805 that contained the details of the battle of Trafalgar. These copies are to be put into circulation on Trafalgar Day, the 21st of October, when the Nelson column, in Trafalgar Square, will again be decorated. Mr. Wilson, editor of the *Journal* of the Navy League, and Admiral Lord Charles Beresford are writing, in coöperation, a popular Life of Nelson.

La Diplomatie (Paris, 50 Boulevard Haussmann), in its tenth number, appears quite settled in its grooves. Its correspondence continues large, and it is well abreast of the time in its portraits and sketches of men of the day. In the present number we may mention those of the King and Queen of Siam; of the Prince Napoleon who figured in the late Russian army manœuvres for President Faure; of M. Alfred Rambaud, Minister of Public Instruction; and of M. Joseph Antoine Bouvard, director of the construction of the Exposition of 1900. A former Minister of Commerce has some remarks on the international dissensions aroused by "le Bill Dingley." The drama and the exchange form part of the miscellany.

It is being urged from various sides, and with increasing force, that the solution of the whole secondary-school question in Germany may ere long be found in the organization of the so-called Reform-Gymnasia with a common basis *(gemeinsamer Unterbau)*, deferring the study of Latin to the last six years of the course. Twenty-one of these institutions have thus far been opened in the various states of the empire. The first class to graduate will be, four years hence, that of the Goethe Gymnasium at Frankfort. Dr. Treutlein, director of the Reform-Gymnasium at Karlsruhe, reports, after repeated visits to the Frankfort school, that the pupils in Ober-Tertia, after two years' work in Latin, with ten recitations weekly, have fully caught up with those of other gymnasia who commenced the language three years earlier. It is interesting in this connection to note from a report by Dr. Lange to the Association for School Reform (see *Pädagogisches Archiv*, August, 1897), that the number of pupils in Prussian secondary schools pursuing courses without Latin has risen in eleven years from 12,800 to 42,452, while in the same period the number of pupils in Latin has fallen from 120,000 to 114,000.

A paper on the first stages in the development of the Pedipalps has been presented to the Paris Academy of Sciences by Mlle. Sophie Pereyaslawzewa. In a nation which can grapple with such proper names as this, science ought to present little difficulty even to its women.

The Canadian regulations governing placer mining along the Yukon River and its tributaries in the Northwest Territories, as well as the new Canadian tariff, are printed in the Consular Reports for October. There is also an appeal by our Minister to Siam, Mr. J. Barrett, for the establishment of an Asiatic Commercial Museum at San Francisco to further American business interests in eastern Asia as the Philadelphia Commercial Museum does in South America and Africa.

—The new edition of Spenser's 'Faerie Queene,' published in two volumes by Messrs. Dent & Co. (New York: Macmillan), is a splendid setting of that "most precious jewel of their coronet" which Gibbon bade the Spencers rate above the trophies of Marlborough. Spenser is emphatically a poets' poet. Like Milton, he has had "fit audience, though few." But he is even less read by the general public than is Milton, for obvious reasons. The general reader does not take kindly to long poems, and the unwieldy twelve books of the 'Faerie Queene' are but a fragment of what their author had in mind to write. To arouse our interest in his characters the poet must himself be interested. Spenser's countless knights and ladies, rescuing and oppressed, drop out of the poet's mind and out of the poem with an ease that damps our curiosity as to their bewildered careers. His fluctuating purpose might well be noted by those literary leaders of a forlorn hope who, like Andrew Lang, refuse to admit, with the German critics, that inconsistencies of plot and looseness of development are arguments against the unity of authorship of the Homeric poems. Yet another cause of Spenser's unpopularity lies in the fact that the 'Faerie Queene' ranges on ideal heights and in breathless bowers that ordinary humanity dreams not of and is profoundly bored to contemplate; for allegory, with the immortal exception of the 'Pilgrim's Progress,' has never failed to weary the ordinary mind. So it is that the 'Faerie Queene' ranks among those masterpieces of literature which there are few to praise and very few to read. The edition before us, with its sumptuous cover and hand-made paper, makes a direct appeal to the book-fancier. Its general get-up suggests, and was doubtless inspired by, the productions of the Kelmscott Press. Mr. Fairfax Muckley, the illustrator, belongs to the small band of disciples of Burne-Jones and Morris known in England as the "Birmingham School," whose services in one or two cases William Morris enlisted for his Kelmscott editions. If we compare this edition of the 'Faerie Queene' with the Kelmscott Chaucer illustrated by Burne-Jones, or the 'Shepheard's Calender' with Gaskin's designs, we see how strong has been the influence of Burne-Jones on the work of the

two younger artists. This is especially true of Mr. Muckley's flat, decorative, full-page designs and borders, with their heavy masses of black and white and their strict conventionality. We miss the beautiful "golden type" of Morris's press in Messrs. Dent's edition, where the type used seems too thin and poor for the heavy black of the illustrations and the decorative lettering. Prof. Hales of Kings College, London, has written a short and sympathetic introduction to the poem. The text and glossary are those of Dr. R. Morris.

—A new edition of the translation of Shakspere by Mr. Bikélas is certainly a healthy sign of revival at Athens—a sign that the Greeks have not lost their interest in the things of the spirit that endure and must finally prevail. We hear of no demand for Shakspere in Constantinople. Mr. Bikélas here proves that there is no language in Europe better fitted to cope with the heights and the difficulties of Shakspere than the modern Greek; and this is because, while it has behind it a great tradition, it is still a language in the making, fluid and capable of new coinage and picturesque phrases. It can still draw upon the unequalled resources of the ancient literature for the making of new words, even though the freedom and daring of the Aeschylean and Sophoclean syntax—a match for any flight of Shaksperian usage—have vanished. Yet how vital and close to the modern speech are these great pioneers in the drama, is shown by the frequent illustrative quotations and parallel passages with which Mr. Bikélas has enriched his notes. But the language, as he uses it, is not fast bound to the chains of a literary tradition. It is nourished and revived by the fresh springs of the popular speech, those vital sources which Solomos and Calvos and Tertsetis have drawn upon, and which the coming Greek poets will surely more and more avail themselves of. As to the form of his work, the translator has adopted the popular narrative and ballad metre which long custom had familiarized to the ears of his countrymen. At first blush it seems impossible to match Shakspere's subtly modulated line with a measure which counts and moves like the English "A captain bold of Halifax, who lived in country quarters." This is a rhythm that, even in the ancient Greek comedy, had vulgar and trivial associations. But the modern ballad-makers have rescued it from such associations, and have rendered it capable of eloquence and of fiery enthusiasm. There is something very dramatic in the abrupt apostrophes and transitions of the best Klepthic ballads; and to the modern Greek their rhythm is associated with the highest gamut of emotion, with notes of poignant pathos and passion, of triumph and despair. There is another propriety in the choice of this line. It may seem too long to render our blank verse of five accents; but the Greek is so polysyllabic that the fifteen-syllable line by no means gives the translator too much elbow-room. *Lear's* "jester," or fool, spreads in Greek to Gelotopoios.

—As a rule Mr. Bikélas follows the original, line for line, with great freedom and naturalness, and with best success in passages of sustained declamation, as in the soliloquies of *Romeo* or *Macbeth*, and in the passionate harangues of *Shylock*. He is not even dismayed by *Mercutio's* Queen Mab (who became a Nereid and a Magissa), though he does confess his sense of relief when the difficult *Mercutio* has received his *passado*, and is buried and done with, quoting with feeling Dryden's remark that Shakspere was obliged to get rid of him in self-defence. The Greek hesitates to follow such thronging imagery as—

"Beauty's ensign yet is crimson on thy lips and on thy cheeks,
And death's pale flag is not advanced there."

It turns pale beside the concentrated power and picturesque suggestiveness of—

"What! will the line stretch out to the crack of doom?"

It does not venture after *Lear's* "Rumble thy belly-full"—a piece of syntax which Aeschylus might have dared, but which no literary language in Europe could attempt. On the other hand, the modern Greek has a honeyed store of diminutives which can match the tenderness of *Macduff's* "What, all my pretty chickens!" and the endearments of *Juliet's* nurse. For the nurse's prattle and the clownish drollery of *Launcelot Gobbo*, Bikélas draws frankly on his countrymen's vernacular, and proves it beyond cavil of the classical purist a most expressive vehicle for comedy. The translations include the following plays, published at Athens: "Romeo and Juliet," "Othello," "King Lear," "Macbeth," "Hamlet," "The Merchant of Venice." They may be particularly commended, for obvious reasons, to English students of the modern Greek.

—Volume viii. of the 'Jesuit Relations' (Cleveland: Burrows Brothers Company) has a more diversified table of contents than any of its predecessors. The number of missions, at first very small, increased with some rapidity towards 1635, and when, in August of that year, Le Jeune sent home his annual report from Notre Dame des Anges, the names of fourteen other fathers were appended to it. The relation of 1636 begins with a strong witness to the interest then taken in New France by political and religious circles at home. The King is well disposed; the Cardinal has sustained and animated the enterprise; the Duc d'Enghien, eldest son of the Prince de Condé, has written with his own hand; the Marquis de Gamache, the chief financial support of the mission, shows no sign of flagging zeal. So far as the French Government and aristocracy are concerned everything is supplied or promised. Full of hope, Le Jeune exclaims: "Dieu soit loüé! tout le ciel de nostre chere Patrie nous promet de favorables influences." Not least among the auspicious tokens was the wish of pious ladies like Mme. de Combalet to found hospitals in New France, and the determination of many orders of nuns to establish themselves at Quebec. Le Jeune hears that at Montmartre the sisters take turns day and night praying for the missionaries' success: "Les Carmelites sont toutes en feu; les Ursulines remplies de zele; les Religieuses de la Visitation n'ont point de paroles assez significatives pour temoigner leur ardeur. Celles de Nostre Dome conjurent qu'on leur donne part aux souffrances qu'il faut subir parmy ces Peuples; & les Hospitalieres crient qu'on les passe dés l'année prochaine." One of these orders, the Ursuline, maintains itself in French Canada to-day, with all the outward signs of prosperity. In the mission field the prospect was less disheartening than it had often been before. Champlain had established a new settlement at Three Rivers, where Le Jeune was free to extend the labors of his band. He had been there in person and was charmed with the situation. He is restrained from describing its beauties only by fear of being accounted tedious. Altogether, his mood is optimistic. Julien Perrault reports good progress from Cape Breton, where he has found the natives willing to paint the cross on chest, arms, and legs, even without being asked to do so. They are also decent, and not thievish. Finally, Brébeuf, having conducted a fairly large band of fathers and lay Frenchmen to the Huron country, writes fully of the settlement at Ihonatiria. Many had been their hardships at the portages in ascending the river and dire the diseases which they found ravaging the natives. But over against discomfort and danger was the solace that the people had welcomed back their "Echom" and had given aid in building a house, or what passed for one there. The baptism of many was being delayed only till fit religious instruction might be given. Everything considered, the years 1634-'36 were a time of special encouragement to the Jesuits; one of the few bright spots in the history of their efforts to convert the North American Indian.

—A little pamphlet bearing the title 'An Egyptian Alphabet for the Egyptian People' has recently been issued from the Landi Press, Florence. Its object is to advocate the general use for Egyptian Arabic of the alphabet elaborated and used by the late Spitta Bey in his 'Grammatik des arabischen Vulgärdialectes von Aegypten.' To that book, published in 1880, the Arabist needs no introduction, and for the non-Arabist it may be enough to say that it was the first, and remains easily the best, careful and detailed study of a modern Arabic dialect. It was the dream and hope of Spitta's far too short life that this alphabet, developed by him from the Roman, might come to be used generally in Egypt, and that for the literature in the modern dialect which is bound to grow up if there is again to be any living Egyptian literature, it might push aside the over-complicated and yet hopelessly insufficient alphabet of classical Arabic. He adapted his alphabet strictly to the needs of modern Egyptian. It will not render the classical language, nor even any of the other modern dialects; but, for the Egyptian people, there can be no doubt that its general adoption would be an almost unmixed blessing. As a single instance, the plays and verses of Mohammad Osmān Galāl would be far more generally intelligible to his fellow-countrymen, and for the Western student the elaborate transliterations and comments of Vollers, Socin, and Sobernheim would be unnecessary. As it is, the reading of them, both for the native and for the foreigner, is two-thirds reading and one-third guessing from the context. A poet of the people, he yet fails to reach the people. The pamphlet explains the alphabet in detail, gives illustrative readings—sentences, verses, stories—a sketch of Spitta's life and some polemic (somewhat bitter in places) against other systems. A number of separate cards and leaflets are evidently intended to spread popularly a knowledge of the alphabet. There is no space here to consider it in detail; only it must be said, in spite of the authority of the brothers Grimm, that some arrangement for capitals is essential. To this almost forlorn hope all good

luck should be wished. Kipling's Sergeant Whatisname is putting stiffening into Pharaoh; can he also put into him a decent alphabet?

GOVERNOR GREENHALGE.

The Life and Work of Frederic Thomas Greenhalge, Governor of Massachusetts. By James Ernest Nesmith. Boston: Roberts Bros. 1897.

The memoir of the late Gov. Greenhalge is not too long for his family and the circle of his intimate friends, but is much too bulky and unweeded for the public who might have been attracted and enlightened by a condensed and pithy narrative. His career had its typical and instructive features that deserve modest commemoration. He belonged to a type of public servants which on the whole ought to prevail and multiply. He came of a sturdy English stock which did not despise culture and the amenities of life. He inherited from his father a strong character and a genuine love for books, for nature, and for art. At school and at Harvard College, he nourished a native passion for literature and oratory which was eagerly shared by his brilliant companions, and which is not always replaced by the most painstaking compulsory instruction. In vain sometimes does the professor of rhetoric lead unwilling colts to drink at the Pierian spring.

At the time when he was growing up, our legislation was still influenced by debate, and debating-clubs had an immense vogue in our colleges chiefly because the debater's talent was considered a short cut to political advancement. The study of economics, of jurisprudence, of social and political history was not generally thought a necessary equipment of the legislator, and was certainly not systematically included in Greenhalge's outfit. But his rhetorical preparation was not a mere gift of the gab; it was based on an ardent study of the great English orators, a wide and intelligent reading of English literature and of history. To this were added the education and experience of a lawyer. These gifts and talents he never for a moment applied to office-seeking as a livelihood, or to ferreting his way to political advancement. Though he quite early nourished vague aspirations and ambitions for public life and service, he had not the least tincture of the pertinacious spirit of the political weasel.

His career is, in fact, when one has followed it through the windings of Mr. Nesmith's discursive pages, an impressive homily on the artificial perplexities that beset good government just now—the hindrances that stand in the way of securing good servants for the nation, the superfluous labors that are laid on their shoulders, the slender rewards that befall a life wasted before its time by the friction and inertia of the political machine. The machine spares only those who grind with it; it is fatal to all but the toughest of those who dare to block its wheels.

Greenhalge was not made of porcelain—far from it; he possessed a robust constitution, unspoiled by dissipation, and wholesome tastes and habits. But he had nerves and sentiment, a grain of poetic susceptibility, a taste for quiet and solitude, for nature, and the society of his family and his books. He had, moreover, convictions and independence. But his tastes and his convictions alike were wofully crossed by his ambitions. He was disgusted with the life which he saw in Washington, the struggle, the venality, the baseness of office-seekers, whose ideas and methods he describes in a characteristic article published in the *North American Review*.

"I miss my calm summer life," he writes to his wife from Washington. "We shall have a grand row over the Silver bill, which came from the crazy Senate yesterday. Our only hope is to stave it off until we can get a reasonable bill. I am sick of all the small and large jealousies of this life. The most trivial things are seized upon, to exalt one man and to lower another; but I think my conscience is clear of envy, hatred, or malice to anybody. I am planning for nothing. I am not a politician. My life here seems aimless. I am compelled to go through a deal of routine work—offices, patronage, influence, favors, documents, information; and I am told that this is the true business of life and real greatness. I am a dreamer, an unpractical man, because I do not wallow in the slough of personal gain and swap favors with office-seekers. The meanness of men has no limit. I find no real pride, no self-respect—but fawning, threatening, lying, where offices are in question."

His honest spirit was equally offended by the claptrap of politics. He was an Edmunds delegate in 1884 to the convention that nominated Blaine. Of this again he writes:

"A pandemonium without the least necessity. . . . All for show and humbug. . . . Of all ridiculous performances the 'demonstrations' for Blaine and Arthur were entitled to the palm—grown-up men acting like lunatics, carrying about a helmet, a 'floral tribute' to Blaine, and men and women and boys screeching in a maniacal manner during the progress. And these are the kind of people who are to name the chief magistrate! God save the Republic!"

These intimate letters admit us behind the scenes, and reveal a man who has no stomach for the company he is obliged to keep. He asks himself occasionally whether the game is worth the candle; and these are questions which a man must not ask too often when he is in the midst of the struggle—they tend to paralyze his action. Yet in action and on the stage, Greenhalge showed himself prompt, able, and courageous. "As to harmony," he said as Mayor of Lowell to his first Board of Aldermen, "I don't care a straw for a man who, having convictions, is afraid to express them." He took the very same tone in the House of Representatives many years afterward as chairman of the committee on civil service, when both Democrats and Republicans showed a desire to defeat the Civil-Service bill in a roundabout way by withholding the necessary appropriations:

"For God's sake, let us have some men in this republic who have the courage of their convictions. I respect even the utterances of ex-President Cleveland; they show courage, whether these utterances are in favor of free trade, in favor of civil-service reform, or against free coinage. If a majority of either side of this house desire to wipe this law from the statute-book, let it be done in a manly fashion, and let those who do it take the responsibility. The people care nothing about parliamentary practice. We are here after things of substance, not after matters of form."

There is a genuineness in these expressions which is substantiated by certain well-known facts in Gov. Greenhalge's history. The best known of these was his behavior when he encountered the Swift mob of riotous workmen, who entered the State House clamoring for improvised employment. His courage, good sense, and right feeling on that occasion won him high opinions, and were based on fixed convictions as to the perils of socialism. This was no sudden outbreak: *Nemo repente integerrimus fuit.* The same courage and conscience were shown in his veto of the Soldiers' Preference bill, in his contempt for the opposition of the A. P. A., and perhaps still more strongly in an incident less widely known. This was the case of certain officials of the Old Colony Railway, who, while attempting by force to prevent a grade crossing, had contributed to a street riot, and were sentenced to a term in the House of Correction. They were men of respectability, one of them the Governor's personal friend. The pressure for a pardon was extreme, and it was recommended by the Council; but the petition was refused by the Governor in a message replete with good law, with sound and dispassionate argument and conscientious firmness—a lesson that Massachusetts might well commend to those Governors of States who use their official position to incite to manslaughter and lynch-law.

With such traits and such a record, it is worth while to observe how Mr. Greenhalge was treated by the "machine" of his adopted city. As to this point, we quote the striking statement of Judge Lawton, which we believe to be absolutely correct, and based on an intimate knowledge of the facts and the parties concerned:

"At this time the hostility to him of the Lowell management became apparent. If it ever ceased, it did not cease for a quarter of a century. Admitted to be the most brilliant young man in Lowell, it was at least twenty years before he was permitted to represent a larger constituency than that of Lowell. The captains of tens in the ward in which he lived long opposed his selection as a Representative to the General Court of Massachusetts. . . . Greenhalge they all 'admired,' but they feared he was not 'practical.' The real objection was that he was absolutely independent of everybody's control, and they wished nobody to be in any position of power whom they could not command and be sure that he would obey."

There is just one more touch we should add to this sketch of the life and trials of the servant of democracy. As Governor, Mr. Greenhalge had engagements to speak every day of the year, Sundays included. If Puritanic sentiment relieved him from speaking on Sunday, it imposed double duty on week days to make up the tale. About sixty of these occasions were official; but the rest were balls, banquets, fairs, what-not—all the hand-shaking functions which a sovereign democracy imposes on its official "slave of the lamp." "On all these occasions," to quote Mr. Nesmith, "he spoke with unfailing eloquence"—a frothy eloquence, occasionally, that chronicled small beer; yet, for a man who was always on tap, the quality of his brew was sound and wholesome. He had a knack of speaking, and was pursued by the Nemesis which in our country avenges such a gift.

The portrait which Mr. Nesmith has buried under a sepulchral mound of vagrant disquisition, is really valuable because it points a moral. Here, on the whole, was the sort of man whom any government should try to ensnare into its service—able, honorable, disinterested, possessed of a certain fineness of fibre and sentiment which is apt to go with a sensitive conscience. In spite of a sound constitution, good habits, and good

health, he was lost to his family, his friends, and the State ten or twenty years before his due time. These years were wasted mainly by the friction of opposition to the "machine," by the pressure and demands of office-seekers, by the wear and tear of superfluous functions, and doubtless also by the fume and fret of forced companionship with men who wield the muck-rake. It is quite true that *noblesse oblige*. It is right enough that public men should spend their lives for the State, should carry loads up hill, and, if need be, die in harness. But it is not necessary that they should wear checks and carry sacks of chaff. In his native country, as things are now, we venture to say, Mr. Greenhalge might have become a member of Parliament or the Governor of a province; but in England he could probably have lived to serve his country twenty years longer because his forces would have been in every way economized. He need have wasted no time on office-seekers in a country which has had for half a century the tradition of a civil-service system; he need not have wasted strength on "machines," because the English people, as a rule, govern themselves without the intervention of invisible and irresponsible "rings" to paralyze the will of their voters; and, finally, he would have worked in the company of men of his own kind, because, in the main, England still maintains a habit and policy of attracting her choicest and ablest minds to the service of the state.

HOMMEL'S APPEAL TO THE MONUMENTS.

The Ancient Hebrew Tradition as Illustrated by the Monuments: A Protest against the Modern School of Old Testament Criticism. By Dr. Fritz Hommel, Professor of Semitic Languages at the University of Munich. Translated from the German by Edmund McClure, M.A., and Leonard Crosslé. London: Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge; New York: E. & J. B. Young & Co. 1897. Pp. xvi, 350.

Some apology is needed for a long review of this book. Intrinsically it does not deserve it. It is especially addressed to "theologians" "who understand Hebrew" (p. 97), and to them it might safely be left without comment. But it has the general reader as well very much in mind, and has been loudly heralded. Its publication is a movement in the campaign which archæology is in these days unwisely made to undertake against Biblical criticism. It seems to be meant seriously, and the situation perhaps makes it worth while to take it so.

Doubtless the testimony of the monuments should command respect. Its value is real and great. But monumental evidence needs to be understood, weighed, and applied, and the process is difficult. Results are to be reached cautiously and by degrees—not by hasty dashes. Fact is to be distinguished from conjecture, probability from possibility, the reasonable from the absurd. Rigid proof, and that alone, is to be admitted as a ground of confident assertion. Sobriety, calm nerves, and a disciplined mind are essential. In these respects the book before us is singularly deficient. On the other hand, it is not too much to ask that Orientalists who deal with Biblical questions should have some training in Biblical exegesis and criticism. But Hommel's attempts at independent interpretation of the Old Testament are wild in the extreme. His exegetical and critical powers are untrained. Under such conditions success is impossible.

The main purpose of the book is to show, by an appeal to the monuments, the accuracy of the Hebrew records, the substantial Mosaic authorship of the Pentateuch, and, specifically, the early date of the Priestly document. It is written with great confidence and superiority of tone, not to say superciliousness. Much is no doubt accounted for by the zeal of a new convert. Hommel himself speaks of being "in 1890 still under the spell of Wellhausen" (p. 308). Yet, though thus explicable, it is not excusable. A man in late middle life, who so recently held opposite views, has hardly the right to be contemptuous toward those who still hold them. But, leaving manner aside, it might be thought that he is a stronger witness because he has himself been thus convinced. This would be a fair inference if he were, in general, a scholar of stable opinions. He is, on the contrary, a man of very fickle opinions. His views change frequently within the compass of a single book. So in the present one. Thus, "achlamah" (name of a jewel) is on p. 204 a pure Arabic tribal name; on pp. 281, 291, it is the Egyptian *eknuôme*. "Assyria" (Hos. ix, 3) is the well-known empire on p. 11, but "the land of Shur" on p. 263. On p. 287 the final recension of Judges and of the Jehovistic narrative was made in the time of the northern kingdom; on p. 307 "it is not at all impossible" that this occurred in the time of the judges. "Gaza" and "'Ibr naharân" are "interchangeable terms" on p. 251, but on p. 323 an opinion of Glaser is quoted with approval according to which Gaza "is certainly not identical with 'Ibr Naharân." On p. 195 we read that *ebir-nâri* "the (far) bank of the river" means "probably the Jordan"; on p. 254 ff. we learn that the river is the Euphrates, and that the phrase denotes Mesopotamia, although it "may, at a pinch, have come to be equivalent to . . . the country on the other side of the Jordan," while on p. 323 (again under Glaser's influence) we are informed that it is "*nowhere* used of Mesopotamia, but always of the *western* bank of the Euphrates" (italics not ours).

These illustrations could be multiplied from Hommel's writings. It is evident that such changeableness deprives the author of the title of a steadfast witness. It is to be explained from another fact, likewise derogatory to any high claims for his book, viz., that he seems to have no conception of what constitutes proof, and hence has no security for any opinion. In illustration of this defect of the power of deduction and of induction we may take the interpretation of *Samsu* in certain Babylonian names as = *sumu-su* = *Shumu-shu* = Arab. *sumu-hu*, "his name" (pp. 101 f.); or his jaunty affirmation that the language of the Aramæans "was undoubtedly, in Jacob's time, merely a dialect of Arabic. What we now call Aramaic," he says, "did not come into existence till a much later date." Further, in dealing with Gen. xiv., Hommel rashly ventures to affirm on the basis of a (misunderstood) passage in one of the Tel el-Amarna letters, and of Heb. vii., 3 (!), that v. 18 originally ended with the words, "and had not inherited the kingdom from his father and his mother" (p. 157)! He also believes "that there are ample grounds for assuming" that "Melchisedek" and "Salem" should be read for "the King of Sodom" in vv. 17, 21, and that the words "And Abram said to the King of Sodom" should be omitted at the beginning of v. 22, as

"inconsistent with the general sense. In the invocation of El, 'Elyôn is only rightly intelligible when placed in the mouth of Melchisedek. That Melchisedek should have desired possession of the prisoners is no more than we should expect; for after the death of the King of Sodom and Gomorrah he must naturally have regarded himself as master of the Jordan. Moreover, it is quite possible that some of his own people may have been included among the prisoners rescued by Abraham, etc., etc."

This is puerile. Again, in the course of an argument relating to "Ashur" as = "Shur," he perpetrates the following:

"In dealing with Deut. xxviii. 68 (on p. 11), I have already had occasion to point out that Hosea ix., 3, is merely a quotation from this passage. When, however, Hosea, after giving the words of Deuteronomy, viz., 'But Ephraim shall return to Egypt,' adds, 'and they shall eat unclean food in Ashur [Assyria],' it seems extremely probable—in view of the facts brought forward in the present chapter—that this supplementary clause formed part of the original text of Deuteronomy [!], and was only omitted later owing to its having been confounded with Assyria. The principles of parallelism require that the Ashur in question—even though Hosea may have understood it as equivalent to Assyria—should be some region in the immediate vicinity of Egypt, and there is of course no other locality which complies with this condition except the land of Shur," etc. (p. 263).

And with stuff like this it is proposed to overthrow modern criticism!

For his main thesis he relies much on the view that in Abraham's time there was a large Arabian element in Babylonia and a dynasty of Arabian origin on the throne. This shown, he accounts for Abraham's monotheism as an inheritance from Arabia, and explains alleged resemblances between proper names in the Priestly document and those of ancient Arabia by bringing the Priestly document back to a time when Arabian influence was still felt. He thinks that the Hebrews still spoke an Arabic dialect when they entered Canaan, what we know as Hebrew having been adopted by them from the conquered Canaanites. Hence he infers, again, that certain Arabian peculiarities in the documents show that they were originally written before the conquest.

With regard to the "Arabian" dynasty, it may be said that the appearance of some of the names makes an Arabian origin not improbable; nothing is gained by attempting to force reluctant names into this category, as Hommel does. Neither is it improbable that the Hebrew migration actually set out from Babylonia. If we accept the historic personality of Abraham, and the narratives concerning him in Gen. xi. and xiv., we must agree that the migration started during the time assigned to the "Arabian dynasty." But it is a long step from this to the positions that Abraham drew his monotheism from Arabian sources, and that Old Testament personal names resembling old Arabian names prove the high antiquity of the documents containing them. Arabists must determine how far Hommel is justified in regarding *Ilu* as so nearly exclusive a divine element in old Arabian names. It is probable that he exaggerates here. But its presence in the names does not prove Arabian monotheism, any more than *ilu* in Babylonian prayers and hymns proves Babylonian

monotheism. It may be only a characteristic way of denoting one or another god. In view of the fact that the Arabians who used the names were demonstrably and avowedly polytheistic, such an explanation is at least quite as probable as the view that these names point back to an earlier monotheistic age. Besides, we are not at all sure of the very ancient date of the inscriptions which contain them. An age beyond 1000 B. C. is not claimed by Hommel for the Sabæan inscriptions, and these are therefore too late to tell us anything about the times of Abraham or of Moses. The Minæan inscriptions are usually thought to be somewhat later; Glaser, followed (changeably) by Hommel, thinks them earlier. "I now confidently believe," Hommel says, "that the South Arabian kingdom of the Minæan dynasty must, at the very latest, have flourished in the period between Solomon and Moses." But we can build nothing on this "confident belief" unsupported by evidence. Even if the inscriptions be early, however, and even if the proper names point back to monotheism, they prove nothing concerning the date of the Priestly document. For (1) the tradition and habit of such name-formation might be persistent for centuries, as Hommel's theory requires him to suppose it was in Arabia itself, so that the occurrence of like formations does not prove like antiquity of documents; in fact, the same name-formation does actually occur in different epochs of the different Semitic peoples, as is well illustrated by Gray in his book, 'Studies in Hebrew Proper Names,' of which Hommel speaks so slightingly in his preface; (2) the name-formations of the Priestly document resemble in various respects those of admittedly late documents, such as Chronicles, Ezra, and Nehemiah, as Gray also convincingly shows.

The supposition that the Hebrews spoke an Arabic dialect before the conquest of Canaan may or may not be true. We know very little that bears on the question. Certainly it is not proved by Hommel's argument. The points on which he depends are (1) the evidence of proper names again, which contain some stems not found in our Hebrew, but found in Arabic; (2) "Many other peculiarities of their language" (p. 274)—the only instance he gives is *man-hû* (Ex. xvi. 15); and (3) the use of the letter *He* (*h*) to denote the lengthening of a vowel, which Hommel claims—not without challenge—to be peculiar to the Minæan, Moabite, and Hebrew, indicating, he thinks, an employment by Moabites and Hebrews of the Minæan script. But, as to (1), our ancient Hebrew literature is too limited for us to say that stems not found in it did not exist in Hebrew, and there is always the possibility of borrowing. (2.) An isolated peculiarity is no safe evidence. (3.) Mordtmann, who challenges the statement that the Minæan *He* in the cases referred to is a mere graphic sign, is entitled by character and services to at least as much consideration as Hommel is! Such being the status of the evidence, it is plain that it does not permit us "to assume confidently that a . . . not inconsiderable portion of the tradition incorporated in Genesis had already been reduced to writing [in the Minæan script] in the time of Moses" (p. 275), or sympathize in the "satisfaction" felt by the priests and prophets "at having been able to transfer faithfully, by paraphrase or translation, the holy traditions into the lately cultivated speech and newly adopted characters of Canaan" (p. 304).

There are many other particulars which might be noticed. The book abounds in archæological and Biblical statements. There is a chapter on "Abraham and Khammurabi," which discusses Gen. xiv. at some length, and contains interesting details—not quite new, but freshly elaborated—in regard to probable identifications of the Eastern Kings of that narrative. Khammurabi, Eri-Aku, Kudur-laghamar, and Tudkhulu may very well be their native names, and in their incursion and temporary dominion on Canaanitish soil there is nothing difficult to believe. Positive evidence outside of the Bible for the particular campaign described in Gen. xiv. does not exist. The Tel el-Amarna tablets give ground to infer long-continued Babylonian influence in Canaan, and prove that Jerusalem was a stronghold in the fifteenth century B. C.; but the attempt to torture out of them direct evidence for Melchisedek and his religion is vain. Hommel's hypothesis as to the original form of the latter part of the chapter is flimsy and foolish enough. No one can disprove the assertion that Gen. xiv. is based on a cuneiform original, but it is useless to claim that this is proved by the considerations which Hommel has adduced.

Hommel thinks that Arabian (Minæan) influence once extended over the territory of Moab and of Southern Palestine. This is far from impossible, but we know too little about the matter as yet to warrant the author's confidence. It does not increase our readiness to believe it, to find him on one page (76) arguing that the native name should be read *Ma'ân*, rather than *Ma'în*, because that form explains the local names *Ma'ân* (near Petra) and *Ma'ôn* (twice, in Palestine), and then on another page (271) arguing from the existence of these names to the fact of Minæan influence in the territory where they are found. Moses's obligations to Arabia for the furniture and ceremonial of worship are still more conjectural. The combined evidence of exegesis, literary phenomena, and historical criticism is not to be overturned by guesses like those which meet us here. On p. 280 the author calls attention to a resemblance between the breast-ornament of the Egyptian chief priest and the high priest's breast-plate of Exod. xxviii. Granting the resemblance, however, an isolated phenomenon of this kind admits of various explanations; the most distinctive feature of the breastplate—the Urim and Thummim—is at the best mysterious to us, and of unknown age, and the date of the Priestly document, a very different matter, remains unaffected.

We need not go through the book examining all its proposals. Enough has been given to justify the opinion expressed at the outset. Whatever of solid fact or sound opinion it contains is enwrapped with conjecture and fancy, vitiated by false argument and extravagant claims, or distorted by appeals to prejudice. It is therefore not a good book—not fitted to advance the truth.

As to the translation it is necessary to speak with great plainness. It is one of the worst translations known to us. Its badness consists, not in the slavish following of the foreign idiom—there are many less readable translations—but in unfaithfulness to the original. Not a small class of instances is due to carelessness or ignorance, but these, although depriving the translators' work of any claim to accuracy, are of slight consequence when compared with their conscious and reckless perversions of a text already, one would suppose, reckless enough. Whether such as the next-following belong to this category is perhaps doubtful: "Wenn wirklich Fetischismus und Ahnencult die Anfänge der israelitischen Religion gewesen wären, so würden diese Anfänge in einer prähistorischen Zeit liegen, in welche die Forschung höchstens durch Sprachvergleichung zurückzudringen vermöchte" (G. 291), becomes, with entire and misleading change of emphasis, "Had the beginnings of the Israelite religion really been a mixture of Fetichism and ancestor-worship, these beginnings would have left their impress upon the language and could have been detected by the method of comparative philology" (E. 290). "Während ich noch im Jahre 1890, unter dem Banne Wellhausens mich befindend," etc. (G. 309), is rendered "while in 1890 . . . I brought myself under the displeasure of Wellhausen," etc. (E. 308); this is perhaps merely a gross blunder. More suspicious is this: "Und auch das von Mose berichtete wäre dann in ganz anderem, viel glaubwürdigerem Lichte erschienen" (G. 163), where "von" is shown by the context to be the equivalent of "über," "concerning," but E. 161 gives the phrase "the account drawn up by Moses."

No doubt whatever can attach to the intention of the following misrenderings: "Was zuerst die biblische Chronologie anlangt, so ist es ja richtig, dass dieselbe von David und der Richterzeit an rückwärts nicht den Grad von Sicherheit beanspruchen kann, den man für eine exacte Geschichtsforschung zu verlangen berechtigt ist" (G. 126); by rendering "Sicherheit" "definiteness," and "berechtigt" "inclined" (E. 125), the original sense is perverted in the conservative interest. "Die keine Zeile von Mose . . . als echt gelten lassen" (G. 166); here E. 165, translating "echt" by "genuine," substitutes "the Pentateuch" for "Mose." G. 277 says " . . . machte man das in der semitischen Eigennamenbildung ganz unerklärt dastehende Ab-raham daraus [*i. e.*, out of Abram], und schob Gen. 17, 5 als Deutung dieser Umnennung ein"; of this E. 275 makes "the name was changed into its present form, Abraham, a word which it is *absolutely impossible to explain by any ascertained principle* of Semitic name-formation, and the passage in Gen. xvii. 5 *seems* an interpolation intended to account for the alteration" (italics ours). "Hätten wir über die Richterzeit und die Königsperiode vollständigere und ausführlichere Ueberlieferungen (wie sie, allerdings in ausgeschmückter Form, vielleicht noch dem von den Büchern der Chronika citirten 'Midrasch zum Buch der Könige' teilweis zu Grunde lagen)" (G. 289), becomes in the latter part (E. 288), "such as that which *probably* furnished part of the material, . . . though there *the facts* may have been presented in a more imaginative guise." In G. 308 we read, "höchstens einige mythologisirende Züge in der sogenannten jahvistischen Quelle . . . mögen auf Rechnung Kanaanäischer Beeinflussung zu setzen sein"; but in E. 307, "*seemingly* mythological traces—*the* so-called *anthropomorphisms*—in the Jehovistic source . . . may at most have been owing to Canaanite influences" (italics ours). Worse yet, G. 290, "Die volkstümliche Ueberlieferung stellt gegenüber der priesterlichen gar

oft eine Vergröberung dar, und hat einen Zug zur Romantik und zu sagenhafter Ausschmückung." This sentence seemed dangerous to the translators, and is omitted entirely; it should precede the words "these two opposing principles" (E. 289). G. 200, "Zuerst erklärte man die Namen der Könige für frei erfunden . . . statt dankbar das Zeugniss der Tradition angunehmen, dass es derartige Könige zu Abraham's Zeit gab . . . Die Denkmäler mussten erst kommen," etc: but E. 199, "*the critics*, instead of thankfully accepting the testimony of tradition which declares that such kings *did* exist in Abraham's time, . . . *had ignominiously to withdraw their false conclusions in presence* of the monuments," etc.; the italicized words (except *did*, whose italics are from Tr.) have absolutely no equivalent in the original.

The translators, we remark, are especially fond of substituting "critics," and "higher critics"—both with and without quotation marks—for more abstract and colorless words, thus giving the dog a bad name in the very act of hanging him. So (besides the above) G. 28=E. 28, G. 29=E. 29, and so, notably, with other perversions for the sake of pungency, G. viii., "Die Denkmäler reden eine zu deutliche Sprache, und schon jetzt höre ich den Flügelschlag einer neuen Zeit, in der man über die Aufstellungen der sogenannten modernen Pentateuchkritik als über einen veralteten Irrtum zur Tagesordnung übergehen wird,"=E. viii., "The monuments speak with no faltering tongue, and already I seem to see signs of the approach of a new era in which men will be able to *brush aside* the *cobweb theories* of the so-called *'higher critics'* of the Pentateuch, and, leaving such old-fashioned errors behind them, *attain to a clearer perception of the real facts*" (!—italics ours). What it is difficult not to call a bare-faced falsification occurs in the rendering of "Oder endlich, da ja doch die Begrüssung und Segnung durch Melkisedek den eigentlichen Zweck der Erzählung des ganzen Kapitels bildete" (G. 191), by, "Or, as a last *hypothesis—if* the real object of the whole narrative in this chapter was to furnish a peg on which to hang [!] Melchisedek's salutation and blessing," E. 190; (italics ours). After instances like these, one hardly notices such depravities of rendering as "by the evidence of the Biblical tradition" (E. 235), for "aus der hebräischen Tradition" (G. 237); "not only from the account which we glean from contemporary inscriptions" (E. 190), for "sowol mit dem, was wir aus den gleichzeitigen Inschriften wissen" (G. 192); "that the author of the Epistle to the Hebrews must have been familiar with *a version in which* verse 18 contained a supplementary clause," etc. (E. 152; italics ours), for "dass der Verfasser des Hebräer-briefes zu Vers 18 noch einen Zusatz . . . gekannt haben muss" (G. 153); "What is there left of Moses beyond a *mere empty* unsubstantial shadow" (E. 286; italics ours), for "was bleibt von Mose übrig als ein wesenloser Schatten" (G. 287). The purpose of all these changes is obvious enough.

Now these details are not trivial. They are very serious indeed. They show a lack of scrupulous regard for truth, and constitute an imposition on English readers. This book is issued simultaneously in German and English. We are entitled to suppose that the English reproduces the German. Any editing of the German to suit the prejudice of English people is excluded by the announcement. Nor does the author's preface to the English edition, nor the translator's note, intimate that any changes have been made. The matter becomes worse when we remember that the English publishing-house is the best-known religious publication society in the world, and that the leading translator is the Secretary of the Society. A member of the same family translated Maspero's 'Struggle of the Nations,' and unfaithfulness has been proved in that case also. It is, therefore, not a question of a single book, but of a habit, and the society which encourages, or even permits, such lack of fidelity is itself brought to the bar of judgment.

Two things, then, this book has established—both of them melancholy, but both important to be known. The first is, that Hommel's work has, for the future, no claim upon serious students of the Bible and of ancient history; and the second, that translations made under the auspices of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge must henceforth be regarded with suspicion.

British Deer and their Horns. By John Giulle Millais, F.Z.S. With 185 text and full-page illustrations, mostly by the Author; also, ten electrogravures and a colored frontispiece by the Author and Sidney Steele, and a series of Drawings by Sir Edwin Landseer which were formerly on the walls of Ardverikie. London: Henry Sotheran & Co.; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1897.

This elaborate and beautiful work is addressed to "Experienced Sportsmen and Naturalists," and it has the charm which could come only from the author's skill and knowledge of the two kindred sciences. The naturalist is likely to ignore (or never acquire, if he be not also a sportsman) the experience in the habits and disposition of animals which cannot be gained unless he sees them under the thousand varying aspects of wild life, and learns from necessity the nice adaptations of structural conditions and habits to their numerous requirements in their struggle for existence. Mr. Millais has, in addition to his knowledge and love of nature and sport, a fine artistic sense and facility in depicting animal life, and these qualifications, added to his unusual opportunities for the study of his subject, make him eminently fit for his task.

Of the eleven different kinds of extinct British deer mentioned in the first chapter, the most interesting and perhaps the most numerous, especially in Ireland, was the Megaceros, or the Gigantic Irish Deer. Hundreds of heads of this magnificent animal and a few perfect skeletons are in existence. Mr. Williams of Dublin, who has been most successful in recovering the buried heads and horns of this great deer, uses for the purpose a probing iron about sixty feet in length; and the man who does the probing through the strata of peat, gravel, and clay to the lacustrine shell marl, where the horns are mostly found, is enabled from long practice to tell by the ring of the metal exactly the kind of substance with which the rod comes in contact. The megaceros has been confounded, by reason of its palmated horns, with the American moose, but, as Mr. Millais shows by a reconstructed one on p. 5, it was an entirely different and a much larger animal. The head of a megaceros, with a great number of exact measurements, is given on p. 8, showing a span from between both outside tips in a straight line of 9 feet 5 inches, which is much greater than that of any moose head.

To the red deer (*Cervus elaphus*), the most important existing British type, are devoted five of the succeeding chapters. The great differences between the park and wild deer in the form and size of the antlers, as well as in weights, are thoroughly discussed from the data contained in the numerous and continuous records of the chase and the great collections of horns which adorn many a hall and castle in Britain. The very strong superficial resemblance between some of the best stag-heads in Mr. Millais's book and those of the American wapiti will at once strike those familiar with the latter animal. The heads reproduced on pp. 126 and 131 are especially like those of the wapiti; the span of the larger one being 39¼ inches, length of right antler 39 inches, circumference between brow and bay 7¼ inches. A large wapiti head would have a length of antler of 50 to 55 inches, a span of 42 to 45 inches, and a girth of 10 to 12 inches. Palmated horns and horns with cups are becoming much rarer now than formerly among Scotch deer, and the size of the stags is decreasing. Mr. Millais mentions clean weights of something above 400 pounds, though weights of 300 pounds, with antlers bearing more than fourteen tines, at the present day would be thought very good. How much, therefore, the race must have degenerated in the last 200 years is shown in an article by Mr. Baillie-Grohman in the *Century* for July, 1897, entitled "Sports of the Seventeenth Century," in which he tells of stags killed by John George I., Elector of Saxony, weighing over 850 pounds, and that he shot 4,139 stags which scaled above 450 pounds each. The excellent picture, in this article, of the great banqueting hall of the Castle of Moritzburg shows 71 pairs of stag horns, not one of which carries fewer than twenty-four tines. On p. 88 of this book under notice the largest of these heads is shown. In 1693 a stag of twenty-six points, weighing 850 pounds, was shot by Princess Frederika of Saxe-Eisenach, and the head, with that of another nearly as large killed by Duchess Magdalen of Saxony in 1650, are in the Moritzburg collection. Many of these large horns are cupped and palmated, showing that such forms were not at all uncommon in those days. It is impossible even to mention great numbers of notable British heads specified by Mr. Millais, but all goes to show that the stag is steadily deteriorating both in weight and in the size of his horns, and the historic great heads are becoming more and more precious as time goes on.

From the sportsman's point of view Mr. Millais's book is of great interest and fully justifies his addressing it to experts. The "Field Notes and Stalking Yarns" are very much above the usual level of such recountals, owing to the charm of their narration and the interspersed observations, which would occur to none but a keen and loving student of all living nature. Of course the opportunities for minute investigation of red deer in Britain are unexcelled. The animal, since the Conquest, has been the object of a kind of protection almost sacred in its form; and at the present time, outside of the hundreds of parks with their thousands of deer, there is in Scotland alone above 2,000,000 acres devoted to their

maintenance, and about 5,000 stags are annually killed.

The chapters on fallow and roe deer are quite as good in their way as those on their more important cousin, but lack of space forbids going into their merits.

The illustrations, it is not too much to say, are far superior to any yet collected since Scrope's 'Art of Deerstalking' was published, and far more exhaustive than those of that great work. They are mostly by the author, and could be better only if they all were. Perhaps the most taking of these are the simple sketches of deer which, in their animation and lifelikeness, remind one of the admirable work of the late Charles St. John on the same subject. Those of "Stags Sparring" and "Stags Fighting," pp. 30 and 38, though not better than many others, are good examples of what animal drawing should be; and most interesting, though not more so than the accompanying text, is that entitled "Various British Animals Swimming, and their Positions in the Water," p. 44. It might be thought that the act of swimming would be substantially alike with all four-footed animals, while in fact it varies quite as much as their ways of travelling on land. No superficial observer would have noticed and illustrated this. The drawings by Sir Edwin Landseer are familiar from the reproduction of their subjects, and perhaps for that reason yield in specific interest to many of the other illustrations. Those in the chapter on roe deer cannot be too highly commended as a whole, and there are none that the most captious critic would want to exclude, though he might say a word of detraction of the frontispiece, which hardly needs the statement beneath it to make one think it was "made in Germany." The electrogravures are excellent in their subjects, and very fine in execution, and any one interested in British deer from the realistic or sentimental standpoint cannot do better than to buy (or, if he cannot afford this, to borrow) and enjoy Mr. Millais's beautiful volume.

Recollections of Aubrey de Vere. Edward Arnold. 1897.

At the outset our reminiscent poet distinguishes between "recollections" and an autobiography, and justly claims that what he has written makes good his title, it being less about himself than about other people. At the same time, his own doings and achievements are not allowed to wither in the shade. The chapters on his childhood and youth are interesting more as a picture of Irish life in general than for any of his own experiences or traits; but there are bits of vivid color here and there. The difference between his father and grandfather was very much like that between Frances Power Cobbe's relations of the same degree. Indeed, we find ourselves comparing Miss Cobbe's book with this at many different points. Grandfather de Vere had a history that could match the incidents of Miss Edgeworth's 'Castle Rackrent' and 'The Absentee.' In a London auction-room he bought at haphazard an island in the Bristol Channel, paid for it by breeding rabbits on it, and retired to it whenever he was on bad terms with both the English and the Irish government, for it paid neither tax nor tithe, acknowledged neither King nor Parliament, nor any law of state or church. He lost a fortune by cards and then renounced them. He raised two companies of militia and gave a captain's commission to his son, a boy of five summers. This boy grew up to be the father of the present Aubrey de Vere, whose tender reverence for him is one of the most delightful features of his book. Like his son, he was a poet, and according to his son a good one, the opinion of competent judges being quoted to that effect, and the fact that, after twenty-eight years of absolute neglect, his "Mary Tudor," a drama, got some recognition.

In the "Youth" chapter there are valuable descriptions of Gerald Griffin and Sir Rowan Hamilton, with both of whom young De Vere was intimate. Some of the best stories are those which describe the course of justice—if it was justice—in the Irish courts. For O'Connell, De Vere has only praise, while conceding that both of the great parties in England wished Ireland well without any sympathetic understanding of her social and political condition. The beginnings of young De Vere's poetry were nearly simultaneous with those of Tennyson and Browning (he was born in 1814). Like Tennyson, he began by admiring Byron, and contracted "the Byronic sulk" which Wordsworth exorcised. He and his father used to read Keats, Shelley, and Landor by night to the music of an æolian harp. In one of these poetic raptures the boy took to a boat and floated all night long upon a lake, letting the wind and tide have their way with him. This looks as if the Byronic self-consciousness had outlasted "the Byronic sulk."

One chapter, "Old Times and New," describes a coaching drive which was full of incident and adventure, without being at all remarkable for the time of its occurrence. A sister's marriage in 1835 to Robert O'Brien suggests a history of the O'Brien family, which is proudly vaunted as descending from Brian the Great, King of all Ireland. Whether all the O'Briens draw their blood from this old King, we are not told. One of them, of his father's generation, was a distinct survival of the Irish chief. Another, Stafford O'Brien, did good service in the Crimea, especially among the cholera-stricken French, who seem to have had much the same name for Englishmen that Joan of Arc had and her people, for they called him "Ce cher Monsieur 'Damn me.'"

The chapter of Swiss travel is not sufficiently different from the run of such descriptions to require special comment, but the Irish traveller who thought the Alps did not compare with the mountains of Wicklow was beyond doubt a true patriot. In the Chamouni Valley he had counted only four mountains in three days, and in Wicklow he had counted eight in three hours. Going to England in 1841, De Vere had the fun —for it was fun—of travelling with O'Connell, of whose boisterous good nature we get an excellent account. One incident of this journey was a visit to Wordsworth, whose appreciation of the English mountains as compared with the Alps was not excelled by the Irishman's comparative appreciation of the mountains of Wicklow. Very precious to young De Vere was Wordsworth's praise of his father's sonnets as the best of the age. "I need not remind you," he added, "that in making such a remark one does not mean to institute anything in the way of a comparison between one's self and another writer." That was saving his own preëminence as by fire. Again, travelling on the Continent, De Vere had Henry Taylor for his companion, and he confirms all the good that we have heard of the author of "Philip Van Artevelde." In Froude's edition of Carlyle's 'Reminiscences,' Taylor appears as "a man of morbid vivacity in every sense of the word." It should have read "a man of marked veracity," and so he appears in these pages, yet not without much vivacity and the utmost kindliness.

The great Irish famine has a chapter to itself, in which a plea is put in for the Irish gentleman as not entirely recreant to his solemn trust; but that absenteeism was a frequent and appalling scandal De Vere does not deny. The reader will wish that he were more explicit and had told us what the "unproductive labor" was, and the "reproductive labor" in which the starving population were engaged under Government control.

Cardinal Newman and Cardinal Manning have each a chapter to themselves, yet little is added to the abundant knowledge of these men that we already have. We read of Newman as gliding into a room "with a gracious address that might have belonged to a youthful ascetic of the Middle Ages or a graceful and high-bred lady of our own days." At their first meeting Mr. de Vere was not a Roman Catholic, but he became one further on. Milnes wrote a reply to 'Tract 90.' Some one remarking to Whewell that he didn't know that Milnes had opinions on the subject, Whewell answered, "He has none, but he took a fancy to write a philosophic essay on the subject of the day; so he wrote what he thought a philosophic mind like Thirlwall's might think." Newman's change from Oxford to Dublin University was æsthetically a change of infinite diameters, and the picture of him carving meat for thirty hungry boys is one not soon to be forgotten. Newman's idea that of twenty definitions of infallibility several might be correct is of a piece with his general vagueness, so different from William George Ward's sharp definition. Woolner's compliment to Newman's bust was a striking one, and by no means flattering to busts that he had made of Newman's most distinguished contemporaries. "When I turn from Newman's head to theirs," he said, "they look *like vegetables*." There is no attempt to adjust the differences of Newman and Manning. Mr. de Vere's opinion of the latter is very different from Newman's and does not agree with that of Manning's great biography by Mr. Purcell. It is not Mr. de Vere's fashion to admire the celebrated people of his church by halves. At the end of his chapter on Manning, he reproduces a sonnet on him which for depth of bathos cannot be excelled. Nothing will satisfy him but to represent the Cardinal as a St. Thomas Aquinas and a Dante rolled into one. Carlyle's advice to Mr. de Vere to remain in the English Church because its face was "turned in the right direction," either was grimmest irony, or makes us wonder whether he was speaking truthfully when he was talking in this fashion, or when he was setting forth the "Exodus from Houndsditch" as the one thing needful.

Cabot's Discovery of North America. By G. E. Weare. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1897.

Among Mr. Weare's illustrations is a view

of Brandon Hill, with a part of ancient Bristol in the foreground. Although embedded in the text, it deserves to be made the frontispiece, for the author's purpose in writing so extensively as he does about the Cabots is not primarily to denounce Sebastian, or even to vindicate John, but to magnify the famous west-country seaport. He has already dealt with minor points in the archæology of Bristol. He now attacks the largest game which a Somersetshire antiquarian can start. Viewed purely from the standpoint of sport, the Cabot question, with its numerous and baffling difficulties, is indeed a noble quarry. Yet behind the obscurities arising from contemporary silence and contemporary lies, one fact is sure, viz., that John Cabot sailed from Bristol in May, 1497. He was supported by Bristol enterprise, and the expedition which disclosed a continent is fitly taken by Mr. Weare as the central episode of the local history. Macaulay's lively sketch of Bristol in his third chapter shows that the town was still great at the end of the seventeenth century. For over two hundred years it reaped direct benefit from the new fields of commerce which it was the first to open up.

In considering the value of the services which the Cabots and Bristol rendered to the cause of American discovery, one must dwell on a series of moot points. Among them the most notable are the circumstances under which the first voyage was made; the precise landfall; the achievements of Sebastian; and, finally, his moral character. The main outlines can be traced with tolerable certainty. Many interesting details for which there is some authority will probably continue to remain doubtful because the said authority is not good enough. An adventurous citizen of Venice, with head crammed full of Marco Polo's Cipango, Toscanelli's charts, and the success of Columbus, secures sanction of the English crown and aid in the second English seaport, finds land somewhere between Labrador and Halifax, returns, is a seven days' wonder, is partially rewarded, and then, after a second voyage, drops out of sight. Of his three sons authentically mentioned, one becomes a skilful navigator and an inveterate wirepuller. In a voluminous correspondence he ignores his father or appropriates his discoveries. After wearing the mantle of an undeserved respect for above three hundred years, and especially for the forty years succeeding the appearance of Biddle's monograph, he is at length stripped bare as Duessa. It is a long drop from a place beside Columbus and Magellan to the rank which Sebastian Cabot now holds.

Mr. Weare by no means confines himself to the broad features at which we have just glanced. He begins with that Egyptian expedition to the "unknown Balsam Land of Punt," which is described in the inscription at Deir-al-Bahari, and ambles along down to the Cabots via Plato, Ignatius Donnelly, Strabo, the early mediæval Orientalists, and the Island of the Seven Cities. The chief fault we find with him is that of extreme garrulity. What he has to say about his avowed subject might easily be compressed into one-half the number of pages which the present volume contains. He has already before him in the field Dr. Winsor, Mr. Harrisse, and Dr. S. E. Dawson, all of whom write with full knowledge of the recent and determining evidence that has been drawn from Spanish and Italian archives. A comparative study of the testimony in the case, by itself, is needed much more than a general account of attempts to reach the Indies by sailing west, biographical sketches of Gasparo Contarini, Richard Hakluyt, etc. We refer, of course, to the matter with which Mr. Weare embroiders his main theme. He has collected the wherewithal to supply a very neat essay, but leaves one to spend a good deal of time in exploring digressions before one reaches what one is after.

Assuming that the reader is in no particular hurry, he will find himself Mr. Weare's debtor in the end. Besides being a first-hand authority wherever Bristol is concerned, he has prepared a useful anthology of the sources relating to the Cabots. One of his special contentions is that the ship in which John Cabot sailed when he sighted land was the *Mathew*. His authority is a chronicle once in the possession of the Fust family, and destroyed by fire in 1860. Fortunately, one of its owners had caused a collation of entries to be made with Barrett's and Seyer's Histories of Bristol, "with a view to the extraction from the Chronicle of all the entries which were yet unpublished, or which contained information supplemental to any matter or event already published in either of those histories." Mr. Harrisse impugns the authenticity of the original chronicle, and conjectures that it was one of Chatterton's forgeries. It is obvious that the phrase "the land of America was found by the Merchants of Bristow in a shippe of Bristowe, called the *Mathew*," could not have been used in 1497. On the other hand, a forger would have avoided so elementary a slip. We mention the difference of opinion between Mr. Weare and Mr. Harrisse because the former's last word has been reprinted from *Notes and Queries* and put in circulation. At least Mr. Harrisse makes a bad guess in connecting Chatterton and the Fust family without express evidence. Mr. Weare catches him here much as Dr. Dawson catches him on the landfall question. Mr. Harrisse's opinion is in favor of Cape Chidley, because of the multitude of cod thereabouts. Cabot landed on the 24th of June, and the cod do not reach Cape Chidley till or later than the middle of August!

While we have found it necessary to dwell on Mr. Weare's circuitous manner of reaching his goal, we should like to commend the thoroughness of research and breadth of outlook to which his prolixity is probably due. The subject involves treatment of many minute questions, hair-splitting even, and we are not sorry to find that one who must have been sorely tempted to emphasize its Bristolian aspects should be able to pass from the antiquarian's level to the higher ground of historical disquisition.

The Blazon of Episcopacy. By Rev. W. K. Riland Bedford. Second Edition. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1897. 4to, pp. 274.

To an American reader this handsome volume is simply inexplicable. It contains a chronological list of all the archbishops and bishops of the Episcopal Church in England and Wales, and of their predecessors in these sees in Catholic times. There are added engraved coats-of-arms, apocryphal and real, of these prelates, an ordinary of the arms, and an index. Omitting the early coats, assigned later to persons who lived before the use of coat-armor, this record would seem to prove that no bishop has been appointed outside of the class of the gentry. In other words, it would show that while soldiers, sailors, lawyers, and statesmen in England have risen from the ranks, the higher clergy has constituted a body of strictly high-class Brahmins. Of course this cannot be true, for great ability has forced plebeians through the path of scholarships, tutorships, fellowships, and other ways into high ecclesiastic preferment. Thackeray is a sufficient authority for his sketch of a university snob—Crump, President of St. Boniface, who narrowly escaped the bench of bishops: "When the allied monarchs came down, and were made Doctors of the University, a breakfast was given at St. Boniface; on which occasion Crump allowed the Emperor Alexander to walk before him, but took the *pas* himself of the King of Prussia and Prince Blücher." "He does not disguise his own origin, but brags of it with considerable self-gratulation. 'I was a charity-boy,' says he; 'see what I am now; the greatest Greek scholar of the greatest College of the greatest University of the greatest Empire in the world.'" Yet if Crump became a bishop, we presume his coat-of-arms would have been issued in order to take its place in the 'Blazon of Episcopacy.' It seems, indeed, strange that such worldly gewgaws should be so exclusively affected by clergymen.

Mr. Bedford's book was first issued in 1858, and this sumptuous edition proves that it meets some need. It shows a great outlay of time and work, and from an heraldic point is entirely satisfactory. It will be, for example, of service in identifying the founders of churches and tombs, and will gratify many clergymen who take a languid interest in archæology. But we can hardly expect to see in the next edition a section devoted to the arms of the bishops of the Episcopal Church in the United States, unless the Church of England shall relent. In which case, doubtless, Garter will supply the necessary shields from the date of Bishop Seabury, as authentic and satisfactory as those of their English brethren.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, C. C. The Hermit of Nottingham. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Aitken, G. A. Sheridan's The Critic. [Temple Dramatists.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. 45c.
Alexander, Mrs. Barbara, Lady's Maid and Peeress. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Allen, Grant. The Evolution of the Idea of God. Henry Holt & Co. $3.
Baldwin, Prof. J. M. Social and Ethical Interpretations in Mental Development. Macmillan. $2.60.
Balfour, M. C. The Fall of the Sparrow. Putnams. $1.
Bangs, J. K. Paste Jewels. Harpers. $1.
Barnard, J. H. The Naval Militiaman's Guide. D. Van Nostrand Co. $1.25.
Benning, Howe. The Benhurst Club; or, The Doings of Some Girls. Boston: The Pilgrim Press. $1.25.
Besant, Sir W., and Pollock, W. The Charm, and Other Drawing-Room Plays. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.
Besant, Sir Walter. A Fountain Sealed. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Bétis, Victor, and Swan, Howard. First Facts and Sentences in French. Scribners. 65c.
Bickford, L. H., and Powell, R. S. Phyllis in Bohemia. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Brown, Kate Z. The Plant Baby and its Friends. Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co. 48c.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 28, 1897.

The Week.

President McKinley may thank his stars that England rejected his free-silver proposals. If they had been accepted and reported to Congress, we should have seen a financial panic worse than that of 1893, and should have been face to face with an unparalleled political betrayal—nothing less than that of the chief of the party opposed to free silver at 16 to 1 doing his best to force free silver upon us at 15½ to 1. The very proposals which Senator Wolcott made in the name of the Government of the United States constitute a political scandal. When he told Lord Salisbury, as he did according to the official account of the conference, that "the American envoys had accepted the ratio of 15½ to 1," did he speak with President McKinley's authority? If he did not, there should be an instant disclaimer from Washington. If he did, we hope to hear no more of the opposition of the Administration to "Bryanism." Mr. McKinley has out-Bryaned Bryan. Moreover, there was not a word in Senator Wolcott's proposals looking to the maintenance of the gold standard; not a word about keeping silver up to a parity with gold; all was in the interest of free coinage of silver, pure and simple, and the gold standard might go hang. If Congress does not inquire into this scandal and demand the full correspondence and the text of Senator Wolcott's instructions, it will be recreant to its duty. Meanwhile, the firmness of the Indian Government, and the vigorous protests of English bankers and merchants, have saved not only England from the folly of her rulers, but the United States as well from the folly of their Government.

Platt is determined to connect the President with his fight against good government if it can possibly be done. He seems to have put great pressure on Gen. Butterworth, of the borough of Ohio, to get aid from him in this direction, for the General said in his speech in Brooklyn on Monday week: "On the evening of the 2d of November a telegraph message will be anxiously awaited at the White House. President McKinley said to me night before last, 'Ben, you know how earnestly I feel in regard to the triumph of the Republican party in Greater New York.'" That puts the President in the most attractive light before the machine workers, for what could be more winning than this picture of him laying his hand upon the General's shoulder and calling him "Ben"? And what a glorious triumph it will be for the "Republican party in Greater New York" if, in consequence of Platt's exertions, the effort to give it honest government shall be defeated and the city turned over to Tammany Hall for four years! The picture of a President of the United States yearning for a triumph of this sort is one of the most extraordinary ever laid before the country.

Secretary Cornelius N. Bliss presided last week at a Platt-Tracy ratification meeting in this city. The only object of that meeting was to persuade Republican citizens that they should throw away their votes upon Gen. Tracy, rather than give them to Mr. Low, because it is of more importance to save the "Republican organization" from humiliation than it is to save the city from Tammany rule. If Gen. Tracy were out of the field, there would not be a shadow of a doubt of Mr. Low's election. He remains in the field because Platt keeps him there, and Platt's excuse for keeping him there is that the Citizens' Union refused to coöperate with him in the selection of its candidate. Mr. Bliss said in January, 1896, that Platt was a politician "who deliberately acts so as to make it impossible for self-respecting men to be allied with him even for a good purpose." Is not that the exact position which the Citizens' Union took when it refused to confer with Platt? Mr. Bliss said also in January, 1896, that Platt's machine was based on an enrolment unprecedentedly "rotten," that it could not "command the confidence of the Republican party nor of the public," that it was "fraudulent and illegal," that "honest Republicans cannot support it, nor is there any basis on which they can cooperate with the men who have secured control of it by means of frauds which they refuse to undo." Mr. Platt and the organization which Mr. Bliss is now defending and supporting are precisely what they were in 1896. There has been no change whatever, except for the worse.

The distinction between "the organization" and the party, which Platt is making so clear in this city, has been brought home to the people of Pennsylvania more plainly than ever before by the President's gift of the consulate at Matanzas, Cuba, to State Senator Saylor. The Republicans of the Keystone State by an overwhelming majority are honest and respectable citizens, who want only honest and respectable men sent to represent this nation abroad; Senator Saylor was shown, a few months ago, to have been engaged in a disgraceful attempt to collect hundreds of dollars from the State Treasury to which he had no claim. The facts in the case were notorious, for Gov. Hastings set them forth in a message vetoing the theft. The scandal was so gross that the Quay machine shrank from the idea of nominating the swindler for a second term, because it feared that such a course would lose the party the county from which he comes. Self-respecting members of the Republican party throughout the State supposed that Saylor's political career was ended, and only regretted that he could not be sent to prison for his crime. "The organization," however, regarded Senator Saylor's attempt to swindle his fellow-citizens, not as an offence which should disqualify him for any place in the public service, but only as a reason why he should be given an office in which he would represent the United States in a foreign country. Quay, Penrose, and the rest asked President McKinley to give him such a place. As soon as this impudent scheme was broached, Mr. McKinley was advised of Saylor's disgraceful record by members of the Republican party not belonging to "the organization"—prominent citizens of Philadelphia, who are reputable business men. "The organization," however, was not at all disturbed by this protest from the ranks of the party, and its composure was justified by the result.

Chattanooga, Tenn., had a city election about the same time with Indianapolis, and the voters decided it in the same way—on the merits of the candidates, and without reference to their attitude on national issues. It happened in Chattanooga, as in Indianapolis, that the successful Democratic candidate was a silver man, but it was a mere chance, as was the fact that for the past six years the Tennessee city has had Democratic mayors who were "gold-bugs," although a majority of the voters are Republicans in national politics. The explanation of the silver man's success in Chattanooga was the fact that he had the cordial support of all Democrats and of many Republicans, on his merits as a candidate. In like manner the Silver Democrat who ran for reëlection in Indianapolis was supported by the Gold Democrats, on the ground that "the National Democratic party believes that national questions should have no place in any city election"; and that, while they emphatically repudiated and denounced the free-silver declaration in the platform on which Mayor Taggart was running, yet, "believing that his administration has been, in its main features, satisfactory and successful, and feeling that

his views on the financial question are not of the least importance, we are glad to endorse his candidacy and to pledge our earnest efforts to secure his re-election." Are the intelligent voters of this metropolis more gullible than those of Indianapolis or Chattanooga?

The question as to dismissals from the classified civil service without cause has worked out in the right way. The courts have very properly held that no rule can deprive an official of his legal right to remove a subordinate. It would be ruinous to discipline if any subordinate might at any time run to a court to make complaint that he was not being treated as he thought he ought to be. At the same time it is essential to the establishment of the merit system that the subordinate shall in some way be assured protection from the danger of removal without cause. This desirable result is accomplished by the decision of the Administration that each member of the cabinet shall issue regulations requiring that removals shall be made only for just cause and upon written charges, which the accused shall be allowed to answer. These regulations have not the legal force of law, but they will have all the moral power of the most vigorous statute if the head of each department requires them to be observed. Secretary Gage, for example, can make it clear at once that any internal-revenue collector who removes subordinates without cause will be removed himself, and there will never be another case of the same sort. Public opinion will render it impossible for a collector, postmaster, or other superior to make improper removals without an exposure which will involve the carrying of the offender's case to Washington, and each member of the cabinet is now going on record in a way which commits him to taking the proper action against the offender.

The one salient fact about the Union Pacific business is that the reorganization committee undertake now to pay $8,000,000 more than they had agreed to, in order to get possession of the road. In other words, instead of a compromise, by which a part of the Government's legal claim was to be sacrificed, the whole Government lien is to be paid off. This is to be done to avoid delays, the committee say, and to prevent the whole subject from being again made a football of by Congress. But we think they ought to explain more clearly how they suddenly find themselves able to pay $8,000,000 more than the sum they had fixed upon as the utmost limit. Is it improving business that has made the road more valuable? But should not shrewd men have foreseen that business would improve? We are aware that the Union Pacific Government directors and the officials of two administrations had advised accepting the syndicate's offer as the best obtainable; but it now appears that it was not the best obtainable by $8,000,000. This, we say, ought to be explained. Such transactions unexplained do more to promote Bryanism and Socialism than all the books and speeches together.

The lynching of five men at once by a mob in Indiana, a few weeks ago, was so extraordinary a performance for a long-settled State that any fresh light which may be cast upon it is welcome. The *Independent* publishes a valuable article from the Rev. Dr. D. W. Fisher, President of Hanover College, who has lived for nearly twenty years in an adjoining county and within about forty miles of the recent terrible slaughter. The region is in a somewhat stagnant condition, without being specially backward in what is commonly called civilization, while the population consists of the descendants of desirable settlers from the East and of "poor whites" who migrated thither from Kentucky, Virginia, and North Carolina. The people had been long terrorized by a gang of thieves and outlaws, who had been guilty, not only of robbery of all grades, but also of shocking brutality, one of their more recent barbarities having been the roasting of an old couple on a hot stove, to make them reveal the whereabouts of their money. There was a well-grounded conviction that any one who appeared in court to testify against one of this gang, did so at the peril of property or of life, and the result was that people had lost confidence in the courts as a means of relief. At the same time they remembered that on the line of one of the railways running through this locality, and not very far from it, a similar gang had been lynched years ago, and that the community had since been free from such a combination of criminals.

There seems no reason to expect that any punishment will ever be inflicted upon those responsible for this wholesale lynching. Every leading newspaper of Indiana has spoken out boldly in denunciation of the outrage, and a very large minority of the people, including not a few in the region of the crime, are of the same mind, in Dr. Fisher's opinion, while the Governor is doing all in his power to secure the arrest and punishment of the perpetrators. "But," he adds, "if a vote were polled on the basis of universal suffrage, my observation leads me to think that the majority would either be silent, or without reflection say to the mob, 'Well done.'" He is also of the opinion that the same would be true in a large part of the United States under similar circumstances. It is, therefore, highly improbable that a grand jury can be empanelled that will bring in an indictment of the lynchers, or that, if an indictment is found, conviction is possible.

The big-navy mania is again afflicting many great minds. Emperor William wants the Reichstag to vote him a fleet at least as large as that of France; he really ought to have one as large as those of France and Russia combined. But by the time he had it built, they would have doubled theirs. Meanwhile, England's announced policy is to have a navy equal to any two that could be brought against it. So there would be more building of ships necessary all round. It is this perception of the growing of the problem on your hands while you are solving it that stays even the impetuosity of Mr. Roosevelt. He wants a big navy, but when pressed as to figures takes refuge in vagueness. Should we have a navy as large as England's? "Well, I would not say that." As large as that of France or Russia? "No, I would not even say that at present." No such modesty, however, deters the naval contractor, Mr. Cramp, who recently expressed his ideas in the *North American*. He would have the American navy equal to any afloat, and the more contracts that are offered his firm, the higher will his patriotism rise.

Mr. George M. Pullman, whose sudden death was announced last week, was something more than a "captain of industry." In the latter capacity he had no superior in this country. The business enterprise that is associated with his name and is due to his initiative, is one of the largest that have ever been organized under a single head, and one of the most useful. He revolutionized the methods of railway travel, not because he was an inventor merely, but because he was a man of wide mental reach. The town of Pullman was founded by him, not as a benevolent undertaking, but as a business scheme purely. Mr. Pullman's idea was that by providing superior houses and accommodations for wage-workers, at the price usually paid for an inferior sort, he could command a superior class of workmen, and probably exert an educating and uplifting influence at the same time. The place was to be first of all a paying one, for if it were not such it could not last. Its success required that control of the buildings should reside in the company, since otherwise the sanitary and other regulations for sober and wholesome ways could not be maintained. These were considered by many persons as restrictions on liberty. All such were free to live outside the town. While this notable experiment was proceeding, the Debs strike took place. It did not grow out of the previous re-

duction of wages, or as a consequence of the hard times. It came a year later, when some outside person or committee demanded a restoration of the old rates before any restoration of business had taken place. Mr. Pullman said that the company was even then building cars at a loss, and that the demand for a restoration of wages would necessitate a still greater loss, and if granted would soon end in closing the works. Mr. Debs, an outsider, then took the matter in charge, and ordered a strike in the Pullman works, and afterwards a series of strikes on all Western railways that hauled Pullman cars. The results are too recent to need recapitulation. One of the incidents was a demand by Debs and other outside persons that Mr. Pullman should submit to arbitration the question whether he could afford to pay the increased wages, which he promptly declined to do, saying it was useless to submit the question to arbitration, unless he intended to abide by an adverse award (if it should be given), which was financially impossible. In this he was clearly in the right, and his firmness was worthy of all praise. The present prosperity of the town of Pullman and of its laboring population is due to his firmness and sagacity then.

As bearing upon the great strike of the English engineers, the editor of the London *Iron and Coal Trades Review*, Mr. J. S. Jeans, published a remarkable letter in the London *Times* arguing that Great Britain can no longer compete with the United States in the production of either pig iron or finished steel. His point was, of course, that the engineers could not afford to demand too much of a trade which was bound in any event to decline. But for readers on this side of the Atlantic the following is the notable part of his letter:

"I know a good deal of the conditions in Great Britain. I thought I had ascertained something of the conditions in the United States, as the result of several visits to that country, and of having had large and perhaps unexcelled opportunities of seeing the progress there made in manufacturing industry. But I confess I was totally unprepared for the figures which large American manufacturers have placed before me as to the cost of production at their numerous and colossal establishments. I cannot, of course, submit these figures to your readers, nor is it necessary in this connection, even if it were expedient, to refer to the details of particular firms. Those who are really concerned to know the truth can convince themselves without much difficulty of the superior economic situation enjoyed by the United States. The cost of producing Bessemer pig iron in the most favorable circumstances is now in that country 10s. to 15s. per ton less than the corresponding cost in Great Britain. The difference in the cost of producing a ton of steel is at least as much, and in the majority of cases is likely to be a good deal more. I know of cases where the labor-cost on a ton of billets and rails is 25 to 35 per cent. less than the lowest labor-cost I have ever heard of in this country, although the rate of wages paid in America is materially higher. Quite a number of iron-works in this country pay from 15s. to 17s. 6d. per ton for their coke, which in the neighborhood of Pittsburgh is delivered at works for 5s. to 6s. per ton."

In view of these facts, which the success of American firms in outbidding English manufacturers on contracts for steel rails in India and Japan amply confirms, what are we to say of the iron and steel schedules of the "fairest" and most "scientific" tariff ever framed? American pig iron is cheaper by from $2.50 to $3.75 a ton than English, yet the fair and scientific Dingley writes down a protection of $4 a ton for the American article. With steel rails made in this country at from 25 to 35 per cent. less cost than in England, they had to be protected by Dingley at $7 a ton, or their manufacture would cease. What is the real reason for duties so demonstrably needless? We may get light from the action of the glass-manufacturers. They got their needless duties out of Dingley, and then, in spite of the appeals and warnings of the *Tribune*, formed a Trust, at once advanced the price of glass five per cent., and say it will be increased another five in November. That is the only remaining reason for a whole line of Dingley duties—they are put on, not to protect the manufacturer against competitors whom he is actually beating in foreign markets, but to enable him to enter into a Trust and exact a higher price from the American consumer than the foreign consumer has to pay for the same article. This may be fair and this may be scientific, but if so, it is only because it is a fair and scientific way of cheating.

The Spanish complication is evidently entering upon another stage, though as to what it is to be, the contradictory dispatches leave us in the usual uncertainty. According to one "trustworthy" telegram, Sagasta has accepted our mediation; according to another, equally trustworthy, he has resented its very proffer, and has replied that "Spain will not admit the right of any foreign Power to interfere in any of her affairs." We must say we think the latter answer is the one most likely to have been given, however carefully the language may have been guarded. At Washington they still say that there is no reason for Spain to have taken offence at Mr. McKinley's communication, it was so "friendly." But it is not manner that counts in these things; what was the substance of Gen. Woodford's note to the Spanish Government? If it intimated our right to interfere in Cuba, in the remotest degree, it could not have been received by Spain as a friendly note. No polite phrases could obscure the fact that it was, in effect, an affront to Spanish sovereignty. Mr. McKinley may be anxious to have it appear, in case of trouble, that it was Spain, not he, that was in the wrong. That is only natural; but the account will have to be made up on the basis of what was said, not of the polite manner of saying it.

The repression of free speech in Germany goes on unsparingly. Herr Liebknecht has just been sentenced to four months' imprisonment for having said, two years ago: "Under the protection of the highest authority in the state, insults are now being hurled at Social Democracy; under the protection of the highest authority the gauntlet is thrown down before the party, a challenge to battle for life or death." He denied, on trial, having intended any insult to the Emperor, but the upright judge held that, whatever the intention of the speech, it was addressed to an audience that might misinterpret it, and therefore to jail Herr Liebknecht must go for *lèse-majesté*. That is to say, an old gentleman above seventy, representing the political party which casts more votes than any other in Germany, is sentenced for a political address which in England or France or the United States, or even in Spain or Italy, would have passed almost without notice. This is tantamount to saying that members of the German Parliament, as well as the German press and the universities, must say nothing about politics that can possibly give the Emperor displeasure. A great empire is thus condemned to the strictest silence. This cannot go on.

The impudence of the Sultan in his letter to the Powers, urging them to hurry up and accept his plans for the government of Crete, fully appears only when we remember what the plan was which the Powers had announced as their own. This was explained by Mr. Curzon in the House of Commons on July 19 last. First, the Powers had agreed to "the appointment of a European Governor" for Crete. The Sultan now notifies them that he is going to appoint a Turkish Governor. Next, said Mr. Curzon, there was to be a local gendarmerie, and the Turkish troops were to be withdrawn. Not at all, says the Sultan, the troops are to stay to keep order. The next of the "principles," which, according to Lord Salisbury's mouthpiece, had been "acquiesced in without exception by all the Powers," was the issue of a loan to meet the expenses of the new régime and the convocation of a Cretan General Assembly. The Porte agrees to the loan—the Powers may loan it as much money as they please; but the rest of their "principles" are treated with contempt. The Sultan evidently means to rule Crete according to his own fancy, and to pay no attention at all, unless forced to, to the solemn "bases" of the Powers. Residents in the island, as well as the foreign forces there, have no illusions on this point. M. Gustave Larroumet, writing to the *Figaro* from Canea, reports the universal opinion of Europeans—sailors, soldiers, and diplomats—to be that "the Turks do not mean to leave."

THE GRAVITY OF THE RESULT.

The London *Spectator* says "the [New York] election has a deep interest also for the whole civilized world," as well as the American people. "Modern civilization is essentially a city civilization, and if the democratic principle cannot solve the problem of city life, it is doomed." We believe that this very idea is, at this moment, clearly or obscurely, consciously or unconsciously, at the bottom of most of the excitement we are now witnessing in this city. People are slowly beginning to comprehend that we are playing a far deeper and more serious game than the mere election of a Mayor, even of a Mayor as powerful as that of Greater New York. We are, in fact, witnessing the first real attempt of democracy to deal with its city question, and, considering the way the world is going, this attempt is of immense interest to every country in Christendom. If we succeed, it is a great event for every country as well as ours. If we fail—if, after the case has been laid before the public in the plainest way, we return to the old régime—if a majority says that it prefers the old régime, that Croker and Platt and all the bosses are good enough for it, we do not hesitate to say that the news will be received all over the world with consternation, as a veritable catastrophe for free government. It will stimulate everywhere the growing trend towards Cæsarism. The well-governed cities of the world thus far have not been democratically governed. The question whether democracy *can* govern a city is still unsettled. We are working out the experiment for the benefit of mankind. What Longfellow said of the Union is in a measure true of the Low movement in this city at this moment:

> "Humanity with all its fears,
> With all the hopes of future years,
> Is hanging breathless on thy fate."

The fact is, we have reached the parting of the ways. Our cities, in spite of ourselves, in spite of the secret dread of the country districts, have grown at an enormous pace. The inhabitants of every country are doing what ours are doing, pouring into the places in which population is largest and most concentrated, where most enjoyment of life is to be had, most society, most amusement, readiest employment, and easiest locomotion. The movement is as irresistible as the tides. It has modern science and invention, in every field, behind it. Through it the modern world is a new world, such as the ancients never dreamed of. The face of the country is not greatly changed since Cato's time. There may be more and better cultivation, but "the happy autumn fields" still wear the brown and draw the tears of two thousand years ago. The cities are a new feature in our landscape, as different in size, and in arrangement, from the ancient world as can well be imagined, and their government is rendered tenfold more difficult than that of the ancient cities, in that it receives no help from religion, or superstition, or ancient tradition. We have to get these heterogeneous masses to make themselves comfortable and healthy solely by appeals to their reason. We have no gods of Rome to invoke. Our arguments have to be pure business and utilitarianism.

But, until within a very few years, we had never recognized that the cities and democracy together had come upon us in a furious torrent, for which we had not made the slightest preparation, and that if channels, and locks, and wharves were not provided for both, they would ruin us. We were first startled into consciousness of the situation by the Tweed frauds, but our alarm lasted only about two years. We relapsed into indolent indifference, and the crisis continued to gain in gravity, until at last, instead of one boss like Tweed, we found ourselves under the dominion of two, who not only governed us by turns, but had also subjugated the country as well as the city. To stop where we are would be one of the most tremendous failures of history. The gradual destruction of popular government would go on, and it would be found before long that the cities had become simply places from which bosses drew money for the destruction of public liberty. It is the growing perception of this fact that has led to the Low movement, and has caused the world to fix its eyes on us, as men who are really fighting one of the great battles of civilization, such as Charles Martel won at Tours over the Saracens.

Should Low win, it will put an end to the boss system of government in city affairs. It will put an end to the boss system of nomination, which is at present ruining American public life by the exclusion of everybody who does not satisfy one ignorant and corrupt man. It will introduce a new system of nomination, which will stimulate popular interest in politics by the large number of persons whom it calls on to take part in the choice of candidates. Though last, not least, it will open a new era in American cities, by the recognition of the fact that their affairs are business, not politics; that people's lives and health and the education of their children are to the masses the main interest of government. It will show, in short, for the first time, that a city can be well governed by universal suffrage. The importance of this to democracy can hardly be overrated. It is no wonder the world is watching anxiously for the result.

A COUNSEL OF PERFECTION.

Henry George has more than once threatened Croker with the penitentiary if he ever gets the power to put him in it. We are not sure that his threat did not also cover Platt, for Platt's offences against the community are of precisely the same character. He gets his money in much the same way, but instead of spending it in personal indulgence, as Croker does, he allows a certain portion to be diverted to his sons' firms, so as to be ostensibly pocketed by the young men. But, whatever the words he used, George's threat feels like a breath of fresh air passing through a close room. Nothing else we have heard in this canvass sounds so like an assurance that we have a man among us whose sense of proportion and of right and wrong has not been dulled by long use, and who has managed to retain his share of the old American civic courage. The putting of Platt and Croker in jail ought to be the final cause of the present conflict. It will be well to elect Low, but the work will not be complete as long as these two tremendous criminals stalk abroad. This is the ultimate end which every man now supporting Low ought to have in view. It was the great object of such reformers as Samuel J. Tilden and Charles O'Conor in 1870. They sought, it is true, to overthrow the Tweed régime, but they never rested until they had the whole Tweed gang in custody or had put them to flight. That is the way to reform such abuses as we are contending with. The way to talk about the malefactors who have carried them on is the way Henry George talks; and the intentions he holds with regard to them are those which we should all cherish. We do not assert they are capable of execution. Doubtless it will prove only a counsel of perfection to say that both these men ought to be at hard labor in the penitentiary; but counsels of perfection, at all events, are good for the soul.

Consider what has happened. We give a cheat of one small district six years in the penitentiary. These two men have stolen every district in the State, and the city as well. They have actually appropriated the two branches of the Legislature and made them and every prominent public officer the subservient instruments of their will. Platt has actually stolen the governorship and given it to an accomplice. He has through his agents imposed a charter on the city, in the teeth of the remonstrances of every instrument of expression the city possesses, and has employed in the drafting of it a partner of his son's and a strongly suspected ex-mayor of Croker's. To accomplish all this, he has extorted in very large sums money properly belonging to widows and orphans and innocent third parties, fraudulently surrendered to him by cowardly officers of corporations. They both have done, in short, by intrigue what Louis Napoleon did in Paris in 1851 by force of arms. But there were Frenchmen who gave

the crime and the criminal their right name, and Frenchmen who refused to live under them; and the régime thus set up had to be maintained by martial law. We have sat for ten years under ours, timidly and meekly, peaceably and, at most, cynically. We have been content to use Platt even when it suited our purposes. He was thoroughly exposed in 1896, before the election, by the Committee of Thirty, but, far from being repudiated or pursued criminally, he was gladly protected, so that he might help elect McKinley and protect us against Bryan! This one incident alone, even if it had not been followed by the awful spectacle of 1897, when this one man ordered his own return to the United States Senate, by a venal and silent Legislature, with only a handful of journals outside this city protesting, ought to make us blush in the dark. Compared to this, what are McKane's crimes? What were poor Maynard's? Why, mere bagatelles.

The fact is, disguise it as we may, the patient attitude of the men of this State and city during the last ten years towards these two criminals might well, as the poet says, make "the pale young mother" fear to "boast a man is born." Anything to equal our supineness while our political system was being altered, and our government was being stolen from us by a foreign ruffian and a common American cheat, is not to be found in history. We say deliberately, and challenge contradiction, that there is no other case on record where men submitted to the modifications made in their political system over a series of years, such as have been made in ours, by these two men, without making some attempt at resistance, without some attempt to put the law in force, or, failing the law, to try the sword. It is altogether an exceptional as well as a shameful record.

We are, therefore, thankful to Henry George for reminding us that it is not politics but crime we are dealing with, and it is not the ballot so much as the jailer that we need. We hear it said that we cannot get at Croker and Platt legally because they are not in office. But what difference does this make? What does this show except that our laws are defective? When we see what they have done and are doing with impunity, we learn that a new form of crime has been started among us, which calls for fresh legislation and prompt punishment. When we found that two men could ruin our government and levy blackmail without exposing themselves to indictment, our duty was to make their conduct indictable, not to sit down and cry, or lament over the degeneracy of the age. It was not possible, of course, to get the necessary legislation passed by Platt's Legislature; but it was our duty as American citizens to get a Legislature that was not Platt's and never rest till we got it. What has become of the Americans who fought through the civil war, and drove Tweed into the penitentiary and Connolly into exile? We hear on every side that we are prosperous, but what kind of prosperity is it which the slaves of two "bunco-steerers" enjoy?

THE SPOILSMEN AND THE INDIAN AGENCIES.

Rumors are afloat, too definite in form to be ignored with safety, to the effect that a group has been organized in Congress, headed by Senator Elkins, to press upon the national Administration the dismissal of several of the army officers now detailed as acting agents in the Indian service, and substitute civilians for them. Everybody knows what this means. It is a trick to recover some of the spoils of which recent advances in civil-service reform have stripped the party in power, and thus to replenish the campaign bribery-chest.

The law on this subject is so explicit that the humblest intelligence can grasp it. Every order issued from Washington to an army officer, detailing him to an Indian agency, cites the statute by title and date as proof of the President's authority. It requires, in the plainest of plain English, that, whenever practicable, army officers shall be employed as agents. Repeated efforts have been made by spoilsmen in Congress to procure its repeal, but thus far without avail. Successive administrations have evaded it as far as they dared, however, and the temper of the present Administration is still an uncertain quantity. The Elkins contingent will first try to "work" the President and Secretary Bliss without resort to any change of law. If they fail in that, their next effort will be to insert a repeal clause in the Indian appropriation bill, either boldly, by an appeal to the worst instincts of the Western Congressmen, or by the same underhand methods as were employed in the case of the notorious section 22 in the Dingley tariff act.

The control of two agencies especially appears to be a matter of concern to the spoils gang just now. One of these is the Kiowa and Comanche agency, with headquarters at Anadarko, Oklahoma; the other is the Pine Ridge agency in South Dakota. Major F. D. Baldwin, the acting agent for the Kiowas and Comanches, has, in the face of many drawbacks, accomplished a great deal for the civilization of these Indians. He has given the progressive elements among them a fresh impulse in life. With his aid they have built houses and planted farms and laid up money; and their latest notable act was the offer of a handsome sum toward the endowment of a school for the better education of their children. But an agent with advanced ideas of this sort—one who regards the Indian as a man, and not as an automaton to be played with, or a dog to have bones thrown to him from the table of the good-natured Caucasian—must necessarily fall under the displeasure of the sordid element in both races. On nearly every reservation there are factions, and the war between them has all the exaggerated bitterness which marks the family feud wherever we find it. Among the Kiowas and Comanches there is such a division, and the reactionary faction has made an alliance with a licensed trader who has been in the habit, under former agents, of "running things" on the reservation, politically, financially, and otherwise. The paid attorneys and spokesmen for this thrifty merchant have kept Major Baldwin in trouble at Washington for the last year, and one of them has boasted that they would induce the present Administration to oust him, even though they failed with its predecessor. The programme is to substitute for him a Republican politician from Maryland who was an agent during President Harrison's term, and whose record may be summed up by saying that the best thing he ever did for his Indians was to bid them good-by.

The other army officer whose head the spoilsmen demand is Major William H. Clapp, whose work at Pine Ridge has been, though in a somewhat different field, along the same lines as Major Baldwin's at Anadarko. The Pine Ridge Indians are Sioux, and the Sioux are in some respects the most difficult of Indians to deal with. They are suspicious, stiff-necked, and very proud of the warlike traditions of their nation. These traits are sometimes so much in evidence as to overshadow those sturdy virtues which inhere in them as Northern Indians, indifferent to the rigors of a trying climate and hardened to privations and fatigue. Firmness, tact, and infinite patience are the qualities needed in an agent who has the management of such a people. Major Clapp has succeeded notably in getting on with them, and after years of service as their agent enjoys the confidence of the best men in the tribe. The prime source of the movement against him is not a faction within the reservation, but a gang of white cattlemen outside. Ever since he has had charge at Pine Ridge these fellows have given him trouble. They graze their cattle on the borders of the reservation, and the animals, of course, wander across the line and crop the pastures belonging to the Indians. In one instance, not long ago, an inspection of some eighty miles of the Northern border showed that the trespassing herds had denuded a strip varying from ten to thirty miles in width along this whole line—in other words, a tract of perhaps 1,600 square miles. This, let it be noted, was not through

the ignorance or inadvertence of the cattlemen, but with their full knowledge. It is as much a part of the business of the ordinary frontiersman to feed his stock on Indian grass as to save expense in any other way.

By his activity for the suppression of these poaching practices, Major Clapp has made himself a target for the assaults of the cattlemen. They have had him "investigated" on one contemptible charge or another; and when he once carried their aggressions into court and was on the eve of punishing them, they contrived, through the same politicians at Washington who are now proposing to administer Secretary Bliss's office for him, to have the prosecutions suddenly stopped. If Mr. Bliss allows these people to use him, he will not be able to plead ignorance as an excuse for the scandals which will smirch his administration. The official records of his own office contain all the evidence necessary to protect him from the wiles of the conspirators. If he needs outside assistance he knows where he can get it, for there are as many honest men ready to aid him in defending the Indians as there are rogues bent on robbing them. If he will scan the list of South Dakota politicians who are pressing the claims of the chief civilian candidate for Major Clapp's place, he will find that the most prominent of them are shareholders in, or attorneys for, cattle companies which would profit by the substitution of a friendly and easy-going agent for one who is hostile and fearless.

The appointment of the present Secretary of the Interior was hailed by many honest citizens everywhere as a promise of good conduct for a great department of the government. So far, Mr. Bliss has shown more interest in the political bearings of his work, at Washington and elsewhere, than in any other phase of it. The cases of the Indian agencies we have mentioned, however, present to him a clear issue of decency versus degradation, apart entirely from any political aspect; and such charity as the public may have been disposed to extend to some of his earlier shortcomings, in view of his inexperience in dealing with large public affairs, will be promptly withdrawn if, with his eyes wide open, he surrenders any more of his important trust into the hands of the spoilers.

THE BIMETALLIC FIASCO.

Lord Salisbury, being very humorous, might enjoy a laugh at his own expense upon reading the reply of the Indian Government to the bimetallic proposals. It has been the contention of the bimetallists that we need a stable par of exchange between gold-using and silver-using countries, and especially between England and India. This has been Mr. Arthur Balfour's shibboleth from the start, and Lord Salisbury has been so overmastered by it that, even in his final reply to the Wolcott commission, he repeated his hope that some other proposals might be advanced having that end in view. And now the Indian Government tells him that they have achieved their desideratum by stopping the coinage of silver, and that the bimetallic scheme, if adopted, would accomplish what? The rate of exchange would rise 100 per cent. at one bound, and trade and industry throughout the Indian empire would be convulsed. This would happen if the aims of the bimetallists were gained. The first of these aims is to make silver and gold exchange with each other at the ratio of 15½ to 1. At the present time they exchange at the metallic ratio of say 36 to 1. The pecuniary affairs of the Indian Government and people have adjusted themselves to the present status. Whether it be a desirable one *per se* or not, society is now embedded in it and accustomed to it. The present status has come about slowly during a quarter of a century. The proposal now is to undo it suddenly by artificial means, making every rupee worth double what it is now, and compelling every debtor to pay double what he owes. The changed relations of buyers and sellers, of employers and employees, of debtors and creditors would be immense and instantaneous—that is, if the desires of the bimetallists should be realized. If they should not be realized, something else would happen; nobody knows what. They might be half realized, in which case the rise of exchange would be only 50 per cent.

What next? The Indian Government believes that the rise in value of the rupee under free coinage could not be maintained. The ratio of gold to silver must, after the first spurt, be determined by their respective costs of production. So a reverse movement would begin. Speculators would carry the rate of exchange up in the first instance and down in the second. At present the rupee sells in the market at 16d. English, which is 6 or 7d. above its bullion value. When free coinage was stopped, the rupee ceased to follow the fluctuations of silver. It was slightly affected by them at first, but, as time passed, the influence of the metal became less and less. By and by the law of supply and demand became supreme over the rupee, and since the quantity cannot be increased, its value as coin has risen above its value as bullion to the point originally aimed at by the Government, viz., 16d. In other words, the par of exchange between England and India, which Mr. Balfour and the Manchester spinners have been so long waiting for, has been actually secured. (This fact was shown clearly by Lord Farrer in the *Times* weeks ago.) This boon has been gained by stopping the free coinage of silver. That act cut the ligament which made the value of the rupee the same as that of the bullion contained in it. To restore the ligament, says the Indian Government, would be to drag the value of the rupee down to that of silver after the first upward spurt. It would fall back not to 16d. merely, but to 9d., and this would involve fresh taxation to the amount of many millions to meet the Government's sterling obligations. The rupee would first be shot up to two shillings and then down to 9d., to be followed by endless variations in the future, and all this by way of steadying the par of exchange.

The lecture read by the Indian financiers to the home Government is very droll, but not less amusing is the haste with which the French politicians are running to cover. They were mortally afraid that England would join in a new conference, and do or say something which would compel them to show their hand. No power could have brought France in the last resort to the silver standard or the double standard, no matter how many nations might have joined in the folly, but the present Ministry might have been upset. The present Ministry depends on the agricultural interest chiefly, which has about the same proportion of blockheads that has been observed in Germany and the United States—people who believe that silver demonetization depresses the price of wheat, people who have their own "crime of 1873" to muddle with. Hence the Ministry must go as far as possible in the direction of bimetallism to satisfy the peasant farmers, but not far enough to overturn the standard of value and lose the gold piled up in the Bank of France. The French newspapers, having no fear of peasant farmers before their eyes, say frankly that they have escaped a great danger and they are extremely glad. Instead of feeling irritation against England for her refusal to join in another international "big talk," they are thankful to her for getting them out of a bad scrape.

The business interests of the United States are under similar obligations. The Wolcott commission represented politics only, and only a small part of that. The real silverites, the party of Bryan, had no share in it. A new international conference would have been a damper on them while it lasted. In the improbable event of reaching a bimetallic agreement they would have been out of a job entirely. Their occupation would have been gone as completely as Othello's, and in any event they would have been hushed to silence for a time. They had looked at the Wolcott commission askance from the beginning, because "there was nothing in it for them." The only party, or faction, that had any real interest in it was the small moiety of Republicans who

have been playing with silver and depreciated currencies of one kind and another for twenty or thirty years. They were pretty well weeded out in the campaign of last year, but there are some left, and President McKinley is one of them. They, too, ought to be grateful to England for letting them out of a bad scrape, since a new failure in a new international conference, coming on the eve of a new Presidential election, would have been a powerful weapon in the hands of the Bryanites.

JUSTIN WINSOR.

The death of Justin Winsor removes another of the pioneers in the remarkable work of library development of the past quarter-century. The chronology of his life is simple. He was born January 2, 1831, studied a while at Harvard with the class of 1853, but soon went to the University of Heidelberg because the Harvard of those days could not, he thought, furnish him the education which he desired. In 1868, however, Harvard gave him the degree of bachelor of arts. In the same year he was, on Mr. Jewett's death, chosen librarian of the Boston Public Library, of which he had been a trustee for one year. This office he held for ten years, and then accepted the librarianship of Harvard College, which he had held for twenty years at the time of his death. He was President for the first ten years of the American Library Association, and has been President of the American Historical Society and Secretary and Vice-President of the Massachusetts Historical Society.

As President of the American Library Association, Mr. Winsor was the official head of his profession in the United States. By his position as head of the greatest library on the continent (for at that time the Library of Congress was not so large as the Boston Public), and by the way in which he administered it, he became the best-known librarian in the country. This position was owing, however, much more to his forceful personality and great executive ability than to any special originality in library economy. He had the born organizer's eye for the choice of his subordinates, with the power of impressing himself upon them and an inexhaustible supply of energy to make the machine go. Of a conservative temperament, he was not much in favor of innovations in library methods. He carried the library on substantially on the lines of his predecessors, but he developed the efficiency of their ideas to the utmost. He took a library of (in round numbers) 150,000 volumes, with a circulation of 175,000 volumes a year and an organization which, to say the least, creaked a little; he left, after ten years, a library of 310,000 volumes, circulating 1,140,000 volumes a year, and running so smoothly that for a long time after he resigned the charge it was not perceived that there was no librarian, though his provisional successors, men eminent in their several ways, were not especially fitted for librarianship either by nature or by training. But the library, though successfully managed internally, ceased almost at once to be of any account in the library world.

Though conservative, Mr. Winsor was by no means a librarian of the old school. He cared more for the diffusion of knowledge than for the piling up of books—less, in technical library language, for acquisition than for use. Under his management the issue of books at the Boston Public Library far outran anything that had been known before, though of late years many libraries have equalled it and some have surpassed it. It was thought by some that this great circulation was built up by methods of doubtful expediency, that many books of the feeblest character and others of the most sensational kind had been put upon the shelves to attract the lower classes of readers, who, of course, are the most numerous, so that the great number of books issued only meant so much more unprofitable reading. This is not the place to discuss whether libraries supported by public taxation have a right to refuse to get any class of literature which a large number of their clients demand, nor the other question whether the so-called "trashy" literature is not the best that many feeble minds (who certainly should be provided with some reading) can enjoy, nor the third question, whether "trash" leads its readers up to better books. However that may be, the supply of cheap fiction was largely diminished by his successors, and a certain number of books that had been objected to on moral grounds were removed from the shelves; the circulation fell off considerably.

When the City Councilmen of Boston showed how little they appreciated Mr. Winsor's services by assenting to the Mayor's remark that the first man met on the street would make as good a librarian, President Eliot profited by their blindness to secure for Harvard College a librarian who would be in sympathy with the new methods of teaching that were coming to the front in the college. Mr. Winsor had gone away twenty-five years before because he perceived the inadequacy of the old system. Of course he heartily sympathized with the new one, which necessarily made the library the centre of all study. All his arrangements were made to increase its efficiency in this line. Before assuming his new office he headed, as president, a delegation of the American Library Association who went to London to assist at the birth of the Library Association of the United Kingdom. He presided at several sessions, and much astonished the meeting by the Reedian promptness with which he suppressed superfluous talk—Englishmen in that, as in some other matters, having much more freedom than Americans.

The appointment to Harvard College Library, while it withdrew him to a considerable extent from active participation in library progress, gave him the opportunity to appear before the world in a new character. A company of gentlemen undertook, under his guidance, to write the history of Boston in a series of essays. The work, admirably planned and thoroughly done, had the usual defects of conjoint authorship, but the editorship was something very unusual. Never before in this country had such a wealth of bibliographical learning been lavished on all the details of a subject. Competent writers, after weeks of special study of their topics, found that the editor could add pages of references from his memory or his notes. It was said that the editor's footnotes were the best part of some of the essays; or, as one expressed it, the cream of the work was at the bottom. This success led to a similar undertaking, the ten large volumes of the 'Narrative and Critical History of America,' in which there is the same ample supply of bibliographical information. The whole literature of the subject—books, manuscripts, engravings, maps, in public libraries or in private hands—was drawn upon, and, where desirable, the relative value of authorities was weighed either in notes or in the critical essay appended to each chapter. The work is too heavy in two senses to be popular, but it will long be the most consulted by the scholar of all upon its subject. Mr. Winsor's historical works were the fruit of constant, assiduous, intense labor. He neglected no pains to make them thorough; but, as he was practical, he did not defer publication in the hope of an unattainable perfection. The list of titles of his books and pamphlets is too long to be given here.

If his death had happened ten years ago, he would have been equally missed by historians and librarians, but, as was natural, in proportion as his historical activity increased, his interest in general library affairs diminished, and, though his historical labors may not have lessened his care for his own library, they left him little time to attend to what was going on outside. But this present year, at the unanimous desire of the leaders in the Association, he consented to be their president for the second International Library Congress in London, where he displayed an interest and a strength which made his sudden decease a double shock to his companions.

No doubt he will be longer and better known as a bibliographer and historian than as a librarian, for the reputation of a librarian is almost as fleeting as the more widely extended fame of an actor or a singer. Unless he leaves behind him a building, like Panizzi's British Museum Reading-Room, he must rely for his chance of remembrance upon some unusual accomplishment, as Magliabecchi's knowledge of languages, or upon eminence in some other pursuit than librarianship.

THE FRICTION IN THE PITTSBURGH COAL FIELD.

PITTSBURGH, October 20, 1897.

In this district there are about 150 mines, with a capacity of about 30,000,000 tons of coal per annum, and about 25,000 miners, while there is demand for only about 15,000,000 tons of coal and about 12,000 miners. The large profits formerly obtained in the coal industry led to the rapid increase of production, often through the schemes of the speculative promoter. Many farmers and others have been willing to lease their underlying coal for a certain sum per ton, to be paid as royalty as the coal is mined. It has therefore been easy for the operator with little capital to force his way into the market, and the facilities for borrowing money have enabled him to remain in competition with capital directly invested. The increase in the number of miners is largely due to the high tide of immigration of the preceding decade.

In the fierce competition the selling price of coal has been so reduced that it is difficult for an operator to obtain the revenue barely necessary to keep his mine in operation. He is continually struggling in the markets for business and besieging the railroads for lower freight rates. Bitter has

become the hatred between operator and operator, and direful has been the effect upon the miners' wage. Every subterfuge has been used to obtain an advantage in the markets, and rebate or other stealthy device of one railway is met by stealthy device of another until neither operator nor railway knows what rate of freight is accorded other operators by other railways.

The wage for mining has been reduced to the point of bare subsistence, and through trickery and oppression many operators have still further ground the miners down. Exorbitant rents are exacted for houses which the operators own; exorbitant prices are exacted for goods obtained under compulsion in company stores, and more miners than are needed are employed that there may be increased sales at the stores. False scales and dishonest screens credit the miner with but three-fourths or one-half of the coal which he has dug. When the miners are thus robbed, the expense for digging is a matter of vague estimate; the selling price of coal falls below what would be the cost of production if the price for digging were an actual price.

The prevalence of these practices was proved by sworn testimony at an investigation of the committee of the Legislature of Pennsylvania, held in Pittsburgh in the spring of this year, and the tenacity of their root is marked by the rancor with which rival operators have persecuted the company which long ago abolished its stores, and affords abundant facility for any one to ascertain that it pays for every pound of coal that is dug, as weighed by accurate scales and measured by honest screens.

The majority of the miners are now Frenchmen, Italians, Poles, Hungarians, and others of the Slavic races, and in some of the mines negroes are employed in large numbers. The various characteristics of this mixture of races, the inherited superstitions which are deepened by the darkness and solitude in which the miners work, have made their government difficult for the operators, and the workings of the miners' unions and their officers have disclosed the lack of balance necessarily coming from a constituency of such diverse elements, so little guided by reason. Agitators who play upon the passions and the prejudices of the miners are chosen to the official positions, and then, when facts compel less radical counsel, are overthrown, often after the suspicion (which frequently is well-founded) that they have played into the hands of operators for a pecuniary consideration. The miners, when at work, are loath to part with the pittance for dues to the union, from which they then apparently derive no benefit, and when idle have not even the pittance. The officers of the unions, if not supported by the miners, must derive their support from other sources.

Operators who use machines that do part of the work of mining, pay for digging coal at certain percentages of the price paid for pick mining, and these percentages have been so low that at a comparatively high price for pick mining the cost of producing machine-mined coal is much less than the cost of producing pick-mined coal. The operators who adhere to the use of picks are, therefore, compelled to pay a low mining price, that the advantage obtained by the use of machines may not be greater than is warranted by the increased productiveness and intrinsic advantage of the machines. It is, therefore, to the interest of the machine operators to aid in maintaining as high a rate for pick mining as practicable, and operators who rob their miners through company stores, false weights, and dishonest screens have greater gain through such thefts at a high than at a low mining price. Therefore, these operators work in collusion with the officers of the miners' unions that they may retain the low percentages, which increase the advantage that would naturally be obtained by the use of machines; the company that has no stores, pays at honest weights, and does not use machines, being the especial object of their attack.

The capacity for overproduction has made ferocious the conflicts between these warring elements. The result is chaos in the industry. For years the profit of the operator has been naught, and in many cases abject poverty the reward of the miner. Even at a low mining price he often has but two or three days of work a week and is allowed to load but one or two pit wagons a day. During the winter of 1896-'7, the destitution of the miners became so great that public charity and the aid of the county homes for the poor were solicited in their behalf. The committee of the Legislature of Pennsylvania, after a personal investigation, strongly corroborated the reports of their destitution, but said that at the mines where there were no company stores, where miners were paid by accurate scales and honest screens, their condition was as prosperous and the miners as contented as could be expected under the general depression of the industry. Notwithstanding these facts, which the miners' leaders themselves have admitted time and again, these same miners' leaders, at the instigation of rival operators, send hordes of strikers and bands of music to the mines where it is conceded that honest practices prevail, to induce the miners to strike, insisting that their employers pay on an honest basis the same price per ton for digging coal as other operators whom they know to cheat their men, and from whom they have time and again received money for one purpose and another. And this in spite of a growing sentiment which the Pittsburgh *Dispatch* voices in the editorial statement that "Certainly it would be more appropriate to fight against the operators who try to continue the old abuses than to keep it up against one who refuses to do anything of the sort."

It is undoubtedly the case that general relief will come only when a number of the mines are forced out of business and a number of the miners seek employment at other kinds of work. It is impossible for 150 mines to thrive when seventy-five are sufficient, and for 25,000 miners to make a living when there is work but for 12,000. In the past year or two several of the companies have failed, insolvency in cases revealing the grossest mismanagement and misappropriation of funds. It may be that a beneficent result could be hastened by the combination of a limited number of the mines which, by location and management, are best adapted to supply the markets. Such a combination, to market the largest quantities of coal, and thereby do business upon the large scale which in these times alone is profitable, would be obliged to make the selling price of coal so low as to hold its own in competitive markets with the mines of other districts, and so low as to drive other mines in the same district out of the market. To this end it would have to be sufficiently powerful to secure the lowest rates of freight from the different railways; it would be obliged to adhere to the strictest economy in all the details of operation, to accord honest treatment to its miners, and, that they might make living wages even at a low mining price, to give them steady employment during the entire year.

If there were similar combinations of mines in different districts, instead of the clashing of individual operators which works not only to their individual injury, but also to the injury of the district as a whole, it would be possible to adjust competitive markets between different districts in a manner that would afford the greatest satisfaction to the consumer, the operator, the miner, and the railway. The most valuable fuel known to man, the supply of which is nowhere inexhaustible, would be conserved instead of being squandered. M. A. C.

TOKENS OF WOE AND THE PELASGI.

MILFORD SURREY, ENGLAND,
October 8, 1897.

The letter of Prof. Sterrett in *Nation* No. 1682, on the researches of Mr. Ridgeway into Mycenæan art, reminds me that, more than ten years ago, I submitted to the American Archæological Institute a paper on the so-called Pelasgic remains, in which I took substantially the same position as that now taken by Mr. Ridgeway, that the early civilization of Greece and Italy was due to the Pelasgi, and, following the lines of the monuments recognized by the ancients as "Pelasgic," I attempted to show the line of their migrations. The paper was, by the kindness of Prof. Norton, put in type, but, I suppose, owing to the reluctance of the committee to be in any way identified with the theory that the Pelasgi were a reality, as a once existing distinct stock, and that anything could be made known concerning them, it was never published. I believe I was considered by the scholars who then directed the line of study of the Institute, as a wild theorist who had got the *tic* of the Pelasgi and must be shunned.

In the researches which led me to the conclusions expressed in that paper I had, under competent advice, avoided collating my results before their completion with the literary evidence on the same subject, so that, if a real harmony existed, the demonstration would be more complete. Prof. Max Müller, to whom I owed that advice, may perhaps remember the incident. The conclusions to which my study had led me were in brief, that the Pelasgi at a very early date had moved round the Adriatic, from the lower Balkans, into Italy by the upper road, and, the valley of the Po being then probably still under water, they made their first settlement south of the Apennines in Tuscany, and especially in that volcanic and fertile district from the Arno down to the Abruzzi, with their principal centre in Umbria and the Sabines. The capital, if such a thing existed, was Alatri, and near by, at Cesi, I later discovered what I consider their first recognizable stronghold and the first advance from cave-dwelling as a fortifiable civic position; that site showing both cave-residence and the earliest form of Pelasgic wall-building. This district, embracing the

country as far as Monte Cassino, the Volscian country (Segni, Norba, etc.) as far as Monte Circeo (the Campagna di Roma not being, in all probability, then inhabitable), with the region of the upper Abruzzi, with Alatri, Arpino, Spoleto, Cesi, Atina, Sora, extending as far north as the valley of the Arno (Cortona being one of the latest surviving centres), was Pelasgic; and the enormous vigor of the civilization of that region may be conceived from the fact that, in the province of Rome alone, there are the remains of about 400 cities fortified in the Pelasgic manner, of which by far the greatest number are of the so-called first, or rude, style of "Cyclopean." *There* was the first great Pelasgian empire, and from there they extended their power down through the fertile regions of what is now the Terra di Lavoro, through the Basilicata, Apulia, Calabria, and over into Sicily, where one of the most splendid remaining ruins exists at Cefalù (Cephaloedium). The remains in the latter regions are marked as late by the style, which is the third, or more complete and finished in execution, showing advanced art and wealth as well as leisure.

That the migration between Italy and Greece was from Italy is indicated by the fact that ruins similar to those in Italy appear on the eastern shore of the Adriatic, where the shores are visible one from the other, and do not appear north of there on the Albanian side, as would have been the case if the migration had been from the Peloponnesus northward, and by the style of those which occur (Apollonia, Dodona, etc.)—none being of the rudest type. Moreover, they follow the coast down to the Peloponnesus, where was established another powerful seat marked by Mycenæ and its port Tiryns, Argos (later), Nauplia, and the few other remains in the peninsula. Thence the current moves eastward by two streams, the most important being sea-borne by the islands Cerigotto, Cerigo, to Crete and thence by Santorin and other islands of the Ægean to Asia Minor; the other going by the Thessalian shores to meet the first on the shores of the Black Sea.

The enormous importance of the remains which still existed when I first went to Crete, and which have since been almost entirely destroyed by the modern Cretans for building material, indicate that, after the seat of power in central Italy, the most important was Crete, and here the Pelasgic race and religion met those of Asia Minor, and in the ruins of Gnossus, which I was the first to record, in a report to the American Institute about 1882-4 (having no record by me, I cannot state the year precisely), I discovered the Cretan script which Mr. Evans has since investigated in so thorough and interesting a manner. Among these "mason-marks" were some which were recognized by the Academy of Inscriptions at Paris as proto-Assyrian, indicating the affinity of the civilization known as that of "Minos" to the early Asiatic. The excavation of the ruin at Gnossus which gave so promising an indication of discovery, had been arranged with the proprietor of the land, but was secretly opposed by the Governor-General on account of the omission, as I afterward learned, of the customary backsheesh, and one has still to confirm or disprove my then published conjecture that it was the remains of what had given rise to the tradition of the Labyrinth.

The Pelasgi disappeared from Italy owing, I conceive, rather to the absorption in the other races, the Siculi, the Umbri, and the establishment of a composite race, which we now speak of as the Italic, and which, later still, was invaded, and partially conquered, by the Etruscans on the north and the Greeks on the south of a line running from the vicinity of Civita Vecchia across the peninsula to that of Ancona; the Greek sphere being centred in the valley of the Tiber, the Etruscan in that of the Arno. All these conclusions I have since more or less established by the collation of the monumental evidence with the traditions, as I hope ere long to have the leisure to show. The identity of the Italic with the Peloponnesiac civilization may be seen by a careful comparison of the remains of Arpino (Latin Arpinum) with those of the older parts of Mycenæ, the same kind of stone being used in precisely the same way, viz., splitting, hammering, and trituration to finish (Hesiod tells us that Mycenæ was built with the stone-hammer and the plumb-line); for in neither case is there the least evidence of the possession of any appliances for the cutting of the stone, and all through the extent of the Italian ruins there is no chisel-work to be found until we reach the constructions traditionally assigned to the Etruscans, and which appear in both the Latin and Etruscan country, having evidently been imported by the great immigrations subsequent to the Trojan war.

Now as to the antiquity of these primitive constructions, there is some curious evidence in the ruins of Mycenæ. These are of two widely separated epochs, the earliest being visible most demonstrably in the older royal tomb and in the conglomerate wall, especially in the postern gate. If my readers will examine the interior of the tomb, they will find that the conglomerate, which is the stone of construction, shows here and there nodules or fragments of a hard stone, either the opaque carnelian of the Etruscan (?) gems, or corundum, the protruding surface of which is polished like a precious stone, evidently by the attrition of the finishing process of preparing the stone for its place. The comparison of the surrounding material shows an erosion of the limestone component of the conglomerate to a depth of about a line. This is the effect of weather-wear, and as the interior of the tomb has always been protected from the elements in a great measure, the time required to produce this erosion must be reckoned by tens of centuries. If this seems an extravagant estimate, I beg the student to examine the traces left, at the doorway, of a later restoration of the façade. There are the bases of two pilasters of a different material, the limestone of the adjacent hills. This was never employed in the early construction, because the workers had no means either of quarrying or cutting it. They could split the conglomerate into blocks of any size with the stone-hammer by a method still in use in the region about Arpino, where the same stone is found, with tolerable accuracy, while the limestone could be brought into determinate shapes only by methods which had not then been known by them, but which were brought into use, according to tradition, in the seventh century B. C., by the use of the "stone-saw." Where in the earlier work at Mycenæ, as throughout the walls of the Italian cities, Arpino, Alatri, Circeo, Segni, etc., etc., the limestone is used, it is always polygonal and hammered, as is also the case in the remains of Crete, where I do not remember ever having found the conglomerate; certainly the stone-saw never occurs.

Now the restorations in the great tomb at Mycenæ are worked by the stone-saw, as are the important parts of the second tomb, known as "Madame Schliemann's tomb," and the lion relief over the great gate of the city, a later addition to the gate. There is one detail in the pilasters of the former tomb to which I must call particular attention as of the highest technical and chronological importance. This is the way in which the mouldings of the pilasters are cut—by a vertical and a horizontal cut of the stone-saw, at the approximate intersection of which there is left a small portion of stone which has been broken out, and the fracture still protrudes (or did when I last saw it), showing that even then there was no means of chiselling out this breakage to finish the work. The contrast may easily be seen and estimated in the doorway itself, the lintels being of the old split and triturated conglomerate, while the later work shows the saw and the fracture of the limestone, which fracture seems quite fresh. The relative antiquity of the two kinds of work may be estimated by the evidence of the action of the elements, which in the interior has been very great and not less outside, though I could not find the nodules of *pietra dura* on the lintels to gauge it by, while the weather seems to have had no effect on the new work, as the crystallization of the limestone is not effaced and the lines made by the stone-saw are visible. Contemporaneously with the stone-saw the tube-drill seems to have come in, and their action is so nearly identical that we can have no great difficulty in admitting that they were introduced (probably from Egypt) about the same time, a time indicated by the lion relief, which shows not only the stone-saw and the tube-drill, but the trituration in the removal of the material between the drill-holes. The face of one of the lintels shows a late cutting of the stone-saw apparently for the free movement of the gate. The little gate above, a postern, is of the old work, and the capstone is held on the lintels by a tenon and mortice, rudely broken out. The lion relief is assigned by all the best archæological authorities to about the seventh or eighth century, which coincides approximately with the epoch assigned by Greek tradition for the introduction of the stone-saw. Wherever, therefore, we find the trace of that implement, we may reasonably conclude that the work is not earlier than the eighth century, to which we must assign the remains of the palace of Tiryns and the second great tomb at Mycenæ, while any cut stone must be given a still later date, for it is clear by these eighth-century remains that the art of cutting stone and the possession of the stone-chisel antedate the latest work now visible at Mycenæ. In corroboration of this conclusion is the result of all the researches I have been able to make among the Greek cities, viz., that on no ruins of an earlier date than the seventh century (*circa*) has the chisel been employed. In Italy it does not appear until the later changes, and then always on the comparatively soft tufa, which is easily cut by a bronze tool, nor in examining the stones or searching the hills from which the stone

was taken can any indication of quarrying be found, except in the same tufa, which occurs in Crete, where the method of quarrying is clear.

The examination of the interior of the great tomb at Mycenæ will satisfy any student that the time required for the erosion of the stone on the inner surfaces of the masonry, of which no indication is shown in the eighth-century work outside, must be estimated at very many centuries, which must have intervened between the early and the late Mycenæ—a measure which we can indicate only in geologic terms. And as to the source of this art, which, for want of any determination, we call by the appellation of "Mycenæan," I believe we must refer it to Crete, where, indeed, Greek tradition places the origin of Greek civilization; but I have no doubt that it was Pelasgic, and dates from a time when the Pelasgi not only were a distinctly recognized race, but were the rulers of the Ægean and all the lands on it. Mr. Ridgeway has anticipated me in the collation of the authorities on the existence of the Pelasgi as a race, which I had intended to add to the study of the monuments, and I am glad to divide with him the obloquy of recognizing the Pelasgi. W. J. STILLMAN.

Correspondence.

A CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of October 14 the reviewer of my 'Dictionary of American Authors,' while very properly calling attention to several annoying errors and misprints in my pages, makes two or three statements against which I feel inclined to urge a mild protest.

(1.) He says that the name of Sydney Fisher is wrongly entered, and that the correct spelling is Sidney. Now he may be right, but I should like to state in my defence that I followed the spelling of the name as given on the title-page of Mr. Fisher's 'Pennsylvania: Colony and Commonwealth,' the spelling on Mr. Fisher's letterhead, and also that of Mr. Fisher's own signature appended to his letter addressed to me.

(2.) That the date of Joel Barlow's birth should be 1755, not 1754. In this matter I followed Barlow's latest biographer, Charles Burr Todd, not to mention other authorities.

(3.) That the date of death of James Hammond Trumbull is not given. That eminent writer died in August, 1897, and my book had already been printed and bound some three weeks when Mr. Trumbull's death occurred.

(4.) That dates of death are often omitted. This is quite true, I presume, in a number of instances. I can only say that I made all reasonable effort in correspondence, the searching of necrology lists, college class memorials, etc., to ascertain such facts, and that whenever a date of that kind was obtained that appeared to be trustworthy, it was inserted. In several instances, although I felt almost convinced that the particular writer was not living, I was obliged to leave the matter unsettled because diligent inquiry failed to reveal the date of his demise. I need hardly add that I shall be very glad to be informed of errors and omissions readers may find in my Dictionary, in order to rectify them so far as possible in another edition.—Very truly yours,

OSCAR FAY ADAMS.

THE HERMITAGE, BOSTON, October 18, 1897.

[We will, not by way of extenuation in the matter of the younger Fisher, offer the name of Mr. Sidney George Fisher, author of 'The Trial of the Constitution' (1862), as worthy of insertion in a new edition.—ED. NATION.]

A PROPHET OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The article in a recent number of *Harper's Weekly*, descriptive of the new and astonishing movement on foot at the University of California, whereby its buildings and grounds are to be made to surpass anything thus far attempted, in beauty and convenience, reminds one of a commencement address delivered at Berkeley in June, 1881, by the late Bishop E. O. Haven. In his remarks he distinctly alluded to a future for the State and its University which has been largely realized for the former and seems about to be for the latter. He had been largely instrumental in laying the foundation for Michigan's future, and had done scarcely less for two other large universities, and therefore saw with a trained eye the possibilities that lay in the then budding university. His public remarks, however, were less definite than his private conversations. In them he expressed a belief that the time was not far distant when the University of California might easily outstrip any other of like kind. Indeed, had it not been for his age, this conviction would probably have led him to listen to proposals made him at one time to undertake its upbuilding. His words in the address mentioned were:

"I hope for a noble development of all the educational institutions of our Pacific Coast. And among them all, none has a grander opportunity than this University of California. Here on this beautiful bay, with the great arms of the State on the right and on the left, and the continent behind it, and already strongly founded, I trust it will be conspicuous among its associates, the leader of leaders, the mother of well-trained intellects and hearts, and worthy of honorable mention among the renowned universities of the leading nations of the world." X.

MORE DISENCHANTMENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Enchanted Mesa was "disenchanted" so soon as the nearest telegraph office was reached, and for so long as Mr. Hodge forbore to climb. But since the fateful 3d of September, several weeks of criticism have been endured in silence before Prof. William Libbey gives to the Associated Press his carefully prepared defence. This foregoing of haste cannot but be reckoned a distinct gain in scientific methods.

Yet Prof. Libbey's defence does not defend. It is concerned entirely with what he understands that Mr. Hodge's friends have said, and with the perseverance of Prof. Libbey as an authority on New Mexican ethnology. It tells us what Pueblo pottery, cairns, and habitation are, and what they indicate, and it increases very seriously the responsibilities of the author. Says Prof. Libbey:

"I picked up some fragments which resembled ancient pottery, but could not convince myself that they were. I took them to Mr. Pearce [the reporter who went up with him], and he agreed with me that they were not pottery."

I do not care to characterize this astounding admission, except by saying that not for a second can Pûeblo pottery, no matter how old, be mistaken for anything but pottery—by any one, that is, who has learned the rudiments of New Mexican ethnology.

In the Princeton *Press* (August 21) and elsewhere, Prof. Libbey decided that the now famous—and always unmistakable—"cairn" was "the result of erosion." Now that Mr. Vroman's eloquent photographs are in evidence, Prof. Libbey admits its human origin, but asserts confidently that this monument "is possibly the best proof of a mere visit. Primitive peoples are not given to building cairns in their back yards." If Prof. Libbey shall ever become familiar with the Pueblo towns—even with Acoma, where his brief visit seems to have been in vain—he will find many of these cairns. Some are built for adult Indian reasons; some because Indians have children, even as they had in the days of Katzímo. To explore really the one labyrinthine rock of Acoma requires many times more days than Prof. Libbey has given to all the 300 miles square of New Mexico.

Prof. Libbey admits now that he "found fragments of pottery at various points around the base of the mesa, but did not deem the fact important enough to mention." The talus against the cliff, at the point which has received the largest drainage from above, is 224 feet high; but it seems never to have occurred to Prof. Libbey—even after he had found the summit so eroded and so stripped that most of its trees are dead or dying—that this talus came from somewhere. I have axe-heads, arrow-heads, and potsherds (among the latter some of far-reaching significance) which I prised out of that talus a dozen years ago, and artifects are abundant there still. The only theory on which the matter could be deemed too insignificant to mention would be that the talus had *washed up* from the plain—just as his cairn of erosion must have been *eroded up!*

The insinuation that the Indians (who came up after Mr. Hodge) "salted the claim," is not to be discussed; and I can only hope that Prof. Libbey already regrets having made it. Any knowledge either of Indians or of Mr. Hodge's work places this unfortunate hint where it belongs in science, without reference to its ethics.

His life-line was still in place, and Prof. Libbey desires us to remember that he could have scaled the cliff again in the morning if he had deemed it worth while. It is remembered.

Six weeks after Prof. Libbey, Mr. Hodge climbed the mesa modestly and unheralded, in 135 minutes, with tooth and toenail and a 36-foot ladder—as against four days and a life-saving outfit and boatswain's chair. Five minutes after reaching the top, he found pottery, and before leaving found more pottery, axe-heads, and other artifects—not to mention a certain monument. He went up over the prehistoric trail, at several points of which the erosion-rounded steps carved in the living rock are so plain that they can be positively identified in a good photograph.

It was, perhaps, prophetic that Prof. Libbey looked at this gorge up which his Nemesis was to come, and photographed it, and published the half-tone with his facetious article in *Harper's Weekly*.

Princeton, if I mistake not, was the home office from which the official organ of the Archæologic Institute of America devoted some years to the researches of Bandelier in the Southwest. This coincidence gives a poignant humor to sheep before the Conquest, Acoma as the home of Montezuma, and twoscore like (if perhaps minor) novelties in Prof. Libbey's science; while doubtless nothing could add to the point of material things looked at but not seen.

After all this, and much more, in kind, than your patience may be taxed with, Prof. Libbey concludes: "The main question is, Was the mesa ever inhabited? I think I am warranted in answering in the negative." The "main question" has been settled by Mr. Hodge. CHARLES F. LUMMIS.

LOS ANGELES, CAL.

Notes.

Further announcements by G. P. Putnam's Sons are 'The Life and Letters of Thomas Kilby Smith, Brevet Major-General U. S. V.,' by his son, Walter George Smith; 'A Note-Book in Northern Spain,' by Archer M. Huntington; 'Islands of the Southern Seas,' by Michael Myers Shoemaker; the second volume of Dr. Peters's 'Nippur'; 'On Blue Water'—from Genoa to Buenos Aires—by Edmondo De Amicis; 'Reminiscences of an Old Westchester Homestead,' by Charles Pryer; 'The Habitant, and Other French Canadian Poems,' by William Henry Drummond; 'Anarchism: A Criticism and a History,' by E. V. Zenker; 'Mathematical Psychology,' by Mrs. George Boole; and the sixtieth edition of Burke's 'Peerage.'

'Garden-Making,' by Prof. L. H. Bailey of Cornell, will be issued during the present season by Macmillan Co.

'Thoughts and Theories of Life and Education,' by Bishop Spalding of Peoria, is in the press of A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

Henry Holt & Co. have added to their list of Taine's works his 'Journeys through France: Being Impressions of the Provinces,' with a few not remarkable illustrations. Our readers have already been acquainted with the social and political interest of this diary.

Browning's 'Ring and the Book' has been freshly issued by T. Y. Crowell & Co., edited with an introduction and a fair show of footnotes by Charlotte Porter and Helen A. Clarke, editor of *Poet-Lore*, a Browning organ. An etched portrait of the poet serves as frontispiece.

From Edward Arnold we receive a popular edition of Slatin Pasha's 'Fire and Sword in the Sudan,' of which the sequel is now being enacted in the British approach to Khartum. The illustrations are retained.

A new mode of advertising the already well known appears in a series of ten volumes of 'John L. Stoddard's Lectures' publicly delivered with the aid of the lantern for a period of eighteen years (Belford, Middlebrook & Co.). The first volume, covering Norway, Switzerland, Athens, and Venice, bears out the author's assertion that the illustrations, of a high quality like the lantern slides, outnumber the latter, and is to be recommended as a picture-book. The text is of the familiar type of superficial cramming, cheap rhetoric, and flat humor too often associated with one of the most important agencies for popularizing sound and useful knowledge.

In an attractive volume, published by Macmillan Co., Mr. A. G. Bradley has collected a number of 'Sketches from Old Virginia' contributed to various English magazines in past years. It is perhaps inevitable that a book made after this fashion should contain more or less repetition. The author's ideas on the subject of Virginian scenery, negro characteristics, quail shooting, and the abominable roads that disgrace the Old Dominion, recur in several chapters; and the peculiarities of the Colonel in one sketch are suspiciously like those of the Judge in a second or the Doctor in a third. Then, again, the critical reader may properly object to the use of *latitude* for *altitude* or of *partook in* for *partook of* as being unlooked-for results of Mr. Bradley's early training on the classic banks of the Kennet. But these are small matters and take but little from the real value of the book as a picture of Virginian life during the period after the war, and before that recrudescence of fashionable life at the Springs which has made that section of the country familiar to so many New Yorkers in recent years. Such travellers will duly appreciate Mr. Bradley's word-pictures of mountain scenery—"the air full of the noise of falling waters, the scent of cedars and hemlocks, and the steady moan of mountain winds sweeping softly over many miles of leaves"; the sportsman will enjoy his account of the first introduction of fly-fishing to the notice of the rude mountaineers of the Blue Ridge; and the general reader will find that sort of fascination that belongs to all genuine descriptions of places and people.

The widow of the late Sir John Hawley Glover has prepared a memoir of her husband, which will shortly be published by Smith, Elder & Co., London. Its main interest for readers on this side of the water lies in the fact that Sir John Glover was Governor of Newfoundland and of the West Indian Colony of the Leeward Islands, successively; but the subject of the memoir achieved distinction mainly by his success in carrying out the Volta expedition against Ashantee, in 1873.

Dr. Emil Reich, whom British newspapers have announced as having been engaged by the Attorney-General of England to instruct the law officers upon certain points of international law, as these have been applied to questions which have arisen in the cases of arbitration that have been submitted by several of the South American republics, is not unknown in the United States. Some years ago he delivered before the University of Cincinnati a course of lectures upon "The Origin and Development of the Main Institutions of Mankind." These were afterwards published with the title, 'History of Civilization' (Cincinnati, 1887). In 1890 Dr. Reich delivered, at the University of Oxford, a course of lectures dealing mainly with Roman law. These also were published as a continuation of the series already delivered. They form part of a scheme of the author's for compiling a Comparative History of the Western Nations. He has just written a 'Handbook of Hungarian Literature,' for Jarrold & Sons, London. The master of seven languages, possessed of great intellectual power, with any amount of work in him, Dr. Reich's friends see in him a coming man. He is a Hungarian by birth and a jurist of Vienna by profession. He is but forty years old.

Mr. Rawson Gardiner, in his 'History of the Commonwealth and Protectorate' (1651-1654), makes a clean sweep of the tradition that Admiral Tromp hoisted a broom at the masthead of his ship, in token of his intention to sweep the English off the seas. It is true that Professor Laughton of the Royal Naval College had expressed his disbelief in the story in his article upon Admiral Blake in the 'Dictionary of National Biography,' but Mr. Gardiner in cold blood omits the incident from his text, and then in a footnote entirely discredits it, while in the index to the volume he cruelly characterizes it as a "fiction." Mr. Gardiner, by the way, has undertaken to edit for the Navy Records Society, London, the State papers (Dutch as well as English) relating to the "Dutch Wars" in Cromwell's time.

At the opening session of the Royal Colonial Institute, London, on the 2d of November, a paper upon "The Railway System of South Africa" will be read by Sir David Tennant, Agent General for the Cape Colony.

The London School of Economics and Political Science pursues its useful course of instruction for those wishing to qualify themselves in the art of deciphering ancient charters and other manuscripts, and as to the diplomatics of such old writings as are required to be transcribed, cited, or edited by historical students. At the same time the students are informed as to the distribution and classification of the chief collections of English historical manuscripts. During the Michaelmas term, lectures will be given upon elementary palæography and diplomatics, chiefly of English manuscripts and records from the twelfth to the seventeenth century, by Mr. Hubert Hall, F.S.A., of the Public Record Office. In the same term there will be a demonstration of the system of palæography by practical work by advanced students. In November Sir Edward Maunde Thompson, Principal Librarian of the British Museum, will give a lecture. American students may like to know that the School of Economics and Political Science is at 10 Adelphi Terrace, London, W. C. The director is Mr. W. S. Hewins, M.A.

What may be called the empire movement still goes on apace in England. Among various evidences of the fact is the programme for Sunday afternoon free lectures on the British Empire, for the current season. The first list issued shows that provision has been made for a lecture for each Sunday from the 3d of October to the 12th of December, at the South Place Institute, Finsbury, in the heart of the City of London. The object is to instruct the workingmen in their heritage in the empire. "All seats free. No collection." The papers provided are "Our Colonial Empire," by W. Herbert Jones; "West Africa," by Miss Mary Kingsley, daughter of Henry, and niece of Charles Kingsley, and herself now famous as a traveller; "Cyprus," by Professor Patrick Geddes; "Islands of the Pacific," by a former High Commissioner of the Western Pacific, Lord Stanmore, uncle of the Governor-General of Canada. As the Hon. Arthur Gordon, Lord Stanmore was many years ago Governor of New Brunswick, before the Canadian Dominion was formed. "British New

Guinea" will be treated of by Mr. Hatton Richards, and the Australian colony of "Victoria" by Mr. Jerome Dyer. The Rev. Walter K. Firminger will describe "Zanzibar"; Mr. Basil Home Thomson, son of a former Archbishop of York, and himself an ex-Prime Minister in the Southern Seas, will talk of "Fiji," while "Malta" will be spoken of by Mr. Claude Lyon. Many of the lectures are illustrated by lantern pictures and by maps, etc., lent by the Colonial and Imperial Institutes. Much trouble is taken by the promoters to get men who really know their subjects to give lectures.

An account of the archæological expedition to Iceland conducted by Lieut. Daniel Bruun, recently published by the *Berlingske Tidende* of Copenhagen, shows some interesting results. Lieut. Bruun, accompanied by the Icelandic archæologist, Brynjolfr Jónsson, left Reykjavik the latter part of July and first examined the ruins of a number of dwellings east of Hvitaa, the existence of which was already known. The examinations in Norrland to the eastward proved that this district had been inhabited much farther inland than had before been supposed. About fifty ruined farms were found, one of them being on the lava plain to the north of Vatna Jökull. It is believed that the present desolation of these districts is due to the disappearance of the birch forests and the consequent sand-storms. The expedition returned to the capital on September 6.

Hardly anything is more interesting about our savage ancestors than the fact that they not infrequently practised trepanning. Dr. R. Munro devotes a chapter to this subject in his recent book on 'Prehistoric Problems.' The large number of skulls that have been met with exhibiting artificial openings shows that the operation must have been found to be beneficial, and so does the fact that the pieces of a skull cut out were worn as amulets. The trepanning was performed by scraping the head with a piece of flint more frequently than by cutting out the bone, and it is supposed that in most cases the object of the operation was to alleviate some mental disorder of an epileptiform character. That the operation was performed while the patient was alive is proved by the fact that healing has occurred on the cut edges of the bone, but sometimes it is apparent that the patient did not survive the operation, or perhaps died from the illness which the trepanning was intended to cure.

From the *Chronique des Arts* we learn that the great museum of the Hermitage, at St. Petersburg, is to be closed for one year, owing to the extensive restorations which are to be made upon the building. Intending travellers to Russia will do well to bear this fact in mind.

A welcome annual visitor reappears in 'Meyer's Historisch-Geographischer Kalender for 1898' (Leipzig: Bibliographisches Institut; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). It is a pad of octavo leaves of which each contains one or more illustrations, with text pertinent to the day of the year—notices of historic events, of festivals, etc. The views are of landscape for its geologic or picturesque interest, of towns and cities, with portraits of celebrities, autographs, etc. Merian's various 'Topographiæ' have been again freely drawn upon, but a large proportion of the cuts are from photographs. An index furnishes a key to all. The only objection to this calendar is that one hesitates to strip it to pieces. It is worth putting on the shelf like a book.

The department of French of Harvard University will give three performances of Racine's "Athalie" in Sanders Theatre on the evenings of Monday, Wednesday, and Friday, December 6, 8, and 10. The play has been selected as the most perfect example of the French classical tragedy of the seventeenth century, and will be given with Mendelssohn's music—the vocal part by one of the leading societies of Boston, and the orchestral part by members of the Boston Symphony Orchestra. The cast, which will include students, graduates, and instructors of Harvard University and Radcliffe College, assisted by ladies in Boston and Cambridge, will be very large.

We print in another place our tribute to the late Justin Winsor, librarian of Harvard University, but we must add here that he was a constant contributor, as reviewer or as foreign correspondent, to these columns, from which he can ill be spared. Though incessantly and indefatigably engaged, no call upon him went unhonored. Conscientious all his writing was, but his style marked the too rapid worker, and in its want of lightness testified to the irrepressible conflict between the bibliographical and the literary habit. He had planned a series of letters to this journal on occasion of the late International Congress of Librarians, but his engrossing duties and the endless hospitality of the British public no doubt prevented his intention from being carried out.

—Mr. Joel Chandler Harris's 'Aaron in the Wildwoods' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is not a sequel to 'The Story of Aaron,' but a picking-up of dropped threads. Both the full understanding and the full enjoyment of it depend upon that and other recent volumes in the same cycle, in which the author has attempted an adumbration of slavery as it was, for youthful minds. As a whole, the new volume is at once less artistic and pathetic than its predecessors, yet adds something to the picture. A passage (p. 196) which explains amateur slave-catching by the "vigor of youth seeking an outlet" and regarding it "merely in the nature of a frolic for them to ride half the night patrolling, and sit out the other half watching for Aaron [the swamp fugitive]," sheds light on one of the causes of the perpetuity of lynching. On the other hand, children will be perplexed by the revival of the old plea in extenuation for slavery that God was using its tender mercies for the civilization of the victims of the African slave trade. And, again per contra, we see here the beginning of a Southern Lincoln legend, which boldly proclaims the liberator "the greatest American of our time." Mr. Harris's art is conspicuous in his personification of the Swamp. In this he invites comparison with Kipling and the Jungle, and if his style must be pronounced inferior, his poetic feeling will stand the test, while a certain tenderness finds no parallel in the more renowned and prolific story-teller.

—Abyssinia has been so much in evidence of late that M. Vignéras's entertaining 'Une Mission Française en Abyssinie' (Paris: A. Colin & Cie.) is very timely. The embassy of which he was the secretary went early in the year to Adis Abeba, the present capital of Menelik, its chief object probably being to arrange for the building of a railroad from Jibutil to Harar. Upon this, however, he does not touch, but confines himself to a description of the incidents of the journey, the receptions at the court, and to his general impressions of the land and the people. From the conditions prevailing in the two provinces visited, Harar and Shoa, Abyssinia has not yet emerged from a state of semi-barbarism. There are no roads, and consequently there is little commercial intercourse with the coast. Industries, in the European sense of the word, are unknown, and the medium of exchanges is a bar of salt, though the Maria Theresa dollar is used somewhat, and Menelik is endeavoring to introduce a fractional silver currency. A large part of Shoa, at least, is being turned into a desert by the wasteful destruction of its forests. Menelik has changed his capital four times since his accession in 1889 because of the exhaustion of the wood in its neighborhood, and Adis Abeba will be abandoned in its turn at no distant time. Of the Negus the author writes in almost extravagant terms, not only as "a successful general, a wise statesman, and a remarkable ruler," but as a man intelligent in matters of science and art, as well as possessing considerable mechanical skill. With other writers he dwells upon the courage and discipline of the Abyssinians and their strong national feeling, but his statement that slavery "does not exist" among them is directly contrary to the testimony of Dr. Donaldson Smith, who gives numerous instances of slaveholding and slave-raiding by Abyssinians. The illustrations consist of sixty reproductions of the author's photographs of scenes characteristic of the land and its inhabitants.

—Teachers and students of French have long desired a good pronouncing dictionary of that language. There have been, to be sure, various books that purported to represent the pronunciation of the whole or some large part of the French vocabulary; but their transcriptions were clumsy and frequently unintelligible, and the scientific attainments of their authors were not such as to command unlimited confidence. On the other hand, the excellent 'Dictionnaire de la Langue Française,' by Hatzfeld, Darmesteter, and Thomas, which gives a plain and trustworthy notation of every word, is large, somewhat expensive, and still unfinished. A real want is, therefore, supplied by the new 'Dictionnaire Phonétique de la Langue Française,' by H. Michaelis and P. Passy, published by Carl Meyer in Hanover. We have here a work that is reliable, clearly printed, cheap, and complete in 330 moderate-sized pages. Critics will note with pleasure that Passy, in those cases in which his own usage has been generally condemned as vulgar or peculiar, has inserted alternative pronunciations: for instance, *mais*, *mes*, *les*, *des*, etc., are given both with the close and with the open sound of *e*. For "aspirate *h*," however, one cannot help wishing he had gone a little further, and left altogether unrecorded the decidedly provincial practice of sounding it. Many phoneticians, too, will object to the preference given to "lingual *r*." After the vocabulary we find an extremely concise statement of the main facts of French phonetics, followed by a most useful and interesting "list of the principal classes of divergences of pronunciation." As a frontispiece we have one of the best cuts yet published of the human vocal organs. The no-

tation used is that of the Association Phonétique; it serves its purpose very well. In the general make-up of the book there are only three things that impress the examiner unfavorably. Firstly, the vocabulary does not include proper names; we have, perhaps, no right to expect that it should, but a pronouncing dictionary of French proper names is sorely needed. Secondly, in groups of cognate words, the first part of each vocable, except the head of the series, is replaced by a dash; this practice will probably sometimes cause the practical user of the volume a slight inconvenience, for which the intended etymological lesson may seem but scanty compensation. In the third place, the figured pronunciation stands, in each case, before the accepted spelling, so that the alphabetical arrangement of the words is not the usual one, but that of the phonetic transcriptions; it follows that in order to find a word, one must either know how it is pronounced or be willing to hunt for it in several places. Although this scheme is doubtless the best one for pupils who are following the "new method," and has the additional advantage of emphasizing the importance of the spoken language, the wisdom of adopting such a plan must seem questionable to most of us; for surely at least nine-tenths of those who buy this dictionary will use it only as a guide to pronunciation.

—M. Gribovski is a young Russian writer who, some months before the death of Verlaine, came to Paris to visit the poet. He was provided with a letter of introduction, but did not know Verlaine's address, which he found at last, after explorations which began at the Café Procope and led him through a long series of lodging-houses before they were crowned with success. In the *Revue Hebdomadaire* of September 26 M. Gribovski tells his story, which gives an interesting glimpse at the last days of the author of 'Sagesse.' Verlaine received his visitor kindly, and talked to him with freedom. After some words about the literature of the day, in which Verlaine spoke with contempt of the Décadents, the stream of talk shifted towards politics. Gribovski had heard that Verlaine was more or less engaged with the Commune, and put two or three questions to him thereupon, but the poet gave no direct answer. "Terrible days they were!" he said. "France drew blood from her own heart. You have seen the skeleton of the Cour des Comptes. The Government has kept those ruins to show how insane Paris can be. Yes, I saw the Commune. I have seen many things in my life; but now I am only a poor poet, well content with the Government, which has never done me any harm. . . . Personally I have no leaning towards politics; that is a business I leave to others. . . . One of my friends who was compromised in the Commune fell into the hands of some good folk who saved him from trial and exile. Now he is bewailing his fate and groaning: 'Why didn't I go to the Isle of Pines? To-day I should be a deputy or a minister.' That gentleman has a vocation for politics. For my part I am contented with my lot." Here is another amusing bit of Verlaine's talk: "The other day a poor devil of a workman came to see me and said, 'Well, M. Verlaine, we've got to have a revolution.' 'What has got into you?' I said. 'Why, the newspapers say that the President wears white gaiters. The President of the workingmen's republic in white gaiters; it is indecent!' I explained to the poor man that Félix Faure could not avoid wearing white gaiters when he received General Dragomiroff; if he did, it might touch the prestige of our great country, for General Dragomiroff might think that she would not let her President have white gaiters. But I did not convince him and he went away saying, 'That makes no difference. It wouldn't be a bad thing to have a revolution, and you ought to write about it. The bourgeois are beginning to hold their noses too high.' "

TWELVE YEARS IN TURKEY.

Impressions of Turkey during Twelve Years' Wandering. By W. M. Ramsay, D.C.L., LL.D. London: Hodder & Stoughton; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1897.

This little book of somewhat less than 300 pages is on the whole the best work on the Eastern question which has yet appeared, probably because Prof. Ramsay is so thoroughly acquainted with Asia Minor and the people who inhabit it. It is often said, and in the main correctly, that the strength of Turkey lies in Asia Minor, and it is precisely with Asia Minor, the home of the Turk, that Prof. Ramsay is familiar.

He commences in a very concrete manner by leading us to various Turkish villages, and giving us glimpses of the lives of the people, their habits, their mode of thought, their poverty, and their ignorance. Then we are taken on a specimen trip in Phrygia of twenty days' duration. All of this is delightful reading and full of interest, both to the archæologist (for Prof. Ramsay travelled as an archæologist), and also to the general reader, and is a very clever method of making us adopt for ourselves certain conclusions which he reached by the observations we are thus made to repeat. By the time we have finished these chapters we have concluded that the population of Asia Minor is far from homogeneous—it is in fact heterogeneous, even in its Mohammedan parts. We have also reached the conclusion that the Turks, although the most good-natured, kindly, and honest of the various peoples who constitute the population of Asia Minor, are the stupidest and the least progressive of all. Wherever a Turk seems to be particularly efficient we have been able to trace his efficiency to the fact that he is not by origin a Turk, but belongs to some other race which has adopted Mohammedanism. As for progress and skill, we have found out that they are confined to the Christians. Almost all trade is in their hands. The muleteers and the camel-drivers may be Turks, but the owners of the goods they carry are Christians; and if a Turk lives in anything better built than a hut, it is found to have been constructed by a Christian. Wherever skilled labor is required it is Christians who must perform it. "Only in certain districts where some manufacture has been produced from time immemorial, do you find Turks engaged in it, but the careful observer will entertain no doubt that they are only the older population Mohammedanized." We have also learned that the Government is curiously distinct from the people whom it governs—that it is, in fact, a mere agent of extortion in its relation to the common people, and that it is precisely these Turks, whom we think of as the dominant race in Asia Minor, who are, on the whole, the most oppressed by the Government, because they are the most stupid, the poorest, and the least ingenious in evading oppression; and so the Turkish villagers hate and fear the officials, while at the same time they have a vast reverence for and loyalty to the Padishah, that is, the Sultan. But, in spite of their stupidity, Ramsay finds the Turkish peasants the most pleasant class with whom to deal, and their honesty and solidity he regards as desirable qualities to be amalgamated with the brilliant faculties of the Greeks, the race which has the future of Asia Minor in its hands.

After having thus dealt with Asia Minor in the concrete, as it were, and introduced us to the people in their homes, the author sums up certain of his results in a chapter on the Mohammedan races of Asia Minor—the Turks and Turkmen, the Yuruks and Avshahrs, the Circassians, Bulgarians, and other recent refugees; the Kurds, with whom his experiences were peculiarly unfavorable; the Tatars, the Ansarieh, Yezidi, etc. Next he discusses the past and present in Asiatic Turkey, that we may see that the present conditions are no mere accident, but that there is and always has been a conflict in Asia Minor between East and West. The Greek contended with Oriental influences and pushed them backward, and under his rule the country took on at least a veneer of western civilization. Rome pursued the work of Greece in a more vigorous and far-reaching manner. It organized an empire which did much towards amalgamating the various peoples of Asia Minor into one. The Christian church was a still more efficient agent in the unification and civilization of the country; but neither of these great agencies succeeded fully in their work. Under the weak Byzantine empire came a reaction. As eastern tribes and nations poured into Asia Minor, the old Oriental tendencies made themselves felt once more, until at last the Orient replaced the Occident at Constantinople, and the Byzantine empire itself became an Oriental despotism, to which in time the Turks fell heir.

Ramsay's discussion of this process of the disintegration of Occidental civilization in Asia Minor is most interesting and suggestive. He points out that it was due, not to conquest in the sense in which we ordinarily use the term, but to the gradual overrunning of the country by nomad populations from the East, who separated and isolated the cities, rendering communication between them impossible; until, left each to itself, they began to retrograde, and finally the whole country fell back into a condition of Oriental barbarism. Now the tide is setting the other way, and "the steady, inexorable, irresistible spread of European, and mainly of Greek, influence in the western parts of Asia Minor is by far the most striking fact in modern Turkey." It is against this inexorable, irresistible spread of European influence that the present Sultan, Abd-ul-Hamid, has set himself to wage a fight so desperate that Ramsay compares him with Mithridates marshalling the hosts of the Orient to resist the invasion of Occidental Rome. To do this, to resist the invasion of Europe, he has undertaken to arouse Mohammedan fanaticism, and systematically to stir up every prejudice among the Mohammedan populations of his empire. The agents from Mecca who go through the country towns to make arrangements for the sacred pilgrimages, are no longer ignorant men, but highly trained and efficient propagandists, and Ramsay says

that the impressions made on himself and on better observers have been that the

"directors and preachers of the faith in Turkey have been engaged for a good many years in preparing the Mohammedan revival; the means whereby Turkish power is restored is always the same—massacre—and the preparation consists in preaching that it is a virtue and a merit before heaven to slay and spoil the infidels."

"Will the Sultan's policy be successful? Will the revival of Mohammedanism be permanent in Asia Minor? So far as the centre and west is concerned, it cannot be. The Moslems are dying out there. Even where the Greeks have not begun to settle, the Turks are diminishing in numbers owing to conscription, misgovernment, and moral causes on which I will not enter because I have avoided studying or observing them. . . . In the eastern regions it may be different for a time. . . . The Mohammedan revival has been far more carefully propagated in these lands, and for the moment it is successful by the usual Turkish method. . . . The Armenians will in all probability be exterminated, except the remnant that escapes to other lands. There can be little doubt that about 200,000 of them have actually been put to death by the Turks, and I believe that fully four times as many have either died of starvation and hardship, or have so suffered from the unspeakable brutality to which they have been subjected that they can never again be self-respecting men and women" (p. 156).

As the result of this historic study we are told that the present "situation in Turkey is not simply an uneasy balance between two opposing forces," but that "Orientalism is ebbing and dying in the country." The efforts which in their rivalry with one another the great Powers are making to sustain Turkey are futile. The almost superhuman struggle of the present Sultan to stem the inflowing tide of Western thought and Western progress is useless; and it is comforting to think that, in spite of Armenian and Cretan massacres, in spite of the apparent defeat of Christianity and civilization in the recent Greek war, Turkey is doomed to speedy downfall.

Having considered the races of Asia Minor and their characteristics and the past and present of Asiatic Turkey, Prof. Ramsay proceeds to discuss somewhat more in detail the evils existing in the present administration of the country, and the mistaken policy towards that country pursued by the English Government. He has already, in a previous chapter, suggested that in choosing officials to manage their Eastern policy both of the great English parties seem to select them "because of their skill in misrepresenting, or their power of misunderstanding, Turkish affairs." He finds it difficult to determine whether the Conservatives or the Liberals have been the worst bunglers in their management of the Eastern question. He finds no difference, so far as selfishness goes, between the English policy and that of Germany or Russia, and to him it seems that the wisest plan for England is to join hands with Russia. The policy latterly pursued by the English Government has been one admirably calculated to drive Germany and Russia together, and to lead all the Powers to resist English attempts to reform Turkey, because those attempts appear to be nothing else than an effort on the part of the English to obtain for themselves all that they possibly can. He is particularly severe on Lord Salisbury, feeling that no rational policy can be pursued in the East "till Lord Salisbury has given place to a successor"; and on Mr. Goschen, whom he "holds more responsible than any other single individual" for the abandonment by the English of the system of trained military consuls in Turkey, and indirectly for the Armenian massacres. It was the policy of England which inspired the Armenians with those hopes which finally led to the massacre by the Turks, England abandoning them to their fate.

One chapter is devoted to that unfortunate people. Like most who have come in contact with them, Ramsay does not find the Armenians in their present condition a particularly attractive race. They are timid and cowardly, cringing, and ready to submit to almost everything, but this is an inevitable result of the oppression and slavery which they have undergone for centuries. The idea which has been fostered by the Turkish Government, that they are a set of unruly and turbulent conspirators, is, as he points out, simply ridiculous. It is only in the neighborhood of Zeitun that they seem to have any spirit left. But although they are now so servile and abject, Prof. Ramsay, in common with some other recent scholars, holds that they are identical in origin with the unruly Kurds, their traditional enemies and oppressors. "The Kurd is just a Mohammedan Armenian, and the Armenian is a Kurd passed through centuries of Christianity."

A most appreciative chapter is devoted to the American missionaries and their converts. Prof. Ramsay went to Turkey with a prejudice against the work of these men. He was driven by what he saw and observed to the conclusion that the work of the American missionaries in Turkey has been the strongest and the most beneficent influence for civilization in that country. It has been "zealously opposed and almost arrested by the present Sultan, with the support of the six European Powers." In the preface to the American edition, Prof. Ramsay exposes the absurdity of the statements made by American officials in 1895-96, that the missionaries have forced themselves into Turkey against the will of the Government, and have no legal rights and no claim to protection. He points out that they were supported and encouraged by three Sultans, and that "they stand on a firm basis of treaties, special enactments, and concessions." It is the present Sultan only who, in endeavoring to drive out all Western influences, has determined to compass the expulsion of the missionaries from the country and the destruction of their work.

Were we to make any criticism of this admirable book, it would be that Prof. Ramsay has pushed his theories of racial peculiarities and characteristics too far and accounts for too much by means of them. Are there no differences of character between individuals or even communities of the same race? Because Turks in general are stupid and unprogressive, does it follow that every individual Turk, or even every village of Turks, must be the same? Are there no other influences than those of heredity? The most striking instance of this inclination of Prof. Ramsay's to ascribe everything to race occurs in his discussion of the character of the present Sultan. According to him, Abdul-Hamid is not a Turk but an Armenian, and it is the nationality of his mother which has made itself felt in his character and his peculiar order of ability.

But this is, after all, a minor fault, and almost a virtue driven to excess. He who wishes to understand the Eastern question in its latest phases cannot find a better and more trustworthy guide than Prof. Ramsay's 'Impressions of Turkey.'

A PRINCESS'S TRANSLATION.

The Mirror of the Sinful Soul: A Prose Translation from the French of a Poem by Queen Margaret of Navarre, made in 1544 by the Princess (afterwards Queen) Elizabeth, then eleven years of age. Reproduced in facsimile, with portrait, for the Royal Society of Literature of the United Kingdom, and edited, with an Introduction and Notes, by Percy W. Ames, F.S.A., Librarian and Secretary, R.S.L. London: Asher & Co. 1897.

The above long title tells much, but not all, about the curious little volume it denotes. The poem by Queen Margaret (Marguerite d'Angoulême) here translated by the little Princess Elizabeth was published in 1531 (Margaret was then thirty-nine years old), and was her first publication. It is a religious poem of nearly fifteen hundred lines in rhymed decasyllables, which she entitled (following in the footsteps of more than one predecessor) "Le Miroir de l'ame pecheresse." The copy here beautifully facsimiled of the Princess Elizabeth's translation was made by herself, in a wonderfully admirable child's hand, and presented by her, in a cover apparently embroidered by herself, to her stepmother, Katharine Parr. This lady had shown her kindness. The little princess had had the misfortune to fall into disgrace with her father, and was banished from the court for a year. But she learned that the Queen always spoke of her, and kindly, when she wrote to the King (who was for a time at Boulogne), and Elizabeth sent her a letter of thanks (now in the Bodleian), one of the earliest of Elizabeth's letters, and, rather oddly, written in Italian. A few months afterward she sent this translation as a New Year's gift to the Queen. It was printed four years later, but the printed volume is very rare.

Elizabeth, in her manuscript, does not mention Margaret's name, yet there was a connecting link between the woman-author and the child-translator. Anne Boleyn went to France in 1515 in the train of Mary Tudor on the occasion of Mary's marriage to Louis XII., and during the ten years she remained there it is said she for a time belonged to the court of Margaret herself, then the Duchesse d'Alençon. It is therefore not unlikely that Elizabeth's copy of "Le Miroir" came to her from her mother, always a lover of all things French, and, to continue surmises, it may have been a wedding gift from Margaret to her sometime acquaintance. The second edition of "Le Miroir" appeared at the moment of Anne's marriage. It is curious that Elizabeth not only does not herself mention Margaret, even in her prefatory letter to Queen Katharine, but omits the name where it occurs at the close of the poem almost as a signature:

"Ne puis faillir à rendre la louenge
De tant de biens, qu'avoir je ne merite,
Qu'il luy plaist faire à moy sa Marguerite."

"Wich pleaseth hym to geue me," Elizabeth translates, recognizing, probably, that there was an untranslatable play on the word Marguerite.

The contemporary accounts of Elizabeth attribute to her, even in early youth, love

of study and quickness of apprehension. She knew, she writes the Queen,

"that pusilanimite and ydlenes are most repugnante vnto a reasonable creature: and that (as the philosopher sayeth) euen as an instrument of yron or of other metayle waxeth soone rusty, onles it be continualy occupied, euen so shalle the witte of a man, or woman, waxe dull, and vnapte to do or vnderstand anything pfittely, onles it be alwayes occupied vpon some maner of study. Wiche thinges consydered, hath moued so small a portion as god hath lente me to proue what i could do. And therefore haue i (as for a seye [an assay or essay] or beginning, following the right notable saying of the proverbe aforesayd) translated this lytell boke out of frenche rhyme, in to englishe prose ioyning ye sentences together as well as the capacitie of my symple witte, and small lerning coulde extende themselues."

Even if she had some assistance in her work, it has unmistakable indications of the "symple witte and small lerning" of a child, which make only the more apparent her remarkable precocity of intelligence. The youthfulness of this "eminent hand" is betrayed chiefly by passages of quaint literalness that are quite incomprehensible without the original; but there was little occasion for her saying: "I knowe yt as for my parte (as well spirituall as manuall) there is nothinge done as it shulde be." The examination of this translation with the original is a very interesting study of language (as Florio's translation of Montaigne), for Elizabeth writes the "Elizabethan" tongue, as the passage just quoted shows, completely different in "moral" character from sixteenth-century French. There is a sort of delicate maidenly shyness and graceful awkwardness about the native diction of the matron Margaret, a rich maturity and noble vigor in the language that was the national inheritance of the child Elizabeth. A few extracts, but they must be lengthy ones, will show this more vividly than remarks about it can do. The poem is, as it was entitled when the translation was printed, "A Godly Medytacyon of the Christen sowle concerninge a love towards God and hys Christe." It is one of the least interesting of Margaret's compositions, and one can but pity the little girl who, day after day, worked away so carefully at its mystical unintelligibleness. The prologue opens thus:

" Si vous lisez cette œuvre toute entiere
Arrestez vous, sans plus, à la matiere,
En excusant la rhythme et le langage,
Voyant que c'est d'une femme l'ouvrage,
Qui n'a en soy science, ne sçavoir,
Fors un desir, que chacun puisse voir
Que fait le don de Dieu le Createur,
Quand il luy plaist justifier un cœur."

"If thou doest rede thys whole worke, beholde rather the matter, and excuse the speche, consydering it is the worke of a woman: wiche hath in her neyther science or knowledge, but a desyre that eche one might se, what the gifte of god doth when it pleaseth hym to iustifie the harte of a man."

The conception of the direct communication of the soul with "God and his Christ" without the intervention of the Virgin or the Saints, which is dwelt upon in this "meditation," caused the University of the Sorbonne to condemn the book as heretical; and the study of these pages may have done something to confirm Elizabeth's Protestantism. The following lines are characteristic of the tone:

"Il n'attend pas qu'humblement je le prie,
Ne que voyant mon enfer à lui crie:
Par son Esprit fait un gemissement
Dans mon cœur, grand inenarrablement;
Et postulant le don, dont le sçavoir
Est incongnu à mon foible povoir.
Et lors soudain cest ignoré souspir
Me va causant un tout nouveau desir
En me monstrant le bien que j'ay perdu
Par mon peché, lequel bien m'•st rendu
Et redonné par sa grace et bonté
Qui tout peché a vaincu et domté."

"He doth not tary tyll i humbly do praye hym, or that (seynge my hell and damnacion) i do cry upon hym; ffor with hys spirite, he doth make a waillinge withyn my hart greater than i, or any man can declare, which asketh the gifte whereof ye virtue is unknowen to my lytell power. And this, the same unknowen sighe, doth bringe me a newe desyre, showinge the good that i haue loste by my sinne, wiche is giuen me againe, through his grace and bontie, wich hath overcomed all synnes."

The poem is full of references to passages in the Bible, and it is interesting to note the English rendering of these, before the King James version:

" Mais quand ce doux et gracieux prier
Ne me servoit, lors vous veniez crier:
Venez à moy, vous tous qui par labeur
Estes lassez et chargez de douleur:
Je suis celuy qui vous accepteray,
Et de mon pain refectionneray."

"But, when thou sawest that thys switte and graciouse speking did me no good, than thou begannest to cry: Come vnto me all ye wich are werey with laboure; I am i that shall receyue, and feed you with my bread."

And then the poor Soul utters what might indeed sound like heresy:

"Las, tous ces motz ne voulois escouter;
Mais encores je venois à douter
Si c'estoit vous, ou si, par adventure
Ce n'estoit rien qu'une simple escriture."

"Alas I wolde not harke vnto all these words; ffor i doubted whether it were thou, or els a symple writtinge, that so sayd."

" Enfer est donc par luy du tout destruit,
Peché vaincu, qui tant ha eu de bruyt.
Goulu Enfer, où est vostre defense?
Vilain peché, où est vostre puissance?
O Mort! où est icy vostre victoire,
Vostre aiguillon, dont tant est de memoire?
En nous cuydant donner mort, donnez vie,
Et le rebours faites de vostre envie.
Et vous, Peché, qui à damnation
Voulez tirer tous, sans remission,
Vous nous servez d'esperon et d'eschelle
Pour atteindre Jerusalem la belle."

"Than is hell and synne ouercomed by hym. O gloutō hell, where is thy defence? Thou villayne synne, where is thy power? O death, where is thy stinge and victory, wich are so muche spoken of? In stedde of death, thou geuest vs life, and so doest thou contrary vnto thy wille. And also, thou sinne, which wolde drawe euery body vnto damnacion, thou doest serue vs of a ladder, for to reshe vnto the goodly citie of Iherusalem."

One more quotation, showing the author almost at her best (in this poem) and the translator almost at her worst, we should like to make, beginning with the line, "Las, qu'est cecy? jettant en hault ma veüe," but space forbids. The facsimile of this manuscript is beautifully executed, and makes a charming volume adorned with the pretty and carefully chosen portrait of the girl-princess. A book-lover cannot but be grateful for such a book, even though it be, like this, a mere curiosity. A yet stronger gratitude would be excited if so much money, time, and labor as has been generously spent on this volume were given to a similar delightful reproduction of some work in itself more intrinsically valuable.

A Passing World. By Bessie Rayner Belloc. London: Ward & Downey. 1897.

One is not usually considered to be on safe ground when he ventures an allusion to a lady's age, and even though Mme. Belloc herself reminds us that she is now numbered among the veterans, it may appear ungracious to dwell upon the fact. We mention it only because we find it necessary to do so in attempting to criticise the volume of biographical essays which she sends abroad under the rather regretful title of 'A Passing World.' Dr. Holmes was impressed, on the occasion of his last visit to London, with the existence there of a unique feminine type, the well-preserved and entertaining woman who has for three or four generations been on close terms of familiarity with her leading contemporaries. When once her ganglia have been pleasantly affected by tea of a certain strength, she unfolds her personal or traditional knowledge of the world, even unto Horace Walpole, past whom social memory seems not to run. We should feel tempted to class Mme. Belloc among these hardy perennials if there were a little more trace of political association in her reminiscences. Those, at least, of the intimacies which she sees fit to describe are of a literary or an ecclesiastical character. Already well known, through a famous autobiography, as the close friend of George Eliot, she shows us that Rogers, Browning, and Rossetti were also of her circle. A political dash alone is needed to create the feeling that she has been in the thick of London ever since the Queen's accession.

The keynote of Mme. Belloc's recollections is universal benevolence. She tells us that she has repeatedly been taxed with failing to say all she might have said about her acquaintance. She deals with "a generation of writers of whom very many were close personal friends. . . . Nobody, unless utterly devoid of observation, can pass from youth to age without knowing the secrets of many lives and the inner histories of many households." But the task of revealing the seamy side of life Mme. Belloc leaves to the writer of fiction. "We have ample records in imaginative literature of every kind of iniquity. Let these suffice. But of our own people, of those with whom we lived and loved, and to whom we owe, through their writings, such a debt of gratitude for much of the present happiness of our daily lives, surely it is better to observe rigorously the old-fashioned rule, *De mortuis nil nisi bonum.*" This commendable purpose is kept in view throughout. Mme. Belloc, while disclaiming gossip, does not fail, as many with equally fair professions have done, into innuendo.

Good conversation often enough makes tame reading. We think that the contents of Mme. Belloc's memoirs conveyed orally could not fail to charm any one who might be permitted to hear her discuss men and subjects freely. In cold print the spell of the living word is lost, and occasionally one finds it hard to resist the idea that a flood of words is outrunning the staple of the argument. Her references to dead and living are almost always laudatory, and, apart from throwing here and there a side light, she leaves her distinguished friends pretty much where they were in our estimation and knowledge when we cut the leaves of her book. The opening chapter, from which the volume takes its title, is a potpourri of reminiscences, written for the purpose, one gathers, of showing that the literary leaders of the early Victorian era form a galaxy unequalled for splendor "since Alfred learnt his letters at his mother's knee." An exception is made in favor of "the one Apparition of William Shakespeare," but the rest of the Elizabethans are deemed unworthy of notice.

Judging from her ten other papers, Mme. Belloc's dominant interests are Anglo-Saxon

unity and Roman Catholicism. She shows a considerable range of reading in American history, and is keen to secure relations of permanent friendship. "It is not only that we have a common heritage in 'Piers Plowman,' or Queen Elizabeth, about whose good or bad deeds there is as much divergence in any American district as there is in any London parish, but that we are like Siamese twins, inextricably and, as some would think, fatally connected by a broad band of living flesh on which are inscribed the newest editions of Lecky and Spencer, Ruskin and Browning, Swinburne and Christina Rossetti." While convinced that Mme. Belloc's judgment on this point is excellent, we cannot commend it when applied to the candid solution of our local problems. She allows the United States one safe course, and one only—that which leads to Rome. *Extra ecclesiam nulla salus* has ordinarily been confined to theology. Mme. Belloc would give it a far wider extension. "I regard it as certain that the one influence which can prevent the people of the United States from pursuing a path of hopeless divergence in language, custom, and the infinitely more important realm of morals away from the standards painfully wrought out in Europe during nineteen centuries, is that of Catholicism." Mme. Belloc is certainly more at home in dealing with Augusta Theodosia Drane and recent English Catholicism than in devising schemes for the welding of American populations. Among her discursive papers those which have given us the most pleasure are the sketches of Dr. Parr, the great Grecian, and of Dr. Ulysse Trélat, director of the Salpêtrière, whose 'La Folie Lucide' gave Zola the hint of his Rougon-Macquart series. Both are delineations of character rather than biographical abstracts, and both are excellent.

Mme. Belloc writes with much information, graciousness, and impersonality. If she anywhere falls short of expectation, it is in the specific gravity of her subject-matter; not that her topics are too light, but that her treatment of them is slightly under weight. We may note, in conclusion, that her proof-reader has made more slips than one expects to find in company with such beautiful type and paper.

A Concordance to the Greek Testament: According to the Texts of Westcott and Hort, Tischendorf, and the English Revisers. Edited by Rev. W. F. Moulton, M.A., D.D., and Rev. A. S. Geden, M.A. Charles Scribner's Sons. Quarto. Pp. xii, 1037.

This work is one of the incidental results of Textual Criticism of the New Testament. Thorough students of the Greek Testament have virtually abandoned the use of the *Textus Receptus*, so called, which for two hundred and fifty years held sway, and have substituted the modern critical editions of Tischendorf and Westcott and Hort. This reversion to the older text, found in the newer editions, has diminished the value of some of the standard helps to study. The Greek Concordance of Bruder, a work of monumental accuracy and patience, fails to meet the present requirements. The handy Greek-English Concordance of Hudson recognized the various readings accepted by Tischendorf, and, with the careful editing of Dr. Ezra Abbot, became the favorite with those who were aware of its existence and excellence. But to make it convenient in size, the editors gave only references, not citations, and noted only the peculiar uses of the more common particles.

Prof. Moulton and Mr. Geden have adapted the general method of Bruder to the modern critical text. As might be expected, that of Westcott and Hort is accepted as the standard, but no reading adopted by Tischendorf (eighth edition) or by the English Revisers has been ignored. The American Revisers differ from the English in regard to about thirty readings, and this Concordance does not refer to these variations, a few of them quite important (*e. g.*, Acts 20:28). But nearly all of these appear either in Tischendorf or in Westcott and Hort, so that this defect can easily be remedied by those using the work. The editors have assumed, and with good reason, that the judgment of the Revisers coincided with that of modern editors in many cases (not affecting the English rendering) where the Revisers have made no record of their decision. Marginal readings, given by the critical editors or recognized in the Revised Version, have in all cases found a place in the Concordance, and a few appear "for which Tischendorf expressed a preference subsequent to the publication of his eighth edition" (preface, p. vii). Accordingly, the work covers the established results of recent textual criticism.

The labor of preparing the volume, immense in its details, has been chiefly performed by Mr. Geden, for Prof. Moulton was prevented by serious illness (as he carefully explains in the preface) from doing even the share in revising the work that he had intended. In citing passages good judgment has been exercised as to the limits of the citation, a matter of no small difficulty. The editor rightly determined that it was better to include too much than too little. Some abbreviations have been employed in citing the text; and under the head of the more familiar particles there are given series of references, not citations. But a classification, intelligible and exhaustive, is usually made in these cases. By means of signs attached to the words, at the head of the citations, an indication is afforded of the lexical peculiarities of New Testament Greek, as compared with classical and Septuagint usage. By "classical" is meant, according to the editors' divisions, the usage of Greek writers earlier than the Christian era. The Hebrew text is appended to all citations that are directly quoted from the Old Testament by the New Testament writer.

A work of this character is of little value if the editing and proof-reading have not been exceptionally accurate. There is every evidence that special pains have been taken to secure such accuracy in this Concordance. Errors will doubtless be discovered. Nearly three pages, at the close of the volume, are devoted to those noticed after the body of the work was printed, and Mr. Geden will receive notice of many more from those who use the Concordance. But the book is exceptionally accurate. The Greek type is clear; the columns are wide; the matter is not unnecessarily crowded. The size of the volume is not greater than that of most important lexicons. The editors and publishers alike are to be congratulated on the results of their efforts, and New Testament scholars will gladly welcome this addition to the standard books of reference for their department of study.

The Land of the Dollar. By G. W. Steevens. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1897.

When a writer pays us such a handsome compliment as to declare that "the age of chivalry is not gone; until America it never came," we feel him to be entitled to criticise us with the utmost freedom. Every true American would much rather be complimented on his treatment of women than on anything else in the world, save, perhaps, his courage in battle, and Mr. Steevens "lays it on" pretty thick, for he thinks that all true Americans will toil and slave and "kill themselves at forty, that their women may live in luxury and become socially and intellectually superior to themselves." This they do, too, "without even an idea that there is any self-sacrifice in it" (p. 314). On the next page he stretches the limit of life for the male American to "fifty or so," but beyond that he will not go. "Virtually there are no old in America at all," though, strangely enough, even the American woman, spoiled by chivalry, "is old at thirty." At what age she dies is not stated.

Mr. Steevens was here last year during the Presidential campaign, and his book consists of letters written originally for a newspaper. His trip he calls a "Scamper through the States," and his letters reflect the impressions of a scampering and slightly incoherent well-wisher. When he reports things that he actually heard or saw, he is at his best. Chapter xviii., descriptive of what he saw in Wisconsin, has some very good touches, especially the discovery of a type new to him—that of a man, in this instance an old man, who does nothing "in particular," is "generally at home," and, when this is not the case, "works some at moving houses." The prevailing economical opinions are very neatly hit off. "They do not believe that protection will raise the prices of the manufactured articles they buy, looking to competition to keep them down. When you point out that with free trade competition would keep them down lower still, they agree with you, but continue to believe in protection" (p. 161). On the subject of Anglophobia, he puts what he noticed in an original way: "His worst fault is that he dislikes us. But that—though it sound a paradox—is because he respects us. . . . They resent the existence of a nation they are bound to respect."

These are favorable specimens of Mr. Steevens's powers; his overheard American talk also is sometimes good, as, for instance, the dialogue on the race problem between a profane Northern drummer and a Southernized Canadian. The drummer says that "in a hotel up North" he went into the dining-room,

> "and there was a nigger head-waiter, sir. Yes, sir—a nigger, ordering white girls about; I tell you that made me tired. Then this nigger head-waiter came and showed me to a table with three niggers! When I was paying my bill to go to another hotel the clerk said, 'Why do you object to sit with the colored gentlemen?' 'I didn't see any gentlemen,' says I; 'I saw three buck niggers, if that's what you mean.' 'Oh,' he says, 'that race problem will never be solved.' 'Yes,' I says, 'but it is solved in the South. It adjusts itself. Treat them as servants—that's all they're fit for—and if one gets fresh shoot him.' 'Quite right,' said the Canadian." (P. 101.)

One thing Mr. Steevens heard in Ohio which he thinks reflects the "dubious side" of democracy: "If Bill McKinley gets in, he ought to do something for Canton." He seems to

think that Bryan is a demagogue of a high order, and superior as an orator to McKinley, who, he says, was "not interesting," though "he pointed out with great force that Portage County was the finest in the States." A shrewd observation is that "no democrat" (he might have said no man) "likes to vote a blank negative" (p. 173). The Jingo view of the New Navy is amusingly propounded (p. 141). The Jingoes, it seems, hold that as the present pensions of $140,000,000 a year "fall in," we shall be able to build "a dozen battleships a year without taking a cent out of anybody's pocket." And that means, he thoughtfully adds, "the naval supremacy of the world."

A Korean-English Dictionary. By James S. Gale. Yokohama: Kelly & Walsh. 1897.

In the making of a lexicon of the Korean language we behold a process much like that which has resulted in the Webster or Century Dictionary, except that the evolution has been one of years instead of centuries. Coming into the once forbidden land and attempting to master the written language as well as the colloquial, we find the first (French) missionaries annotating, collecting, classifying, with no native guide or model, just as did the first makers of Anglo-Saxon glossaries in mediæval times. In Korea, the scholars devoting themselves wholly to "learning," that is, Chinese, neglected both the vernacular and the marvellously simple *en-mun* or alphabet.

Mr. Gale's great work is a quarto of 1,160 pages, containing about 45,000 words and nearly 12,000 Chinese characters. Its thoroughness and accuracy are remarkable, but further it is a real triumph of keenness and perseverance in the pursuit of words as they fly "winged" from the lips of "the best speakers in the capital" (Séoul). Note-book in hand, Mr. Gale pursued his task during six years, often absenting himself for months from all men of the Western world. The result is a credit to American scholarship. His predecessors in this line of achievement are first the authors of the Korean-French Dictionary, prepared under the supervision of Père Robert, now the honored senior member of the French mission in Korea. Mr. James Scott of the British consular service followed with a Korean-English vocabulary. The Rev. Horace Underwood of the American Presbyterian Mission prepared a Korean-English and English-Korean dictionary in two volumes, in which Mr. Gale had a hand, and which was reviewed in these columns. Now, Mr. Gale, having read the novels and what might be called the "street literature," has given a view of the language and a storehouse of the coinage of thought which excels in richness, by some 7,000 distinct words, the French dictionary of the year 1880. No pretension is made to its being an "unabridged" dictionary, which at this stage of knowledge and the organization of it is an impossibility. It is believed that there are 50,000 words in the Korean vocabulary, a number which might be increased to millions if the manifold forms of the verbs were added. The average number of grammatical forms to a verb is 300, and one-fifth of the whole vocabulary is "either a verb or capable of verb-form."

It would be ungracious to criticise this scholarly work for its omissions, yet it would have gained vastly if, in addition to mere definition and the Chinese equivalent and Korean variations of form, there could have been, in the case of the more important words, several full sentences showing their use in literary combinations. The English or Romanized form of the word is not given, which is also a drawback for those who might wish merely to consult the lexicon. Valuable appendices contain the *en-mun* or native script equivalents for the imperial names and time-periods of China and Japan, and other apparatus necessary to show the expression in Korea's wonderfully true, simple, and efficient alphabet of the more cumbrous Chinese forms used in the countries on either side of "the little outpost state." Typographically, the work is remarkable for elegance and accuracy, as coming from the press of the Yokohama Bunsha, the whole having been wrought by Japanese workmen.

Historical Memorials of Ely Cathedral. In two lectures delivered in Cambridge in the summer of 1896 by Charles William Stubbs, D.D., Dean of Ely. I., The Shrine of S. Audrey. II., Alan de Walsingham. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1897.

This little volume is not the first instance of a book in which the notes and appendices are more valuable than the text, but it is one more such instance. The text consists, as the title-page announces, of two lectures, which are, naturally, conversational, sentimental, sociable, chatty, and extremely ecclesiastical. On the other hand, the notes and addenda contain an unusual amount of valuable matter for reference. In the first place there are forty pages of "Chronological Annals of Ely from the foundation of the Monastery to its dissolution," namely, from 563 to 1539 A. D. This is drawn up in the form of a table with ten parallel columns, showing the chronological events, the authorities for the dates, the succession of kings of England and abbots or bishops of Ely, the architectural features of the monastery and its church, etc. This is full and detailed, and shows all the signs of having been thoroughly well done. Contemporary events on the Continent are sparingly introduced, but, as it seems, with great judgment. Thus, the introduction of the words, "Coming of the Friars," between 1216 and 1219, and of the name "Simon de Montfort," between 1229 and 1241, mark important cases of close connection between the Continent and central England; and the date of Dante's birth and death and of the Brunelleschi dome at Florence are memoranda of important intellectual triumphs contemporaneous with epochs in the history of the Ely buildings. The Black Death and the Peasant Revolt give explanation enough of the absence of architectural achievements during those terrible times. In the last page of the table comes mention of those events which heralded the fall of the monastery and the taking of the great church as a cathedral—such events, namely, as Erasmus's 'Praise of Folly' in 1506, More's 'Utopia' in 1516, and Tyndale's Translation of the Bible in 1525.

Following this table we have a very useful plan of the Cathedral and of the ancient monastery buildings, so far as their foundations and substructures have been traced. References from 1 to 74 explain these, and carry explanation enough to the student, who will also consult the chronological annals, of the historical development of the buildings. The notes to Lecture I. occupy as many pages as the lecture itself and are in finer print. The first incident in these is the analysis of the famous old lines which tell how the monks sang at Ely as Knut rowed by, and how the king told his *cnites* to row nearer the land that they might hear the monks sing. The lines have been given in the text both in intelligible modern English and in a facsimile of the original monkish script. But in the notes Dr. Skeat, the first living authority on such matters, analyzes these four lines in the most complete fashion, and gives a highly amusing series of transcripts as follows: (1) a literal transcript of the text, which he pronounces the work of a Norman monk who had not half learned English; (2) a corrected transcript in the true spelling of the period, or, in other words, a schoolmaster's correction of the stupid boy's bad orthography; and (3) the same words in the correct spelling of Knut's own time, in which time, certainly, these words were never sung. The last-named form of the quatrain certainly resembles English as little as any piece of Teutonic writing can. Finally, Skeat, with his accustomed minute interest in things of this kind, gives the "pronunciation in modern English spelling" of the corrected transcript. That is to say, No. 4 explains, to him who will follow the accentuation and the scansion carefully, the exact sound of the four lines as a twelfth-century scholar would have read them.

This entertaining piece of antiquarianism is succeeded by notes on the Draining of the Fens, on the Ely Manuscript, "Liber Eliensis" itself, of which more copies than one exist (the contents of the third book of this same historical manuscript running to 127 sections), and, finally, a long account of St. Audrey, that is to say, St. Etheldreda, and of the sculptures illustrating her life and the legends about her which exist in the church.

The notes of the second lecture are nearly as full as those of the first, and these are devoted mainly to the monastery rolls and the accounts of expense, not of the buildings alone, but also of the daily life of the monks and their masters. In the course of this discussion there occurs an interesting note on the ancient bells, their position in the wooden tower at the crossing of the nave and transept, and the probable position of the ringer during the fourteenth century. There is also an account of the sculptured heads of the persons famous in the Cathedral's history.

The lectures themselves are entitled "The Shrine of St. Awdrey" and "Alan de Walsingham." They are accordingly devoted, the first to the Cathedral, once the Abbey Church, and especially to St. Awdrey's connection with it, and the second, to the man who was sacrist of the Cathedral from 1321 to 1341 and thereafter prior and bishop-elect—Alan de Walsingham, to whom is accredited the building of the celebrated Octagon. This remarkable structure occupies what is known as the Crossing, that is to say, the meeting-place of the four arms of a cruciform church. At Ely, an attempt has been made to produce the semblance of a cupola carried on pendentives; and as the plan could hardly be carried out in stone, the whole was executed in oak in a semblance of Gothic vaulting. This unique per-

formance, a thing almost inconceivable to those who have studied the spirit of the Gothic architects, deserves all the inquiry and remark which has been bestowed upon it. Whether the conclusions are favorable and the student agrees with Dean Stubbs in thinking this an extremely important piece of mediæval building, or whether he thinks it the worst blot on the record of Gothic architecture in England, is another matter, depending entirely on the point of view. Is construction, and design resulting therefrom, the important thing, or is a copied design, carried out in material foreign to the construction, as in wood at Ely or in plaster at Chicago, equally worthy of admiration? That question will never be finally settled, and the advocates of the second theory are having it their own way at present, in this country, at least.

The illustrations include three valuable photogravures and a couple of half-tone prints, as well as a number of drawings by Miss H. M. James (reproduced in line-cut) which express the architectural forms unusually well. They are made, evidently, by a person who has felt an interest in building considered as building and not as a piece of sentimental ecclesiology. It is, of course, not to be expected that the mediæval sculpture should be adequately rendered by any such processes.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 4, 1897.

The Week.

The reaction throughout the country against Republicanism, as represented by the McKinley Administration and the tariff legislation passed at the extra session of Congress, proved overwhelming on Tuesday. The tide which transformed a plurality of 268,469 for McKinley in this State last year into one of about 60,000 for the Democratic candidate for the Court of Appeals bench this year, swept on into Ohio, where it almost, if not quite, wiped out the Republican plurality on the State ticket and rendered the Legislature almost a tie, as against 110 Republicans and 28 Democrats in the last body; while Iowa, which gave McKinley more than 65,000 plurality last year, and has always gone Republican in State elections except on the prohibition issue, was saved by a narrow margin. McKinleyism in the White House and Dingleyism in Congress combined are proving even more disastrous to the Republican party than McKinleyism in Congress seven years ago.

Platt has "saved his organization" at the most stupendous price ever paid by a political leader. He has turned over Greater New York, with its enormous patronage and $75,000,000 of annual expenditure, to the Democratic party for four years; he has lost the State irrevocably, converting a plurality of 268,000 for McKinley and one of 212,000 for Black, into a Democratic plurality of 60,000. He has nearly if not quite lost control of the Assembly, and hence of the Legislature. What prospect is there, in view of these results, that the Republicans can elect a Governor next year, or can carry the State for a Republican candidate for the Presidency in 1900? Greater New York, with its 3,500,000 of people and its 567,000 voters, will henceforth be the most tremendous Democratic stronghold this or any other State has ever seen. To secure this invaluable Democratic advantage, the Republican boss "jammed" the new charter through the Legislature, and then "jammed" the enlarged city into the possession of Tammany Hall by running Tracy for Mayor—"to save the organization." Was ever a great political party in the hands of a more extraordinary "leader" than this? And what a triumph for that leader that he should be able to get 100,000 Republicans to help him carry his policy into execution.

The new Municipal Assembly will be an overwhelmingly Tammany body in both branches. There will be only a handful of Republicans in either house, so that, as an element of the new city government, this local legislature will work harmoniously with the other branches of Croker's administration. The character of the Tammany membership is about as poor as could be imagined, falling quite uniformly to the level of our worst Boards of Tammany Aldermen. Fortunately this new body has very little real power, but it has, nevertheless, large confusing powers in many directions, and opportunities for general jobbery which are not likely to be neglected. If it were composed of the most intelligent elements of our population, this local legislature would be at best a virtually useless body, but it would be harmless. As it is, time alone will show how great a capacity for mischief may be lurking within it.

The bigger the Greater New York, and the more difficult of organization, the more comic the way the charter was passed. It was passed as never before was passed the organic law of a civilized community. We predicted incessantly, while it was under consideration, that there would happen, at the first election, exactly what has happened—the passage of this new municipality, with its roads and parks to make, its bridges and tunnels to build, its streets to asphalt, its municipal buildings to erect on an enormous scale, and its $75,000,000 of revenue to administer, into the hands of Tammany. The calm with which Platt and his men seemed to contemplate this last spring, satisfied us, and most other intelligent observers, that he had some sort of understanding with the other side, and that it was a matter of indifference to him personally which side won, if he once got the charter to work. What we did not anticipate was that he would find it so easy to rally to his aid 100,000 Republicans in this city and a man of Gen. Tracy's standing to obey his orders and serve his purposes. Most of these Republicans are undoubtedly honest men, but the extent to which their devotion to "the party" carries them, and the readiness of Gen. Tracy to sacrifice the good name of an honorable career for an "influential" practice at the bar, are things for which we certainly were not prepared. The novelty of such phenomena in human experience naturally justifies the belief held by many that they are not wholly due to human agencies.

Mr. Low's final address to the voters, like all of his campaign utterances, was a model of its kind. We have never had in any campaign, city, State, or national, a candidate who has confined himself in all his speeches and addresses so completely to the matter in hand as Mr. Low has. The simple issue of free and honest government by the people has been the subject upon which he has dwelt to the exclusion of all others. In his final appeal this was the only subject pressed upon the voters' attention. Speaking of the Citizens' Union, he said:

> "(1.) It stands for local self-government, for a government of the city by the people of the city, and in the interests of the city. It opposes the government of the city by the machine of any party.
>
> "(2.) It stands for the right of the people to nominate their own candidates, as well as to vote for them. It opposes the dictation by one man, through his party machine, of nominations for public office, irrespective of the popular wish.
>
> "(3.) It stands for the responsibility of public officers to the people, and it opposes the claim of the machines to use the government of the city in their own interests."

No man was appealed to on the ground of partisanship, but all citizens were asked to give their support to candidates who were pledged only to supply the city with good government. In order to see what an advance this kind of final appeal is, we have only to contrast it with that which Gen. Tracy put out, addressed to the partisan prejudices of Republicans, begging them to stand by their party first of all, and to do their utmost to get possession of the city for the Republican party; Tracy being fully aware that every Republican who listened to him and followed his advice would be giving his vote in favor of turning the city over to Croker for four years.

In a public speech last week Mr. John Brooks Leavitt made certain charges against T. C. Platt in connection with the New York Life Insurance Company, which the cashier of that company promptly denied. The latter admitted, however, the payment of "$30,000 or more," not to Mr. Platt, but to, or on account of, the late John F. Smyth, then State Superintendent of Insurance, in connection with an examination of the assets of that and other insurance companies. The cashier thinks that in all probability this is the origin of Mr. Leavitt's story. We think that it is more easily traceable to the passage of the bill by the Legislature, some years ago, by which the life-insurance companies were relieved of the payment of about $750,000 in back taxes which was decided by the Court of Appeals to be due to the State. The late Gen. B. H. Bristow resigned his position as trustee of the New York Life Insurance Company because he could not get any satisfactory explanation from the late President Beers of a payment of $30,000 or more from the company's trea-

sury about that time. So he informed some of his friends. We do not affirm that this money went to Albany, nor do we think that Mr. Beers put it in his own pocket, nor do we imagine that it disappeared by magical conjuration. We are well convinced, however, that its disappearance is typical of many similar payments made before and since by corporations in this city to secure what they call "protection," which keep party bosses in power and enable them to buy members of the Legislature and to hurry the republic to destruction by corrupting the instrumentalities of government.

The funeral of Henry George was a striking demonstration of the popular attachment that has grown up in this community towards a man of high purpose, single-mindedness, and devotion to what he conceived to be his duty. As one of the speakers said, Henry George might have filled important offices, he might have made money, he might have achieved most of the things that are accounted success in this world. He had all the qualifications that make up the equipment of the successful politician—all except one. He could not crook the pregnant hinges of the knee that thrift might follow fawning. It was impossible for him to deliver any other message than the one he did deliver. As another speaker at the funeral said, the people there assembled were in part those who accepted Mr. George's teachings, in part those who accepted some of his teachings and rejected others, and in part those who accepted none but rejected all of them. Yet the whole vast assemblage within the hall and the vaster one without were drawn together by profound respect for a gifted man who followed his convictions and turned not to the right hand or to the left, who carried no muck-rake to draw place or profit to himself, but held fast to the truth as he understood it, leaving results to the ordering of Providence.

So much of Mr. George's life and work was given to the single-tax theory and the land question that scant attention has been drawn to other labors which, to our mind, were more important. He was a friend of peace. When the fighting element of the community was so stirred by President Cleveland's Venezuelan message, the voice of Henry George was among the first and most potent to rebuke it. When, at a later period, the arbitration treaty with England became a public issue, he gave it the warmest welcome. He hated war with a holy hatred, and he hated the preparations for war, because he believed that, in our case, if not everywhere, they tended to bring on war. He believed that the burdens of war, both in blood and treasure, fall mainly on the working classes, and this was an additional reason for his detestation of it. Here again he delivered his message because he could not do otherwise. He was a free-trader out-and-out. He knew that protection was a tax on labor, that what was given to one by that system was taken from another, that there was no law, and could be none, to compel the beneficiaries of the tariff to divide with their operatives, still less to divide with other people; and hence that the system was part delusion and part fraud. And so he spoke and wrote, producing one book that is among the best ever written in English on that subject. In all that it fell to Henry George to do there was a scrupulous morality and fidelity to the interests of his fellows.

Mr. Dingley's deficit for October was only $9,300,000, and November leads off handsomely with a shortage of $530,000 for the first day. These deficits, be it remembered, occur in the face of expenditures visibly "held up." Mr. Gage, that is to say, very properly exercises his discretion in the matter of certain payments which are authorized, but not strictly compulsory at a fixed date. The bill will have to be settled in the end, but it is comforting to hold it back until the promised surplus revenue is in hand. But that Dingley millennium will have to hurry up; one third the fiscal year is gone, and the deficit is $38,000,000.

Secretary Gage's "plan" for reforming the currency has met with little but an eloquent silence. This may be due in part to the absorption of the public in pending elections. But we fear a deeper reason is the despairing feeling of the business community that Congress will be indisposed to touch the currency with the tip of a finger, and that the Administration has not the stomach for a fight on the subject. Mr. Gage is, of course, committed, and will no doubt make a strong and urgent report; but what will the President do? It is generally agreed that, as at present minded, he will make only a perfunctory recommendation—something like Mr. Harrison's allusion in his message to Secretary Windom's report: "Here is the report of the Secretary of the Treasury, which I hope you will read carefully and try to understand; Heaven knows, I don't understand it!" But Mr. McKinley has a better reason for faltering zeal in the cause of currency reform. As he explained last March, the first thing was to raise a sufficient revenue; after that would come currency reform. Now as a matter of fact he is not within $38,000,000 of sufficient revenue; so how can he be consistently asked to go on with currency reform? But we hardly look to see him put this argument in a message to Congress.

News comes from Honolulu that the dispute with Japan over immigration is all but settled. It is also stated that the Japanese Minister to the United States, now on leave of absence in Tokio, will be replaced at Washington by another envoy. This is to be a rebuke to Minister Hoshi for taking so high a tone with Secretary Sherman about Japan's interest in our annexation of Hawaii. But this, we must think, is a very mistaken view for annexationists to hold. If everything is such plain sailing now, if nobody objects in the slightest degree to our taking the islands, it at once becomes doubtful if we want them. The general feeling in the country is that it is probably a highly foolish thing to annex Hawaii; but, if anybody says we mustn't, we'll do it though it were twice as foolish. So we think a better theory of the Japanese Minister's recall would be that he had fallen under displeasure for having assured Secretary Sherman that Japan had no idea of annexing the islands herself. That was a fearful blunder; everybody knows that Japan wants the islands; therefore, we must have them. Annexation strategy seems to be flagging.

The form of autonomy which Spain is now prepared to grant Cuba is but vaguely outlined as yet in the accounts of it given to the press. But there is no reason to suppose that it allows any such measure of home rule as Canada, for example, enjoys. Either by power lodged in the Governor-General, or by a veto reserved to the Spanish Cortes, a sure check on local control will be retained by the Spanish Government. Moreover, it is to be remembered that autonomy, even if freely granted and frankly accepted, would not solve the whole problem, which is so largely one of finance. Cuba, even if her industries were not ruined, could not bear the crushing burden of taxation which would be sure to be laid upon her after the war. Discontent and the outbreak of another rebellion would be almost certain to follow. But the great trouble with any scheme of autonomy is that it comes too late to satisfy either the Cubans or the American Congress. The insurgents take the offer of home rule as a confession of weakness, and say it will merely make them redouble their efforts to secure independence, which is now more than ever their goal. And it is difficult to believe that Congress can be kept from some kind of pro-Cuban vote early in December. In its temper lies Mr. McKinley's real perplexity. But until Congress meets, it is promised that he shall do nothing.

The English bimetallists are not at all discouraged by the bursting of the Wolcott bubble. They issue an address pointing out the great victory they have

won by having "attention called" so prominently to the subject of international bimetallism. This is like Paddy's consolation when the pig crashed through the window and got away; at any rate he knew the size of the cratur now. Yes, attention has been called to international bimetallism; also ridicule and contempt. All the world sees it lying dead in Downing Street. But, as the English Bimetallic League says, the slaughter has attracted great "attention," and the funeral will be attended by many mourners. Chief among these should be the "brainy" Balfour. The idea, said one of his admirers just the day before the fatal blow was struck—the idea of Balfour's staying in a cabinet which would do bimetallism to death! But there he stays just like a less divine being. Perhaps it is only to make his mourning official. No one doubts that it is heartfelt.

While earnest protests are raised against the further immigration of "cheap labor" from Europe, it is noteworthy that recourse must constantly be had to such labor, even in a State like Massachusetts, where the movement for restriction has been very strong. Many pieces of "State road" are being made in different parts of Massachusetts; and even in rural towns, where foreigners are almost unknown, it has often been necessary to employ Italians sent thither from the large cities. The same thing is true even of the smaller cities. A new street-railroad is being constructed in North Adams, and when the company began work, it brought in a gang of Italians. The Central Labor Union at once raised a "howl" about the injustice thus done the poor workingmen of the city, whereupon the company explained that it had imported the outsiders only because it could not find the men that it needed in the city. A firm which has the contract for a job of street paving has had the same difficulty, and it has actually been compelled to advertise in the local papers in order to get a sufficient force. The employers say that there is not a man idle in the city who wants to work, though there are not a few who are idle but will not work.

The utter breakdown of prohibition in New Hampshire is now confessed, even by its most earnest advocates. Testimony to the fact which is of the highest importance was furnished at the convention of Baptists in Manchester a fortnight ago. The whole subject of temperance was discussed at length, and the result was the adoption of resolutions which declare that "we view with consternation the influence of the saloon in our State, and regard it as a nuisance which ought to be suppressed"; and that "we note with great sorrow the open violations of the prohibitory law in our cities and towns with the evident permission of our commissioners, mayors, and police officials." Nobody attempted to deny that this statement as to the wholesale violation of the law was entirely true, and if it is true, it would seem as though the most ardent prohibitionists must soon see the folly of keeping on the statute-book a law which cannot be enforced, and which results in "free rum."

The killing of a promising young Georgian, who was a student at the State University, as the result of a game of football at Atlanta on Saturday, has led to the announcement by the Chancellor that no more playing of the game will be allowed in that institution. The announcement commands general approval in the State, and many members of the Legislature favor the passage of a law to the same effect applying to all. A similar prohibition of the game by the principal of a high school in Milwaukee, because of the serious injuries suffered by several members of the eleven in a recent game, is to be noted, together with an admirable deliverance on the subject from Mr. Charles Quarles, President of the Milwaukee School Board, who favors action by the board that will make this prohibition general. It is refreshing to find an educational authority who appreciates that boys are "presumably sent to school for mental training," and who is not deceived by the cant about physical training into favoring a game which has a "hospital list" as an invariable accompaniment in every institution where it is played. So, too, it is encouraging to hear the president of a school board laying down the sound but now generally forgotten principle, that the authorities in charge of an educational institution "have no business to countenance, and so encourage, dangerous sports."

There is nothing like agreement among the authorities as to what constitutes "slugging" in football, or as to what extent slugging on the part of university students should be condemned. This is not to be wondered at. It will be remembered that a Yale professor three years ago, in a book on the science, held that "personal encounters of some sort seem absolutely necessary to the education of young men, especially men of the strongest character." At what point does a "personal encounter" between players of rival teams cease to be "roughness," which is held by experts to be as permissible as it is necessary, and become "slugging," for which President Harper of the University of Chicago has announced that the offender "will be dropped from the team and University at one and the same time"? This is just now a burning question in Syracuse and Colgate Universities. In a recent game between elevens representing these institutions it is alleged that "Syracuse players intentionally 'tackled' Colgate men who did not have the ball, contrary to the rules of the game, and seemed to slug as if trained in the ring instead of on the gridiron"; that "the Syracuse fullback, while being forced back with the ball by Colgate men, lost his self-control and deliberately punched one of the Colgate men in the eye"; that "naturally Colgate men retaliated"; and that finally "the players all lost self-control and some of the spectators tried to quiet them." It is further affirmed that "Syracuse men were heard to speak laudingly of players who slugged, and in condemnation of the action of President Harper of Chicago in reference to such actions."

The London *Economist*, commenting on the rumor that Lord Salisbury had resigned, advises him to give up one of his offices, that of Foreign Secretary, on the ground that, whether true or false, there is a strong popular impression that in that office he has failed. On the other hand, it advises him to keep the Premiership, on the ground that he has great mental powers and high rank and is a favorite of the Tory party. The truth is that Lord Salisbury, like Mr. Balfour and many others, owes his reputation for all sorts of ability, simply to his being an anti-Home-Ruler. Previous to Gladstone's attempt at Irish home rule, and especially after the Berlin treaty fiasco, there was no general impression of his ability whatever. His meek succumbing to Disraeli, whom he hated and despised, his clumsy device of a secret understanding with the Russian Minister, and then astounding denial of its existence, and the whole hodgepodge called "peace with honor," gave the country the idea of want both of capacity and of good faith, and made Mr. Goschen's declaration that he was not prepared "to give Lord Salisbury a blank check" in foreign affairs, seem a very good *reductio ad absurdum*. When Gladstone took office in 1886, Lord Salisbury had, in the public eye, failed or was incompetent, and Mr. Balfour, though sixteen years in the House of Commons, had never been heard of. Lord Salisbury has never said or written anything to give an impression of mental power. He has published nothing, and made no sort of literary display, except smart and cynical articles in the *Saturday Review*. Both he and Mr. Balfour, to say the blunt truth, owe all their eminence to the wild alarm excited in England by the Home Rule bill, and to their social position. They rode into power and fame on the crest of this wave, and they have been found out in two years, Lord Salisbury by his diplomatic failure and Mr. Balfour by his bimetallism.

THE ROOT OF THE MATTER.

Nothing more dramatic has occurred in our political history than the reappearance in the canvass of Henry George, after many years of seclusion and apparent failure, to reaffirm his doctrines and resuscitate his fame by an early and sudden death. Never was it more true than of him, that, being dead, he yet speaketh; for we do not believe it is an exaggeration to say that his death has given twice the force to his words they would have had had he lived. For we may fairly conclude that had he lived he would have been defeated at the polls, and his peculiar doctrines would again have shared his political eclipse. But he took himself at once out of the category of preachers of hopeless opinions by his vigorous attack on the root of our city evils. Most other orators treated Croker's and Platt's badness as the cause of our woes. He said: "The trouble lies deeper. These men do only what all bosses have done, levy blackmail on people whom they can attack through venal legislatures. If I am elected, you need not expect me to reform our taxation or reduce car fares. These things are beyond my powers, I know, but you may count on my bringing these rogues to justice. This I can do and will do." This talk rang through the city like a trumpet call, and stirred up the masses as no other speaking had done, and then came his death, impressing people like a heroic sacrifice for the public good. Considering everything, the speculation which followed on the effect of his death on the canvass was droll, if anything connected with such a tragedy could be droll, for Croker and Platt both maintained that those whom he had roused would at once go over to the causes which he hated and to the men whom he denounced.

Mr. George's stern and energetic presentation of Platt and Croker as criminals to be punished was in a certain sense a new idea. Most of our other orators had given it the go-by, and treated "Mr." Platt and "Mr." Croker simply as over-ambitious political opponents, who merited nothing more than defeat at the polls. George shook the handcuffs and striped jackets before their eyes, and pointed them out to his followers as double-dyed criminals, whose condign punishment he would, if elected, consider his first and most solemn duty. The moral law, for the first time in city politics, we may say, spoke through him to the masses. There was no mincing, no allowances, no courtesy, no compliments or qualification, such as have been showered on some other city thieves and reprobates; nothing but the Ten Commandments in their naked majesty. For this we honor his memory.

The *causa causans*, as the philosophers say, of Platt and Croker both, is the corporations which supply them with money. Could we stop corporation contributions, these two men would sink into utter insignificance. They owe *all* their importance to the money they are able to dispense. How they spend it and where they get it is well known, and has been frequently pointed out. No one, not even Quigg or Lauterbach, pretends that, if Platt had not this money, his doings and sayings would have the slightest importance. He has none of the qualities of a popular leader. He is not eloquent, or witty, or wise, or magnetic. Low cunning he has in abundance, but even a band of thieves would not enlist under him on this account. His appearance simply as a candidate for command would set a band of brigands in a roar. He is what he is simply because he holds the bag. Take the bag from him, and an enthusiastic canvass against him would become supremely ridiculous.

It is to be observed, in confirmation of all this, that whichever boss is able to command the city money, as a rule, also commands the Legislature. The Legislature goes with the city much as a Waterbury watch goes with a suit of ready-made clothing, or a chromo with a year's subscription. The corporations give money to both bosses, but they always give most to the one which has won the last city election. It was the general impression that Platt had shared in the victory of Strong—that is, that it was to him the credit of the Strong victory would accrue—that enabled him to get together such a collection of venal cattle as made him Senator over Mr. Choate. The legislators obey the "Old Man" for precisely the same reason for which the porter obeys him at No. 49 Broadway. They know they would lose their places if they did not obey him. When Tammany won the city, Croker stepped into the boss-ship at Albany without the smallest question in any quarter. He soon had the Legislature, and his Sulzer, and the usual gang of mercenaries ready to pass laws without discussion, on telegraphic orders, almost as a matter of course, and all because he then carried the bag, not because he was an orator, or statesman, or influential in any good or moral sense.

Now, where did the bag come from? It came from the corporations. No bag, no boss. Could we stop the bag, we might still have bosses, but they would be bosses like Daniel Webster, or Silas Wright, or William H. Seward, or Low, or Hewitt, who would be followed and obeyed because they were loved and admired, or were considered wise counsellors, or had become great party leaders through force of eloquence or political skill. Therefore, we say unhesitatingly that unless a victory at the polls were soon followed by fresh legislation making the payment of money by corporations to *any one*, for political purposes, a penal offence, entailing a few years of stern penitentiary, and making the payment of money to candidates for the Legislature *by any one*, or its receipt by any one, also a penitentiary offence, we should have the boss back again in a very short time. The great aggregations of money known as "corporations" are a new thing in the modern world. The extravagant use of money in elections is also a comparatively new thing in America. Both of them were unknown to the men who in our constitutions laid the foundation of our polity. Neither of them has been adequately dealt with, or dealt with at all in our legislation. There has, therefore, grown up rapidly that curious creation of mixed bribery and blackmail known as "the boss." He must be dealt with by law speedily if he is not to ruin our government, and the corporations must be expelled from politics if they are not to rule us wholly through a new form of government, which would be the meanest and basest contrivance devised by man since he began to live in society.

EX-MINISTER TAYLOR ON CUBA.

Mr. Hannis Taylor, our Minister to Spain under President Cleveland, publishes in the *North American Review* for November an article on the Cuban question which is important in both source and substance. It might be thought indelicate for Mr. Taylor to write about Spain as he does soon after leaving Madrid. He himself seems to feel that his article is open to the suspicion of being thought undiplomatic, but excuses his writing it on the ground of its being his "duty to lay before my countrymen my humble testimony on the whole subject." We never were, in this country, great sticklers for diplomatic propriety, and Mr. Taylor need fear little censure on that score—especially when he comes forward not as an idle gossip, but as a slave of duty. For the rest, it must be said that his high standing as man and scholar, and his opportunity for studying Spanish politics at first hand for four years, lend him an authority in the matter in question to which few can pretend.

Mr. Taylor's analysis of the causes of the Cuban rebellion agrees with that made by intelligent Spaniards. It is a rebellion based on economic reasons and inflamed by misgovernment. The prosperity of Cuba depends upon two great staple products—sugar and tobacco—and these have been at the mercy of foreign tariffs and the benighted legislation of the Spanish Cortes. It is not necessary to go over the details. The present revolution started, it is confessed by Spaniards, in industrial discontent and misery, and its aim is primarily to secure commercial independence; political independence is subordinate, but goes with it.

This is a familiar story, but the point to which Mr. Taylor speaks with peculiar weight is the ability of Spanish states-

men either to grasp the real problem of Cuban government or to solve it. Here he is emphatically despondent, but not more so, we believe, than the facts warrant. As he says, the idea of colonial autonomy, in the English sense, of local control of local affairs, is an idea which has never yet got lodgment in a Spanish head. The Government now talks about granting Cuba home rule, but really does not mean it, because it does not even understand what home rule is. Nor do the Spanish people as a whole, who would think of a Cuban Parliament, with the powers, say, of the Canadian Parliament, as equivalent only to surrendered Spanish sovereignty. Mr. Taylor says, and doubtless with truth, that Spaniards would rather lose the island by force of arms than make it a grant of liberal self-government. The displacement of Gen. Weyler by Gen. Blanco will make no real difference. Reforms and an extension of local government may be promised; but any form of autonomy conceded by Spain would be hollow because neither Spanish Government nor people understand what autonomy really means. If it were granted in name, it would be only in the way in which the Bourbons granted the Charter—not that they had the least idea of living up to it, or thinking that anybody would suppose they would.

So far Mr. Taylor on the causes of the rebellion and the impotence of the Spanish Government to heal the Cuban sore. In these matters he writes as one with authority. What he says of the duty of the United States, what he advises Congress to do, what he predicts as the result of his advice if it is taken —all these things must be accepted for what they are worth. Yet it cannot be denied that they will be apt to have great weight with the country and with Congress. What Mr. Taylor hopes to see is, he says:

"The prompt adoption by Congress, upon its reassembling, of a joint resolution, embodying three clear and definite propositions: The first, asserting our right and duty, not only to ourselves, but to humanity, by virtue of the universally recognized doctrine of intervention, as well as by virtue of the Monroe Doctrine, to put an end to the dreadful conflict so long raging in Cuba, because it involves not only the constant disturbance of our internal peace, but also the destruction of great commercial and property interests of our citizens; the second, asserting that, after enduring patiently all such evils incident to fifteen years of war in Cuba out of the last twenty-nine, the Government of the United States has offered in vain its friendly offices as peacemaker to Spain, in hope of aiding her, without offence to her susceptibilities, in bringing to a close a strife so destructive to the material interests of both countries; the third, declaring that the Government of the United States, in view of Spain's refusal to accept such friendly and respectful mediation, has now resolved to exercise upon its own responsibility its entire moral influence, to the end that the war in Cuba may be brought to a speedy close, provided Spain fails to accomplish that result in a reasonable time, to be clearly indicated."

Mr. Taylor thinks that the passage of such a resolution could not be "justly regarded" by Spain as a *casus belli;* but this is surely to presume upon Spain's weakness. She may be weak, but she is as proud as ever. In fact, there is reason to believe that, as in the case of a decayed noble family, she clings to the last remnants of her former greatness with a pride that is all the fiercer for her enfeeblement. This at least is certain, that Spain would prefer to lose Cuba as the result of a war with the United States rather than surrender the island to the insurgents unaided. So it would be the height of folly for Congress to pass such resolutions as Mr. Taylor urges, without seeing that they lead directly to war with Spain, and without preparing for such a war. Our duty is our duty, whatever the result; but we must not flatter ourselves that we can discharge it with light hearts on account of "sunk Spain's prolonged death-agony."

COLLEGE ENGLISH.

The Harvard Committee on Composition and Rhetoric have made their final report to the Board of Overseers, on "College English"—that is, on the English of the young men who present themselves for entrance to the college. The three previous reports were devoted mainly to the revelations made as to the quality of this English by the freshmen's examination papers and themes. They reflected, many thought, too severely on the want of proper previous training in the preparatory schools which these papers and themes seemed to indicate. Many teachers resented warmly the conclusions of the committee, and some doubted whether there was any sufficient basis for them in fact. The committee then sought to meet these objections by the publication of specimens of the compositions on which they had commented. These specimens were, as a rule, deplorable, but still the use made of them was unsatisfactory to the schoolmasters, who had many ways of accounting for their badness without accepting the blame for their own schools.

Much of this blame was thrown on the practice of testing English by translations from the Greek and Latin, inasmuch as this really imposed on the student the necessity of showing skill in the use of two languages, when he was nominally called on for proficiency only in one. The committee acknowledged that there was some force in this excuse, but the fact still remained that the English of the freshmen was so very poor that the college had been compelled to establish a course called "English A," in which to teach the rudiments of English composition so as to fit the young men to profit by the remainder of the college course. The committee accordingly determined to try to get to the root of the trouble in another way, by addressing queries to the young men and women in Harvard and its annexes, touching the preparation in English they had received in their respective schools. They received 1,308 answers, on which the report before us is based. These answers have been bound together, and have been deposited in the college library, where they will probably afford a useful means of comparison to some future generation. One hundred and fifty-eight of them have been printed in an appendix to the report. They will well repay the perusal of all who are interested in methods of education.

Many of the facts one gathers from them are worth more than a passing notice. One, however, of which they make no mention, and, perhaps, the most formidable, is the hindrance the teacher of English in America receives from the belief of both parents and children, that they know English well enough. Very many of the parents and of the boys who go to college, have found that the kind of English they speak and write has served their purpose through life, and they, therefore, are not deeply impressed with the necessity of better English for their children. Speaking or writing bad English does not discredit a man or woman here socially, as speaking or writing the language of the country badly would in England or France. In most American towns success in life would furnish an ample answer to criticisms on one's speech or letters; in Europe it would only make the want of education more annoying. For somewhat similar reasons, the boy is not apt to carry the teacher's corrections far out of the school-room. He rushes back to his playmates and repeats joyously with them the solecisms against which the schoolmaster has just warned him.

But this is not the difficulty which comes out most prominently in the answers. In fact, it hardly comes out at all, and many teachers' own practice is too faulty for them to plead it. The thing in which nearly the whole body of the students seem to agree as their chief hindrance to acquiring skill in English composition at school, is want of *practice.* They all, or nearly all, say that the main reason why their themes and compositions did them so little good was that so little time was given to them. Once a week or twice a week only, were they called on to write English correctly at school. Next after this comes the futility of much of the instruction—the reading and memorizing of classic and imperfectly understood English authors, and the listening to exhortations about "style" and method, and the correction of English sentences made bad for the occasion. In fact, much of the instruction, considering that it was furnished to mere boys, appears to have been, according to the report, of extraordinary absurdity. The courses of the schools seem to be largely courses in literature given to persons who have still to learn the language. The teach-

ing of the proper use of the language, therefore, has been left to the college, which ought to be able to give all its powers and time to the teaching of literature. Next to want of practice in the schools, there is nothing about which there is so much unanimity as the excellence of this college instruction. Harvard "English A" is the subject of general praise, and not a few gratefully acknowledge the help they have received from it in making up the deficiencies with which they entered, showing that the same method, and especially the same attention to frequent practice, would have produced similar results earlier.

What is probably most surprising in all this discussion is that the supreme importance of practice, in learning to do anything well, with which everybody is familiar in nearly every pursuit in life, has not made more impression on teachers of English. To ride or row, to play billiards, or fence, or make speeches, or make music, practice is well known to be the essential condition of excellence. But a raw boy, who most of his time talks slang with slangy playmates, is expected to acquire a ready and correct use of the greatest instrument of human expression, through which one rises from an Australian savage to Plato or Shakspere, by two or three hours of drill and attention a week, in most of which he is called on to talk about things of which he has only a vague or hazy understanding. Even more surprising than this is the small impression which seems to be made on the mind of teachers by the difficulty of learning to speak a foreign modern language. Most teachers have tried to learn to speak French, or German, or Italian. No man who has ever tried it has failed to find that he might read any one of these languages for years, and study the grammar, and yet be unable to write a decent letter in it or carry on a conversation respectably. If he were asked the reason, he would almost invariably reply that it was want of "practice"—that is, that to speak fluently or write correctly, he must do it every day, must live in the country so as to be obliged to do it, or live with some one with whom he spoke it incessantly, in order to make any progress. That this patent fact, with which everybody is familiar, has not had more influence on school instruction in English is very surprising. The English of youths does not greatly differ from any language in the mouth of a foreigner. Many meanings of words, turns of expression, and idiomatic ways of saying things are all strange to him, and he has to cure himself of his faults of expression, exactly as a foreigner would, by frequent repetition and continuous attention.

Another matter to which the report calls attention is the tendency of the sort of instruction given by the schools to lead young persons to suppose that what they are being taught is to make literature, not simply to use English easily and correctly. All theme and essay writing has this tendency in a certain degree, but when it is literature that is being studied, it is difficult to avoid it. The desire and ambition of most young people who try to write or speak is to be eloquent or make a mark of some kind. The letters in this collection from the Radcliffe students show how strong this tendency is among women. The answers are not plain statements of fact. They are adorned with flowers of rhetoric, with playful illustrations, with striking analogies and reductions to absurdity. Newspaper reporters, as all editors know, labor under the same difficulty. They cannot bear to narrate or describe simply. They love to give the story literary form or ornamentation, and the result is often that the account of a small accident or offence becomes a large structure of fabulous matter, resting on a small basis of fact. In some papers the story is stripped of these accidents, but they are mostly let pass to save trouble, and the result is the prevailing want of confidence in newspaper descriptions. This matter is more important than it seems, for there can be little doubt that the value of truthfulness would be greatly enhanced if the earliest lessons in English were lessons in the importance of seeing things as they are, and telling simply what happened.

THE SCANDINAVIAN EXHIBITION AT STOCKHOLM.

STOCKHOLM, October 5, 1897.

The Stockholm Exposition of Scandinavian Industries was closed on the 3d of October. Every one who visited it must have hesitated which to admire most—the modesty of the people who could conceive and carry out with such perfect taste so striking a display of their handiwork, and yet make so little parade and noise about it, or the wonderful perfection to which they have brought such of the arts as they have long practised. One is also surprised at the ability and skill with which they are adopting and adapting to their special requirements and to their natural products every advance made by others in technical science.

Stockholm is itself an example of a city possessing beautiful natural features, improved by art, as well as of a community which, under a good civil government, displays the virtues of social order; among which not the least are uniform urbanity and courtesy. Built on a group of islands and on the mainland, where the shores of Lake Maelar contract to discharge its fresh waters, with the rush of the Rhone at Geneva, into an inlet of the Baltic, Stockholm greets the eye at every turn with graceful bridges and substantial stone quays lined with shipping, ferries flitting hither and thither, handsome stone buildings, and, as a background, forest-clad hills. Nor is the delight of the eye vitiated by offence to the nose, for in-door and out the most perfect cleanliness prevails. Even the air is not polluted with coal smoke, as wood is the domestic fuel. And, in contrast to the capital of Norway, whether it be due to the Göteborg liquor law or not, a drunken man or woman is rarely seen. Altogether, Stockholm is one of the most charming cities on earth.

On one of the promontories to the south of the city, reached by a horse-car line and by ferry-boats from every section of the city, were laid out the grounds and erected the exhibition buildings. No attempt was made to imitate Chicago, nor was the world invited to display its wares. Russia, on account of her geographical relations to the peninsula, was asked to participate and accepted; otherwise it was an exclusively Scandinavian exhibition, and therefore of so moderate a size that the visitor was not bewildered and wearied to death in trying to drag his heavy limbs through mile after mile of gallery, with the horrible dread ever haunting him of being twitted when he reached home of having omitted to see some trifle or other which his more inquisitive neighbor therefore considered the best worth seeing in the whole show. It is devoutly to be hoped that the forthcoming Paris Exposition will be the last of those stupendous world-shows which have gradually grown so unwieldy as to be beyond the compass of the average human understanding and the limit of human physical endurance, Those stimuli to industry and skill which exhibitions doubtless are should be confined, either, like this, to the natural and industrial products of one section of the world, or to one group only of the objects and aims of human industry.

The setting of the exhibition was simple and in admirable taste. The grounds were laid out with a profusion of flowers, which the spirit that presides over the weather beneficently preserved from frost till the very last day—but only till then. None of the larger buildings was conspicuous for peculiarity of design except that devoted to the industrial arts, over whose large entrance hall there towered a triple dome flanked by four towers occupied by as many elevators and capped by observation-galleries. There was a flavor of Muscovite architecture about the building, though it followed closely no recognized style. Structurally it was notable, for it was the largest wooden building in the world—a forest of 34,000 trees having been felled for its erection. There was, of course, an Old Stockholm, whose walls were defended by genuine old culverins, and whose portcullis was guarded by men in leathern jerkins and armed with veritable old cross-bows. The rooms and kitchen of the castle were stocked with furniture, ornaments, and utensils of the actual age of the building reproduced. The Midway was represented by a very modest puppet-show. On the other hand, the pavilions erected by private firms were numerically on a par with and artistically superior to those of Chicago. The prominent feature, in fact, of the whole exhibition was the high average excellence of everything displayed, and the supreme perfection of certain classes of manufacture.

As might be expected, Sweden made a most impressive display of her iron and steel industry, and she did it in a measure to emphasize the chief characteristic which all her ironmasters aim at, viz., quality before quantity. There were not immense piles of iron and steel ingots, nor huge structures of pipes and bars, but models in glass of all

her principal mines, collections of her ores beautifully displayed, and samples of the immense variety of articles she manufactures out of them. For though Sweden is now exporting from two alone of her newer mines about two million tons annually of ore of high percentage in iron, but otherwise of inferior quality, she reserves for her own manufacture her purest and choicest ores. Out of these she makes, with wood and charcoal as fuel, such iron and steel as no other country attempts to compete with her in manufacturing, and which brings so high a price that she cannot, for instance, afford to waste it upon rails, for she lays down imported iron on the very roads which depend for freight on her own steel mills. The best seamless tubes, which, when drawn, are marvels of lightness and strength, can be made only of Swedish iron, and are imported by American makers, to be returned to Sweden itself as finished bicycles. From Sweden also come the finest watch springs. In making the raw material for such articles no trouble or expense is spared to insure uniformity and excellence; and as the highest quality can be secured only by the use of wood as fuel, the iron companies are of necessity lumbering companies. Hence the manufacture of sawn timber and of wood-pulp and paper have grown up as subsidiary industries to the iron trade, and pulp and paper formed part of their exhibits. But the use of wood as fuel necessarily limits the iron production, which, judged by the American standard, is despicably small. One of Mr. Carnegie's Duquesne blast furnaces makes as much iron in six weeks as the total annual output of the largest concern in Sweden—say 30,000 tons. But if all the Carnegie blast furnaces had to be fed with charcoal and the reheating furnaces with wood gas, the Pennsylvanian forests would be swept away in about a twelvemonth to supply him alone. Extensive as the Swedish forests are, and large as are the timbered domains which each large iron company owns, restriction to the use of wood as fuel will continue to make her production small. As it is, her splendid steel industry would speedily come to an untimely end did not her provident iron and steel companies plant as well as cut, and allow neither root nor branch to go to waste. In this they teach us a lesson. Would that we were not so slow in learning it.

The large iron companies own several hundred thousand acres of timber land apiece. They plant a tree for every one they cut; but they do not wait for the sapling to grow into a tree of giant size before felling it. It is found more profitable to cut it when from eight to ten inches thick at the butt. There is, therefore, no large timber in Sweden. Then, when cut, the best is shipped to the company's paper mills; the rest is made partly into charcoal for use in the company's blast furnace, or sawn into boards and dimension lumber at its own mills for domestic use or foreign shipment. But not a grain of sawdust is allowed to escape into the streams, nor a splinter permitted to go to waste. Everything that will burn is thrown into the gas producer, and is made into pure gaseous fuel, free from the slightest trace of sulphur, to be burnt in the steel works; for there the faintest breath of coal gas would leave a stain. As proof of the sedulous care with which these manufacturers collect every portion of what we call waste, but they call riches, is the fact that salmon still run up the rivers where falls and rapids turn a score of sawmills; for Sweden and Norway have the advantage of possessing boundless water power. Very little fuel is therefore consumed in generating power. Only one large iron company is so situated as to be deficient in water for its total needs. As both steel and paper-making demand such heavy expenditure of power, and as these two industries, though so unlike, have thus become almost essentially dependent on one another, Sweden's large and rapid rivers are as much an element of her prosperity as her forests.

To the initiated the structure of pigs, ingots, and bars of iron and steel exhibited by all the Swedish steel companies was proof sufficient of the admirable quality of their wares; but to the mind and eyes of the uninitiated such a ribbon of steel as that exhibited by the Sandvik Iron Company carried a much more convincing conception of what can be done with the metal when of the highest quality. Up and down and round about the walls of the pavilion there was twined a single 8-inch wide band of steel, cold rolled, 2,354 feet long and weighing 1,146 pounds.

Two large exhibits made by two cream-separating machine companies explained the success of another of Sweden's great industries. Milking cows and making butter do not appeal to the imagination like mining ores and making pig-iron and blowing it up into steel in Bessemer converters amid a blaze of sparks before which a discharge of rockets is dim; but to the people at large the humbler occupation is of as great, if not greater, moment than the more brilliant, for Sweden's export of the produce of her dairies about equals in value that of her furnaces, and her butter is as invariably good as her steel. It is not to the credit of England and Ireland that England should be her best customer.

For the excellence, variety, and novelty of the terracotta, faïence, and porcelain exhibits, Denmark perhaps should be accorded the prize over Sweden; and in the manufacture of enamelled jewelry Norway excels Sweden and aims at even rivalling Russia, especially in articles of transparent enamel. But there was a branch of domestic industry in which Sweden had, at least in the exhibition, no competitor—that of home-woven woollen goods. A large stone building with a wooden annex was devoted to the display of Sweden's educational and sanitary instruction and methods, among which the Swedish-movement cure in active operation was the most attractive. But the most interesting to a foreigner was the large section of the building appropriated to the Swedish provinces for the hand-made tools, utensils, carved wood, and textile fabrics manufactured by the peasantry. The rather too brilliant aprons and petticoats, which are conspicuous in the costumes of the women, did not lead us to expect such artistic subjection and perfect blending of color and such harmony of design as were displayed in the rugs, curtains, and portières which came from every section of the country except from the extreme north. In finish and beauty of pattern, if not in weight and thickness, they would compare with like fabrics of the East. Every cottage has its loom, and nearly every Swedish countrywoman is more or less expert in handling it. Certain very beautiful native patterns, transmitted as traditions, are reproduced in them for domestic service; but of late years this skill in weaving, for the practice of which the long winters give ample time and opportunity, has been encouraged and directed into new channels by an association of patriotic women in Stockholm, the "Friends of the Handicraftsman." Promising girls are taught the higher branches of the art of weaving in a central school, from which teachers are sent to the small provincial towns and villages, where, for a trifling sum, instruction is given to the peasant women in short courses of technical teaching. Thus their inherited skill and natural proclivities receive fresh impetus and are directed by new motives. The danger, of course, lies in a tendency towards imitation, in the corresponding loss of originality, and a too great departure from the patterns and designs which are the expression of the native mind and taste. But the result, so far as it could be judged of from the provincial exhibits in this northern museum, would lead us to expect that, if this wonderful taste should be judiciously cultivated and industriously practised, the products of the looms of the Swedish peasant women will be sought the world over by those who appreciate the beautiful and are willing to pay for it, for their work is by no means cheap. The motto of Sweden, as we have already said, is, "Quality, not quantity," and for quality you must pay.

J. Douglas.

FAGNIEZ'S FATHER JOSEPH.

Paris, October 21, 1897.

Politics extends its influence even into the quiet domain of literature and of history. The Franco-Russian alliance has given great notoriety to the name of our present Minister of Foreign Affairs. It was prepared by his predecessors, but he has been so fortunate as to be the instrument of the final consummation; he accompanied President Faure to Russia, and played his part in the Olympus of Emperors, Grand Dukes, and Grand Duchesses. M. Hanotaux is a scholar, he was at the École des Chartes ; he entered the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, not in the political division, but merely in the division of the Archives. He made himself so useful, however, he showed such a perfect acquaintance with diplomatic documents, that he rose rapidly, and became one of the important officials of the department. He entered for a little while the Chamber of Deputies, but, not being an orator, he made little mark there, and he abandoned his post of Deputy to resume his former duties. The constitution allows the President to choose his Ministers outside of the Chamber; he never uses this prerogative except for three ministries—of War, of the Navy, of Foreign Affairs. M. Hanotaux, who is now Minister of Foreign Affairs, is not a Deputy.

His rapid promotion is explainable by his great knowledge of the diplomatic traditions of the Quai d'Orsay, and by the support which he has consequently received from all those who belong to what is called at the Quai d'Orsay "la carrière." M. Hanotaux never speaks extemporaneously, but when a question is put to him he can always prepare a declaration written with the caution and the mixture of vagueness and precision which are considered necessary in diplomacy. Long before he thought of entering upon his high functions, he prepared himself for the laborious task of writing the life of one of

the greatest ministers—of Richelieu. Richelieu's correspondence was published a few years ago under the editorship of M. Avenel; but there is still in the Archives of our Foreign Office a mountain of what are called the "Richelieu papers." M. Hanotaux has studied carefully all these documents, and is laying the foundation of a very exhaustive biography of the minister of Louis XIII. He has already published two volumes on Richelieu, but they take the reader only to the beginning of Richelieu's first ministry.

The Cardinal had an acolyte, a colaborer, who was familiarly known as the "Éminence grise." Father Joseph remained in the background, but he played a very important part, as is well shown in the work of M. Gustave Fagniez, published in two huge octave volumes, 'Le Père Joseph et Richelieu.' François Le Clerc du Tremblay was born in Paris on the 4th of November, 1577. He was the eldest son of a councillor of the King, first president at the *requêtes* of the Palais, who belonged to one of the old parlementary families, certion of whose members were often employed in diplomacy. François Le Clerc pursued his studies at the University of Paris. The Ligue had divided France into two camps, and the University of Paris had fallen into a state of great disorder. "Indifference to science, brutality of manners—these fruits of civil war had ruined the studies and the discipline." At the age of seventeen François Le Clerc entered an "académie," a sort of military school, where he made the acquaintance of the great Duke Henri de Rohan, with whom he had afterwards so much to do.

He felt very early a religious calling, made the acquaintance of Bérulle, and, after some struggles between his affection for his mother and his vocation, in 1599 he entered the novitiate of the Capuchins of Orléans. In entering the order of St. Francis, Father Joseph had chosen the institute which was most in harmony with his aspirations. A life of contemplation was not intended for him. He was a man of action; he was made for proselytism, ready to start wherever he was called by imperative duties, mixing with the people; he had the soul of an apostle. In 1613 he was appointed Provincial of Touraine, and this dignity gave him occasion to play an important part in the civil wars and commotions of the minority of Louis XIV. The confusion of these wars involved not only the individual aims of the great noblemen, Condé, Mayenne, Bouillon, etc., but also a struggle between the civil and religious powers, between the Church and the State. It was the ambition of the Church to govern the State and to have a cardinal in the ministry. The Duke de Luynes, the favorite of Louis XIII., was the natural enemy of the Queen Mother, who was in the hands of the priests, and who made the fortune of Richelieu. Condé, the father of the Great Condé, was looked upon at first as the natural leader of what might be called the lay cause, the cause of the State. He could have rallied round him the Parlement, which was strongly opposed to the predominance of the Church over the State, the bourgeoisie, the Protestants. Father Joseph was employed to turn him away from the cause which his ancestors had defended, even with arms in hand; he frightened him with a Gallican schism, and finally obtained from him a complete submission.

Father Joseph had engaged in a double crusade—against the Protestants of France and against the Turks for the reconquest of the Holy Land. We find him by the side of the King in his campaigns against the Protestants of Béarn.

"In the campaign of Poitou, Jesuits and Capuchins mingled with the soldiers to encourage them and hear their confession; the expedition had something of the nature of a crusade. At Saumur, it was in the chapel of Notre-Dame des Ardiliers that Louis XIII. held his final council of war, and received the Communion wth all his retinue; he left this revered sanctuary, where Father Joseph felt the first movement which would make him the founder of the Calvary, more excited against the Huguenots. A spirit of fanaticism had entered the army; officers and soldiers mutilate the books of the Protestant Governor, Duplessy-Mornay. From Saumur the army goes to . . . Thouars, where the Duke de la Trémoille opens the gates and where our Capuchin founds a convent of his order."

This extract gives an idea of the work of Father Joseph. The details of these civil wars are only too well known. Father Joseph's efforts against the Turks are less familiar. It may be said that his whole life was filled with the desire to see the Holy Land torn from the hands of the Mussulmans. He founded a congregation whose spiritual merits were intended to obtain the deliverance of the Christians of the East; he tried to unite in the same view all the Christian nations of Europe. It is rather painful to think that, since the seventeenth century, the question which preoccupied Father Joseph has not made a step in advance. The Eastern question was reopened this year, and what has been the result? Turkey has been placed again, by the action of what calls itself the European Concert, among the great Powers, and the Sultan is more powerful now than he was a year ago. "From the day," says M. Fagniez, "when the conquest of Constantinople by the Turks, the last wave of the barbarian invasions, inaugurated modern times, to the day when Father Joseph tried to interest the Powers in his projects, Europe seemed to have nothing more in common with that Christian Republic of the Middle Ages which still kept the mark of the Roman and Carolingian unity, which revered its representatives in the Pope and in the Emperor, and which was led to the crusades by a common faith." With slight alteration, might not this phrase apply to the year 1897? It can even be said that the feeling of Christian solidarity is much weaker now than it was in the time of Father Joseph. "The destruction of the Ottoman fleet at Lepanto, the general reprobation provoked by the alliance of the most Christian Kings with the Sultans, the projects which Sully attributes to Henri IV., numerous writings prove that the divisions of Christendom did not make it forget the solidarity of its members nor the danger of Islamism."

Father Joseph found a chief for the crusade in the person of the Duke de Nevers. Charles de Gonzague was the grandson of Margaret Palæologus of Montferrat; his father was an Italian, Louis de Gonzague, his mother a German, Henrietta of Cleves; he was an ardent Catholic, a man of chivalrous courage and of great ambition. The Duke had made war against the Turks and been wounded in the siege of Buda; the Greeks chose him as a leader in the revolt of one of the provinces of Morea, Maina, a strip of land which was protected by mountains against the Turks. Father Joseph threw himself with great ardor into this movement of the Greeks. The Duke de Nevers prepared an expedition to Morea; his agents visited the bishops and the most important men in Macedonia, Servia, Albania, Dalmatia, and Croatia. Many promises were made them, but always subordinate to the adhesion and participation of the King of France. The complications of the civil wars in France were a great obstacle. Nevers had to take care first of his government of Champagne in France. In 1617 the Duke founded in France the self-styled Order of the Christian Militia, an order similar in some respects to that of Malta. It is impossible to enter here into the details of all the efforts made by Nevers in France and in Austria to organize a crusade against the Turks. Alas! the ships which Charles de Gonzague had constructed for the crusade, instead of showing to the Crescent the Christians united under the Cross, served only against the French Huguenots, who perished miserably in our civil wars.

M. Fagniez, in his elaborate work, gives innumerable particulars about the missions which were organized by Father Joseph in France to obtain a Catholic revival in the provinces where the Protestant faith was still dominant. Father Joseph's spiritual work extended all over Europe, including England, over the East—Asia Minor, Persia, Egypt, Abyssinia, Morocco. The originality of his character is shown in his dual rôle of missionary and of diplomat. His spiritual work was helped by his temporal work. A man of the world, he could be employed in any diplomatic mission, and he became, in fact, the most powerful instrument and sometimes the instigator and inspirer of Richelieu, when the great Cardinal had to conduct a mighty struggle between France and the powerful House of Austria. While we must greatly commend M. Gustave Fagniez's work, which has added so much new material to history, we cannot help remarking the fatiguing confusion which constantly interrupts the natural succession of events—a confusion which arises from the dual character of Father Joseph. The reader will often lose himself in it, and it at times becomes almost inextricable.

Correspondence.

HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In view of the introduction of the high-school system into New York, the following facts may not be uninteresting concerning the new classical course in the Girls' High School in Philadelphia. The course is intended as a thorough preparation for college and runs through four years. It was organized four years ago, but its success was not fully evident until this fall, when the first students completely prepared by the High School entered Bryn Mawr College, which, owing to its proximity, is chosen by most of those intending to go to college. The course was, in fact, mapped with the Bryn Mawr requirements in view, and was most carefully supervised and gone over by Miss Thomas, the President of Bryn Mawr, in conjunction with Dr. Edward Brooks, the Superintendent of Public Education in Philadelphia.

At the time the course was organized,

the trustees of Bryn Mawr established eight scholarships, of the value of $400 each, to be awarded annually to those students of the school who passed the Bryn Mawr entrance examinations most successfully. The first year of the course is devoted mainly to grounding in Latin and algebra; five hours weekly are given to each branch, the remaining time being taken up by four hours of English, four of French, and one of physiology. The second year is still largely Latin and mathematics, five hours of Cæsar, two of Latin prose composition, five of plane geometry; two hours being devoted to English, five to French, and four to German. The third year, five hours a week are spent on Cicero, three on Latin prose and sight reading (the Bryn Mawr language examinations are now entirely at sight), two hours on English, five on French and German, and five on a mathematical review. The fourth year's course is elective, and those students who do not wish to enter college have the privilege of transferring to the general course preparatory to entering the normal schools. If elected, the fourth year consists of four hours of English, three of physics or some natural science, five Virgil, three Latin prose and sight reading, five German, and five history of Greece and Rome. It has, moreover, recently been decided to admit sufficient Greek to pass a collegiate entrance examination—that is, Greek prose and sight reading in Xenophon and Homer. The Greek may be taken instead of either German or French, the requirement being to present three languages in the matriculation examinations.

The six students who came up for matriculation at Bryn Mawr this fall from the graduating class at the High School were of extremely high standing in the list of the entrance examinations, one of them being first of 250 girls who took the examinations coming from all parts of the country. Her average was 88, the highest ever obtained in the Bryn Mawr entrance examinations. The other five girls passed, one clear of conditions, two with but one-half a condition, two with but one.

The course is complete in itself, and no preparatory work whatever is done in the grammar schools before entering the High School. The girls enter by application for examination, and the number of applicants this fall was unprecedented. Dr. Brooks says that the success of this classical course, and the splendid records made in the Bryn Mawr entrance examinations by the students referred to above, are largely responsible for the unusually great number of applications coming from private schools.

H.

Bryn Mawr, October 25, 1897.

AN ETYMOLOGY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Every one who has made the tour of Switzerland will have read in his Baedeker the altogether unlikely stories that seek to connect the rugged mountain near Lucerne, Mount Pilatus, with the name of that worthy Biblical character, Pontius Pilatus. He will soon learn from experience (after it is pointed out to him in the guide-book) the value of the cap of cloud that hovers over Mount Pilatus as a local signal-service station.

In the summer of 1896 my colleague in the law department, Prof. Charles E. Graves, was in Lucerne, and, looking up at Pilatus with its cap of cloud, he translated the phenomenon into Latin: *mons pilleatus*, "the capped mountain." This seems to me a most alluring explanation of the name; and if we may suppose that *pilleatus* was connected by the inhabitants at an early period with the name of Pilate, which must have been well known to even the lowest of them through the medium of Mother Church, all phonetic questions and difficulties will be avoided.—Yours truly, Edwin W. Fay.

Washington and Lee University,
Lexington, Va., October 20, 1897.

NOT GERMAN, BUT AMERICAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: John Morley, in his recent Romanes lecture, refers to my book, 'Machiavelli and the Elizabethan Drama' (kindly noticed in the *Nation* of March 25), as "the work of a German writer." Will you kindly rectify the error and state that the author is an American, who wrote his book in London and Heidelberg for the degree of Ph.D. in the latter place, and is at present instructor in Germanic philology at Adelbert College, Western Reserve University? The book was printed in Weimar and recently reviewed at length by Prof. Emil Köppel of Strassburg in the last number of the *Englische Studien*.—Respectfully, Edward Meyer.

844 Logan Ave., Cleveland, Ohio,
October 24, 1897.

PINES AND SPRUCES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the "Physical Chart of the North Polar Regions" accompanying Nansen's 'Farthest North,' the northern tree limits of the species of spruce, *Picea alba* and *Picea nigra*, are carefully outlined; but these trees are called in the chart "white and black pines." Elsewhere in the chart the *Picea obovata* is called a "pine."

Is there any authority for this nomenclature? It will certainly be very misleading to the average reader, if he is not familiar with botanical names, and he will be led to believe that pines are found very far north of their real limits. Incidentally, let me suggest that the lack of description of the northern limits of the poplars and willows leaves out a most interesting feature that should be added to the chart, if the chart pretends to be instructive about tree lines. The willows probably occur farther north than any other trees. Robt. T. Morris.

No. 49 W. 39th St., New York,
October 23, 1897.

[*Pinus* formerly included certain genera which have been separated from it. Among these is the genus which our correspondent cites above as *Picea*. The species of *Picea* are properly called spruces; to call them pines would perpetuate the idea, now generally abandoned, that there are no generic distinctions between pines and spruces. True pines do not reach as far north as the spruces. Willows occur very far north, and are there prostrate, dwarfed shrubs.
Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

The Century Co.'s November list embraces Bryce's 'Impressions of South Africa'; 'Java, the Garden of the East,' by Eliza Ruhamah Scidmore; 'The Story of Marie Antoinette,' by Anna L. Bicknell; 'Forty-six Years in the Army,' by Gen. Schofield; and James Whitcomb Riley's 'Rubáiyát of Doc Sifers,' a long story in verse of a country doctor.

Macmillan Co. will soon publish 'The Early History of the Hebrews,' by Prof. A. H. Sayce; and, in the course of the winter, 'The General Manager's Story: Oldtime Reminiscences of Railroading in the United States.' They have also in hand 'Old English Love Songs,' selected by Hamilton W. Mabie, with illustrations by George Wharton Edwards; 'Practical Ethics,' by Henry Sidgwick; and 'The Making of Abbotsford: Incidents in Scottish History,' by the Hon. Mrs. Maxwell Scott, Sir Walter's granddaughter.

From D. Appleton & Co. we are to have 'Marriage Customs of all Countries,' by the Rev. H. N. Hutchinson; 'English Literature,' by Edmund Gosse; 'Baboo Hurry Bungsho Jabberjee, B. A.,' by F. Anstey; a new edition of F. M. Chapman's 'Bird Life,' with seventy-five facsimile colored plates; a new edition of Alfred R. Conkling's 'City Government in the United States,' with a chapter on Greater New York; and a new uniform edition of Gilbert Parker's novels.

Thomas Whittaker has nearly ready a new (the seventh) edition, revised and enlarged to cover the past quarter of a century, of Dr. McConnell's 'History of the American Episcopal Church.'

T. Y. Crowell & Co. have arranged with ex-President Cleveland to publish immediately his address entitled 'The Self-Made Man in American Life.' This will be added to the "What Is Worth While Series."

The 'Life of Napoleon Bonaparte,' by S. Baring-Gould (London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Truslove & Comba), is a folio of some six hundred pages, illustrated with photogravures from noted historical paintings, and engraved reproductions of portraits, medals, drawings from statues and statuettes, caricatures, etc., almost without end, and in elegant form. The text is a compilation of what bears particularly upon the development of character in Napoleon, professedly restricting the story of his military career to an outline only. The whole is woven together with literary skill, making an anecdotal life of the hero of remarkable fulness, comprising nearly everything that has been told of him by his contemporaries. The view taken of Napoleon's character is the severe one—what may be called the standard English view—corrected by the investigations and publications of the present generation, and reinforced by the judgment of such authorities as Lanfrey and Taine. The gigantic power of the man in intellect and will is fully recognized, but the meanness, selfishness, untruth, unscrupulousness, and immorality are unsparingly exhibited and fix the general tone of the picture.

Ernest Ingersoll's 'Wild Neighbors: Outdoor Studies in the United States' (Macmillan) is for the most part a new use of materials which have appeared in various magazines and newspapers, with such revision and amplification as fugitive pieces are apt to receive when collected in book form.

Mr. Ingersoll is no new hand at the business of what may be called interviewing natural history for the purpose of making readable stories; he always writes pleasantly, and his recent connection with one of the large dictionaries now before the public has widened his zoölogical horizon, besides strengthening his knack of being accurate as far as he goes. The merely "journalistic" element is therefore less evident than it used to be in his writings, with corresponding gain. He has become a more careful and reliable writer, but none the less entertaining. His chapters called "The Service of Tails" and "The Skunk, Calmly Considered," are among the best in this book, and all the defects of his qualities will not prevent many a reader from enjoying the whole of the articles. It is good popular natural history, written with an easy, perhaps free-and-easy, swing. The illustrations do not help us much, and seem somewhat anachronistic in these days when fine work is so readily and inexpensively procurable, being mostly technical cuts made from Baird's plates of 1857. The best of the lot, to our eye, is not in the book at all, but stamped in low relief on the cover, around the back of which the cougar's tail curls so fearfully. The whole appearance of the volume is elegant.

Mr. Edwin H. Higley's 'Greek Prose Composition' (Ginn & Co.) deserves mention because it carries out consistently the plan of a series of progressive exercises, consisting of short narratives based on passages of the 'Anabasis' and the 'Hellenica.' The vocabulary and grammatical notes are carefully prepared and judicious. The plan is, of course, not new; it has long been practised by thorough teachers—it is followed in certain German manuals to which Mr. Higley refers, and it is illustrated in the recent supplement to Dr. Allinson's useful 'Prose Composition.' But Mr. Higley's book furnishes new and useful apparatus for practice in the higher forms of preparatory schools, and perhaps also in the freshman year at college. At the same time, it provides a corrective for the lax knowledge of syntax and vocabulary which is often induced nowadays by too exclusive practice in reading at sight.

The Pamphlet holds its historical position in Germany, and nothing is quite equal to it as a source of information on the questions of the day and the more hidden currents of contemporary civilization. Such publications as Count von Hoensbroek's 'Religion oder Aberglaube? Ein Beitrag zur Charakteristik des Ultramontanismus' (Berlin: Walther) will make most readers stare with amazement at the amount of superstition of the crudest kind still prevalent among a large portion of one of the most civilized nations of the world. The author, a former pupil of the Jesuits, holds Ultramontanism and Jesuitism responsible for the perpetuation of the worst superstitions among the people. He furnishes abundant evidence of the credence and support given by the Ultramontane press and by high Church dignitaries to the notorious, preposterous, and scandalous "revelations" concerning freemasonry by the mysterious Diana Vaughan and by Leo Taxil, the latter (since April, 1897) a self-confessed impostor; he also dwells at length upon the teachings of the Church concerning demonology and Satanism. Among the most astounding productions of modern divines are the 'Purgatory' and 'Hell' of J. Bautz, docent at the Academy of Münster (1883), from which quotations are given.

'Der Katholizismus als Princip des Fortschritts,' by Dr. Herman Schell, Professor of Apologetics and formerly rector of the University of Würzburg (fifth edition, Würzburg: Göbel), discusses, from the point of view of a somewhat liberal German Catholic, the question why Catholics have been relegated to such an inferior position in modern intellectual and social life. This fact, recognized and investigated years ago by Cardinal Manning (see Purcell's 'Life'), is no longer denied. Recent German school statistics, for example, show that, in round numbers, out of 10,000 Protestants 53 are found on the benches of the Gymnasia or Realschulen, while for the Catholics the proportion is only 32. The Israelites leave both the other confessions far behind, 332 out of every 10,000 attending secondary schools. Dr. Schell's views have called forth numerous replies and critiques, from his coreligionists as well as from Protestants and from those sharing neither faith. The most extreme liberal standpoint is occupied by Dr. Emil Wahrendorp in 'Katholizismus als Fortschrittsprincip? Mit einem offenen Briefe an Prof. Dr. H. Schell' (Bamberg: Handels-Druckerei).

The proportionally large number of Semites seeking a higher education is also referred to by M. Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu in 'L'Antisémitisme' (Paris: Calmann Lévy), in which the statement is made that complaints are not infrequently heard from Christian boys and parents in France of the numerous triumphs won by Jewish scholars in the lycées. The little volume is a stenographic report (including the ill-natured and ill-mannered interruptions indulged in by part of the audience) of an address given before the Catholic Institute. It is a vigorous arraignment of the doctrines, methods, and polemical procedure of the anti-Semites.

A good thing has been done by the Hinrichs publishing-house in Leipzig—alike for the work of which it forms a part and for the Biblical student—by reprinting in a separate volume, 8vo, pp. 240, the articles on the original text of the Bible and its translations prepared for the third edition of the 'Realencyklopädie für protestantische Theologie und Kirche.' This volume gives the fullest and latest information about the Bible and more than a score of its translations, by a dozen such scholars as Buhl, Von Gebhardt, Berger, Dalman, Gregory, Nestle, Prätorius, and others, whose names are a sufficient guarantee for the trustworthiness of their articles.

The third and final volume of 'Moltke's Militärische Korrespondenz,' just issued by Mittler & Sohn, Berlin, contains valuable contributions to the history of the Franco-German war from the suspension of hostilities in the spring of 1871 to the complete evacuation of French territory by the German troops on September 13, 1873. Nothing could be more admirable than the combination of tact and energy shown by the great strategist during the peace negotiations, which were complicated by the ascendency of the mob and the temporary supremacy of the Commune in Paris. The value of Moltke's correspondence is greatly enhanced by the fact that no full, official history of this period has as yet been published.

The first full and accurate statistics of losses in life and property caused by the Franco-German war, the active operations of which lasted about six months, have been recently published by Signor Bodio, Director-General of the Italian Statistical Bureau. France lost 136,000 men, of whom 30,000 were either killed or died of wounds received in battle, 36,000 died of disease in France, and 20,000 died as prisoners of war in Germany. There were also 477,400 men rendered unfit for service during the war, namely, 138,000 by wounds in battle, 11,400 by wounds and other injuries on the march, and 328,000 by disease, privation, exposure, and similar causes. The losses of the Germans, as compiled by Bodio from official and thoroughly authentic reports, were 17,255 men killed in battle and 21,023 deceased in ambulances and hospitals, making a total loss of 38,278 by death. The loss of the French was therefore 97,722 more than that of the Germans. The losses of France in money, so far as they can be estimated, were 2,387 millions of francs for military expenditure, 5,743 millions for war indemnity, 1,156 millions for loans and premiums, 207 millions for public works necessitated by war, 605 millions for compensation to private individuals, 2,034 millions for losses incurred by the state through diminution of revenue, etc., and 535 millions for losses incurred by the communes and reimbursed by the state, making a sum total of 12,667 millions of francs. This amount does not include the incalculable damage done to agriculture, commerce, and the various branches of industry and the permanent loss of revenue from Alsace and Lorraine. As to victorious Germany, the war indemnity of 5,743 million francs by no means made good the material losses suffered by that country. We commend these figures to the serious consideration of our Jingoes.

In the sixteenth annual report of the Bureau of American Ethnology, just published, is a paper by Muñiz and McGee on "Primitive Trephining in Peru," giving evidence that this operation as there practised represents a stage in the "gradual transition from thaumaturgic manipulation into empiric surgery." Cosmos Mindeleff describes the "Cliff Ruins of Canyon de Chelley, Arizona," and concludes that the cliff-dwellers were Indians and not a distinct people. "Day Symbols of the Maya Year," by Cyrus Thomas, is a discussion of the origin and significance of the names given to the twenty days of the Mexican month. J. Walter Fewkes describes the "Tusayan Snake Ceremonies," which he believes have two main purposes, the making of rain and the growth of corn, ophiolatry having little or nothing to do with them. The papers are illustrated, the views of the cliff-dwellings being especially interesting.

The California Academy of Sciences has begun publication of its Proceedings in three sections, devoted to Botany, Geology, and Zoölogy respectively. In the first number of the zoölogical series, Gustav Eisen writes upon "Plasmocytes," a hitherto undescribed element in the blood of certain batrachians. "Submerged Valleys of the Coast of California," by George Davidson, and "Scientific Names of Latin and Greek Derivation," by Walter Miller, are among the other papers in the seven numbers already issued.

A geological description of Pachuca, in which the physiography, general geology, mines, metallurgy, and other features of the subject are treated by different writers, is

contained in the latest *Boletin* of the Geological Institute of Mexico. It is illustrated by numerous half-tones and some excellent contour maps.

The *Geographical Journal* for October opens with an interesting account, by Lieut. Vandeleur, of the recent expedition against the Fulas of Nupe and Ilorin in the basin of the Niger. "A Journey in Southwestern Patagonia" is mainly occupied with a description of the physical features of a region in which "five years ago no single white man was living," but where now "the open land is largely occupied" by settlers from "England, Scotland, the Falkland Islands, or Australia." R. T. Günther, holding an Oxford University geographical studentship, gives the results of investigations of the Phlegræan Fields, near Naples, made in order to determine the quantity of volcanic matter erupted and the relative ages of the crater-slopes and the volcanoes themselves. Each of these papers is accompanied by numerous illustrations and maps. We have noticed several discrepancies between the spelling of names in the text and upon the map of the first paper, as, Egbon, Jakpana, and Lokicha in the text, Egbom, Jakpara, and Lokitsha on the map.

The reopening of the medical school for women in St. Petersburg on September 23 may be regarded as an event of historical as well as of educational significance. This institution was founded in 1872 by Count Milyutin, the well-known Liberal Minister of War under Alexander II. With the accession of Alexander III., and partly in consequence of the assassination of his father, a violent reaction set in, which effectually checked the reformatory movements already begun, and in 1882 suppressed the medical school for women as "a hot-bed of nihilism," notwithstanding the earnest efforts of its founder to save it. The revival of the school is regarded as a good omen and is hailed as a decisive proof of progress both in education and in politics.

Women are now admitted to the University of Vienna as matriculated students under the following conditions: (1) They must be Austrian subjects; (2) they must be eighteen years of age; (3) they must have passed an abiturient or final examination in an Austrian gymnasium or in some foreign gymnasium of equal standing. The first of these conditions is thoroughly provincial and preposterous, and will doubtless soon be set aside. Women may be admitted as hearers provided they have finished successfully the courses of instruction prescribed in normal schools for girls or in some other school of equal rank. If they enter, they must attend at least ten lectures a week in some department of the philosophical faculty. The number of women already registered for the winter semester is thirteen, of whom eleven are hearers and two matriculates. Four of them take courses in mathematics, four in philosophy, two in physics, two in history and Germanistic studies, and one in natural science, including zoölogy, botany, and mineralogy.

The session of the Icelandic Althing that has just closed gave promise at one time of settling the question of a revision of the Constitution, with which every session for the past sixteen years has been engaged. In place of the usual radical proposal, a moderate measure was introduced, which included, however, one of the essential features of home rule—an independent resident minister for Iceland, in place of the present Danish Minister, who combines with Icelandic affairs the Department of Justice. Although the bill failed to pass the lower house in a form that made it possible for the upper house to accept it, there seems to be every prospect that a new election will be called, and that the advocates of this moderate measure will receive the support of the people.

The death of the Danish historian Adolf Ditlev Jorgensen, which occurred in Copenhagen on October 5, is naturally connected with that of our own historian Justin Winsor. Nor is the association suggested merely by the accident of their dying in the same month. There was much in the personal character and in the nature of the work of the two men to suggest a comparison. Like Winsor, this Danish scholar was a patient and conscientious student of historical sources, omitting nothing that could contribute to a fuller understanding of the subject under discussion. As Keeper of the Public Records he brought order out of chaos, and thus more than any other one person determined modern historical methods in Denmark. He was also the author of a number of articles, monographs, and independent works, all of which are characterized by thoroughness and originality. At first his attention was directed to the earlier periods in connection with the development of the Scandinavian Church, laws, folk songs, heraldry, etc. Owing to the fact that he was a Schleswiger by birth, he was specially interested in the Schleswig-Holstein question, about which he published several monographs. Of great value as original studies are his biographies of Georg Zoega, Thorwaldsen's early friend in Rome, the poet Johannes Evald, and the statesman Peter Schumacher Griffenfeld. He was also known as the author of popular historical works. At the time of his death, Jorgensen was engaged on the great History of Denmark ('Det Danske Riges Historie'), of which he was one of the editors.

Admirers of Ian Maclaren should be well pleased with the Kalendar for 1898 which bears Dr. Watson's *nom de plume* (Dodd, Mead & Co.). It consists of a dozen folio rubricated leaves loosely bound with corded silk, each having a decorative border and a vignette pertinent to Dr. Watson's writings. These are drawn upon for a daily text, with marginal readings of greater length duly credited to the respective works. The designer, Mr. William Snelling Hadaway, is to be praised in the main, especially in his village and house sketches; but his skill is not equal to mountain delineation with strokes that tell, every one. Other calendars before us for the coming year are from R. H. Russell, No. 9 Rose Street—one, the "Sports and Seasons Calendar," with large colored plates by several hands, and mostly clever and taking; the other, Mr. E. W. Kemble's "Coon Calendar," in which this artist's mastery of the negro physiognomy is kept more in check than in some of his slighter efforts.

—The declaration of the faculty of the Karlsruhe Polytechnic School in favor of the Gymnasia, as compared with the Ober-Realschulen, as preparatory schools for higher technical institutions, is truly surprising. In spite of many points of inferiority in our secondary schools, we have reason to congratulate ourselves on not being hampered in our development by quite such numerous and formidable historical legacies and prejudices—so arduous is the task which has been forced upon the Germans in adapting certain of their educational institutions to modern requirements. Prof. Schöttler of Brunswick shows (in No. 5 of the *Pädagogisches Archiv* for 1897) that the above decision was made mainly in view of the less advantageous position, social and official, of engineers, architects, etc., in comparison with those professions for which a gymnasial preparation is required. In fact, the Karlsruhe faculty admit that their deliberations might have resulted differently were the Government willing to accept the Realschule diploma also for the admission of candidates to other than technical branches, such at least as the higher administration of the finances, the positions of higher teachers of mathematics and the sciences, and the medical profession. It cannot be, and is not, claimed that these schools do not furnish the higher technical institutions with well-prepared students. On the contrary, it is found that the first year's lectures, adapted for graduates of the Gymnasia, are too elementary for those coming from the Realgymnasia and Ober-Realschulen. At the Technische Hochschule of Stuttgart the regular courses for the graduates of these three classes of schools, in the order named, are arranged for nine, eight, and seven semesters respectively, requiring two whole semesters more work of Gymnasium graduates than of those who have completed the course at the Realschule.

—The session of the Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres held on October 1 was of somewhat exceptional interest. M. Max Collignon presented to the Academy the photograph of a funerary group in limestone which is preserved in the Græco-Roman museum at Alexandria. The monument, the figures of which are larger than life, represents a veiled woman seated in an attitude of mourning near a young girl who is standing. It is a new example of the funerary statues, of which the so-called Penelope of the Vatican is a well-known specimen, which abounded in the fourth century in Greek cemeteries. This type of the draped woman is closely analogous to that of the figures of women which appear on Attic steles of the fourth century, and recalls in certain respects the style of the school of Skopas. The Alexandrian group, executed in Egypt by a Greek artist contemporary with the first Ptolemys, is an interesting document for the history of Græco-Egyptian sculpture. It shows how, at the beginning of the Alexandrian evolution, the influence of types that were strictly Greek still imposed itself on the art of Hellenized Egypt. M. Salomon Reinach followed M. Collignon with a paper entitled "Une Image de la Vesta Romaine," based upon a passage in the 'Fasti' of Ovid which has hitherto escaped notice. Ovid says that there existed at Alba statuettes of the goddess Vesta veiling her face with her two hands. This gesture, anterior to the influences of Hellenic art, was probably borrowed from the old wooden statue of Vesta which stood among the twelve Roman gods in the Forum. It occurs also in the hitherto unexplained altar of Mavilly in the Côte-d'Or. This altar, on which the twelve Roman gods figure, seems to reproduce the archaic images of the Forum. The singular gesture of the goddess who covers her eyes with

her hands, was not understood even by the ancients themselves. M. Reinach explains it by the special function of Vesta as goddess of the hearth: she is protecting her eyes from the smoke. There was a god of the hearth among the Latins called Cæculus, a name which the ancients explained by his half-closed eyes. The god shut his eyes, as the goddess covers hers, to keep the smoke out of them. M. Reinach added that up to now no image of the Roman Vesta has been found, and spoke strongly of the importance of the Mavilly altar, which presents to us this very ancient type for the first time.

—Maurice Courant, the eminent French scholar in Chinese and Korean, has recently completed his magnificent 'Bibliographie Coréenne' (Paris: Ernest Leroux), in three quarto volumes of about 500 pages each. It gives in Chinese, Japanese, Roman, and Korean letters the names of all the books known to have been published in the Land of Morning Calm, from early mediæval times until A. D. 1890, with description and analysis of the more important ones. Besides a luminous and very interesting introduction, there is a concluding chapter surveying the whole field. The occasional reproductions of old maps, tables, and diagrams are also very welcome to the student of Korean history. After a knowledge of this scholarly work of M. Courant, and familiarity with the history of book-making in the once hermit kingdom, it will be difficult to believe that printing with movable types is a purely European invention. Hundreds of years before the use of "living" type was known to Gutenberg or to Koster, the Koreans used it for printing their books, a good collection of which is now in the British Museum. M. Courant (who is interpreter to the French Legation in Tokyo) thus concludes his survey of the fruits of intellect in the peninsula:

"The perspicuity of the Korean mind appears in the fine printing of the books, in the perfection of the alphabet, the simplest which exists, in the conception of movable types, which it was the first to think of. Korea's part in the civilization of the far East has been considerable; if the situation had been analogous to that in Europe, Korean ideas and inventions would have stirred all the neighboring countries, but the barriers raised by pride were higher, and respect for the past imposed immobility. . . . Korea had no dealings with foreigners but to be pillaged and enslaved; she has lived within herself; her inventions have not gone beyond her frontiers."

—In a recent lecture, Dr. Carl Ranke, who two years ago joined Dr. Hans Meyer's expedition for the exploration of Central Brazil, spoke of having paid particular attention to the senses of the Indians, especially their sight. He noticed, as others before him had done, that an Indian can see many things that Europeans cannot; he can follow the course of a fish in turbulent waters and hit it with his arrow; he can spy an animal in a thicket that to our eyes seems impenetrable; he can see in the ground and the grass, and follow them, tracks of man and animals that to us are invisible, and so forth. The psychology of our fathers disposed of these phenomena bluntly by declaring off-hand that savages had sharper senses than we have. But Dr. Ranke examined the eyes of some of these Indians and found, to his surprise, that there was hardly any difference between their direct powers of sight and ours. What enables them to observe those phenomena which elude us is their superior practice and facility in accommodating the vision to different distances. Dr. Ranke holds that this focussing facility is of much greater importance than has heretofore been believed. Moreover, he thinks that what gives the Indians another practical advantage over us in the intercourse with nature is that they are not accustomed to look at a landscape as a whole, as we are, but give their undivided attention to a particular detail. Ranke also declares that the short-sightedness so prevalent in civilized countries is not a disease or a failing, but a salutary adaptation of the eyes to conditions of life that require constant work at close range.

BACON'S AMERICAN CHRISTIANITY.

A History of American Christianity. By Leonard Woolsey Bacon. New York: The Christian Literature Company. 1897.

Published in connection with a series of American Church Histories, Dr. Bacon's book is an attempt to sum up in a single volume the course of events which have been described in the preceding separate volumes, each treating of a particular church. It is a bright and entertaining summary of the general religious history of the United States and the outlying parts, written in a vigorous and slashing style, the homeliness of which, at times, is carried far, as where it is written of Whitefield that "Belcher, the royal governor, fairly slobbered over him, with tears, embraces, and kisses." We do not seem to find much in the book that could not have been gathered easily from the other volumes of the series, and, as compared with those, it is necessarily thin and vague to such an extent that those who have read the other volumes in order will wonder what reason this one has to exist. But in none of the other volumes has the writer been so much in evidence; and his tone, so confident and positive, is, if sometimes disagreeable, frequently amusing and always enlivening.

Considered as a whole, the temper of the book is catholic and irenical. There runs through it a sentiment of regret in view of the divisions of the evangelical churches and the waste of meeting-houses and ministers in the smaller towns and villages. There is more than the desire, there is the disposition, to treat the different churches fairly, both as regards their doctrines, their purposes, and their mutual affinities and oppositions. Nor is this fairness confined to the evangelical churches. Unitarians and Universalists may feel that scanty justice has been done their respective churches in so far as they are very summarily dismissed, but the confession is ample that the moral quality of either sect has falsified all the predictions of their first opponents. The writer quotes his father, Dr. Leonard Bacon, "one of the most strenuous of the early disputants" opposing liberal opinions, as saying of the Unitarians "that it seemed as if their exclusive contemplation of Jesus Christ in his human character as the example for our imitation had wrought in them an exceptional beauty and Christ-likeness of living." This was, however, ill-considered praise, seeing that the early Unitarian contemplation of Jesus Christ was not exclusively that of his human character. It has become so now. So venerable a joke as that about the difference between Unitarians and Universalists is not improved by the removal of its sting. The true reading is, that Universalists think God too good to damn them, while Unitarians think they are too good to be damned. Dr. Bacon has it, "that the Universalist holds that God is too good to damn a man; the Unitarian holds that men are too good to be damned"—which may be a truer statement than the other, but has not its humorous application.

Dr. Bacon is clearly of the opinion that much was lost to either party by the separation of the orthodox and liberal Congregationalists, questioning if the orthodox party "would have been worse off if Channing and his friends had continued to be recognized as the liberal wing of its clergy," and if the Unitarians "would not have been a great deal better off if they had remained in connection with a strong and conservative right wing, which might counterbalance the exorbitant leftward flights of their more impatient and erratic spirits." It is when he comes to these "impatient and erratic spirits" that the strain upon Dr. Bacon's catholicity is greater than he can bear. Thus we read of Emerson:

"Without any formal demission of the ministry he retired to his literary seclusion at Concord, from which he brought forth in books and lectures the oracular utterances which caught more and more the ear of a wide public, and in which, in casual-seeming parentheses and *obiter dicta*, Christianity and all practical religion were condemned by sly innuendo and half-respectful allusion, by which he might, 'without sneering, teach the rest to sneer.' "

This is the kind of thing which is best criticised by merely quoting it. Few will recognize in it the Emerson of their acquaintance, especially where the writer whose main haunt was "the supremacy of ethics," is denounced as an enemy of "practical religion." We also read of his "gay and Skimpolesque reply" to a criticism of his Divinity School address of 1838 as "an illustration of that flippancy with which he chose to toy in a literary way with momentous questions." The page devoted to Theodore Parker is, if possible, more awry in its perspective than that devoted to Emerson. We are told that "he liked 'to make people's flesh crawl,' " and that, "Even in his advocacy of social and public reforms, which was strenuous and sincere, he delighted so to urge his cause as to inflame prejudice and opposition against it." Here is a manifest contradiction in terms and an accusation singularly false, Parker having often kept himself in the background in furtherance of some public end. In the same connection we have a statement which is a tissue of mistakes and misrepresentations. It is as follows:

"The immediate reaction of the Unitarian clergy from the statements of his [Parker's] sermon, in 1841, on 'The Transient and Permanent in Christianity,' in which the supernatural was boldly discarded from his belief, was so general and so earnest as to give occasion to Channing's exclamation, 'Now we have a Unitarian orthodoxy!' "

Now, so far was Parker in that epoch-making sermon from boldly discarding the supernatural that Channing wrote regretting that he did not give some clear expression to his belief in the miracles, adding, "His silence under such circumstances makes me fear that he does not believe them." The fact is that he did believe them at that time as historical events, but as belonging to the "transient" part of Christianity, which got from them no "permanent" support. Channing's "Now we have a Unita-

rian orthodoxy" was no cry of satisfaction over the Unitarian uprising against Parker, but an expression of regret. Unitarianism, he said, "began as a protest against the rejection of reason—against mental slavery. It pledged itself to progress as its life and end; but it has gradually grown stationary, and now we have a Unitarian orthodoxy." He also wrote of Parker: "I trust the account of attempts to put him down is in the main a fiction. Let the full heart pour itself forth."

From the fact that Dr. Bacon passes directly from his account of Parker to some reflections on the relation of the church to slavery, it may be inferred that he was not unaware that Parker had a part to play in this, though mention of it he has none. There is no aspect of the history of American Christianity of which Dr. Bacon writes with so much feeling and passion as of its relation to slavery. He does not make of it a subject by itself, but returns to it from time to time at different stages of his narrative. The general thesis he maintains is, that the conduct of the churches in their concern with slavery was wonderfully fine and brave. There were, of course, individual exceptions, and the whole body of the Southern churches finally pronounced for slavery as a divine institution in the most decisive manner. But, even here, if the manes of the proslavery preachers of the South are not well satisfied with the tribute that is paid to them, they must be exorbitant in their demands. For example: "There seems no reason to doubt the entire sincerity with which the Southern church, in all its sects, had consecrated itself with religious devotion to the maintenance of that horrible and inhuman form of slavery which had drawn upon itself the condemnation of the civilized world." This devout persuasion of the Southern churches that their "peculiar mission" was to "conserve the institution of slavery," as declared by the Southern Presbyterians, is contrasted sharply, as well it may be, with the almost universal anti-slavery sentiment of the Southern churches before 1833, as seen from Dr. Bacon's mount of vision. In the eighteenth century a few instances are given of clerical opposition to slavery, and we are assured that "They are simply expressions of the universal judgment of those whose attention had been seriously fixed upon the subject." But it was in the decade following the adoption of the Missouri Compromise that the American church won its proudest laurels as an anti-slavery organization. "The persistent attempt to represent this period as one of prevailing apathy and inertia on the subject of slavery is a very flagrant falsification of history." Was it not the common practice to take the Fourth of July for an anti-slavery holiday in some New England towns, in Boston several of the churches uniting in a common service? Strangely enough, and yet not so strangely, all things considered, the American Colonization Society is barely mentioned among the anti-slavery forces of the time. This may be because Dr. Bacon, to vary a phrase of Eugénie de Guérin, has a pain in his father's side whenever reference is made to that misshapen darling of his father's heart. Indeed, there is a suggestion of paying off old scores in the whole treatment of the slavery question, and especially of those who showed the pretensions of the Colonizationists to be utterly fallacious and often insincere.

But, if we concede that the few scattered instances of anti-slavery preaching from 1820 to 1830 establish the prevalence of a widespread anti-slavery sentiment in the churches, it becomes all the harder to account for "the Southern apostasy" which Dr. Bacon dates from the year 1833. "Such was the swift progress of this innovation that in a few years, we might almost say months, it had become, not only prevalent, but violently and exclusively dominant in the church of the Southern States, with the partial exception of Kentucky and Tennessee." How to account for this sudden change is a problem to which Dr. Bacon applies himself with easy confidence. He is not of those who feel that "the furious vituperations of a small but very noisy faction of anti-slavery men" are sufficient of themselves to explain the moral revolution, though they were an important factor in the change. Panic terror, caused by the Nat Turner insurrection of 1831, was the most important. Such an explanation, if valid, would prove the utter unreality of the much vaunted anti-slavery sentiment of the preceding period. It takes no account, except a casual mention of the cotton-gin, of the causes which operated in the South to make slavery popular and divine. It does not make plain why "the strange and swiftly spreading moral epidemic" was not confined to the South. "A deep passion of honest patriotism" is set down as the main reason for this; then, too, there was "worthy solicitude lest the bonds of intercourse between the churches North and South should be ruptured."

"Withal, there was a spreading and deepening and most reasonable disgust at the reckless ranting of a little knot of anti-slavery men, having their headquarters at Boston, who, exulting in their irresponsibility, scattered loosely appeals to men's vindictive passions, and filled the unwilling air with clamors against church and ministry and Bible and law and government, denounced as 'pro-slavery' all who declined to accept their measures or their persons, and, arrogating to themselves exclusively the name of abolitionist, made that name, so long a title of honor, to be universally odious."

There is a foot-note to this railing accusation which assures us that the story of Mr. Garrison's life, "as told by his family and friends, is a monstrous falsification," and that "one of the best sources of authentic material for this chapter of history is 'James G. Birney and his Times.'" No mention, however, is made of the fact that, in the history of the anti-slavery conflict, no expression is more classical than Birney's denunciation of the American church as "the bulwark of slavery." The most unassailable position will probably be found somewhere between this extreme and that of Dr. Bacon's eloquent encomium.

It would be a pleasure to follow Dr. Bacon into other parts of the wide field over which he careers so joyously, his trumpet giving no uncertain sound, to whatever onset we are called. The majority of his conclusions would be found sensible and just, especially where principles are involved. Dealing with persons, he is more apt to swing violently to one side or the other, to praise or blame too much. There are points at which the fuller treatment of Walker's 'Congregational Christianity,' Allen's 'Jonathan Edwards,' and Tiffany's 'Episcopal Church' is essential to a good understanding of the course of events. In conclusion there is some discussion of the problem of Christian unity, not without reflections more or less caustic on the absurdities in which this problem has been involved. Dr. Bacon does not think that a quadrilateral of four tremendous sects would be an improvement on the 143 enumerated in the eleventh United States Census. It is a sign of the times deserving notice that any union of Christians not including the Roman Catholics is deprecated by this New England Congregationalist as an unworthy end; and it is another that the Chicago Parliament of Religions is hailed as preeminently a triumph of the most wholesome and beneficent forces working in the body of religion as the history of an eventful century draws onward to its close.

MR. LODGE'S ESSAYS.

Certain Accepted Heroes, and Other Essays in Literature and Politics. By Henry Cabot Lodge. Harper & Brothers. 1897.

This volume contains essays of two different sorts. If, in ignorance of their authorship, we were to confine our attention to those of a literary, critical, and historical character, we should be inclined to pronounce them the work of a clever but somewhat audacious beginner, determined at all hazards to attract the public attention. Published anonymously, they would have attracted notice and aroused some wonder as to their authorship, on account of a vein of boyish sophistry running through them, remarkable less often for its plausibility than its transparency. In his essay on "Certain Accepted Heroes," Mr. Lodge holds up to contempt the literary tradition which makes heroes of Achilles and other classical characters, whom he demonstrates to have been in reality bullies, blackguards, and cowards. In "The Last Plantagenet" his thesis is that Richard III. deserves our admiration as a statesman, and that "in the supreme moment" we sympathize with him and not with his critics and opponents, such as "the respectable Richmond." In "Shakespeare's Americanisms" the argument is pressed with such vigor that it results in seeming to prove that there is no such thing as correct usage in language. In "English Elections" Mr. Lodge maintains that less money is spent on elections here than in England. The reader will find, however, that the verified statistics given relate only to English elections, and that the author's proof is made by his own unsupported assertion that the expenditure in one country is "just about the amount" actually spent in the other. If the ideas and theories which have inspired these essays are not original, their method is very much so; the style is clear, and were they the ventures of an unknown tyro, many a puzzled reader would certainly exclaim, "Well, well! What next?"

But Mr. Lodge is no young and unknown man. He is one of the Massachusetts Senators, a man of mature age, and a successor of Webster and Choate. The volume contains other essays than those just mentioned, which set forth his views on graver matters connected with the commonweal. The book, therefore, must be taken on one side as a literary excursus by a public man of a rather old sort, and, for the remaining essays, as a statement by a Senator representing one of the most important communities in the Union of his opinions on some of the leading questions of the day,

especially higher education and foreign affairs. In these lies the real interest of the book. They are public declarations by a public man, designed to illuminate and throw into strong relief, not merely the author's view of certain public questions, but his estimate of his own career, position, and relation to them.

Mr. Lodge is a graduate of Harvard, yet in public life he is known as a beneficiary and defender of "machine" politics, as a protectionist, and as a Jingo. Though connected by birth, training, and social life with all the interests and ideas in the community he represents for which his University stands, his career is that of a strict party man, dependent for place on the continued favor of that *quasi* corporation one of the main functions of which is to stifle independence of thought and action, such as a university is designed to foster. In the world to which Mr. Lodge naturally belongs he has, through this circumstance, as he has advanced in power, become gradually less and less at home, until it is mainly by non-political means, such as literature or social life may afford, that he is able to maintain his connection with it. He is, at the same time, one of a small band who reconcile themselves to this situation by cultivating the conviction that only by this sacrifice can they benefit their fellow-men and country according to the designs of Providence. This conviction it is which enables them to claim whatever good they accomplish as their own; the evil that ensues they attribute to the necessity to their high aims of constant coöperation with baser natures. A liberally educated man in such a situation, turning essayist and publicist, would be likely to betray in some way a sensitiveness to the criticism which his attitude must naturally call forth, and such sensitiveness Mr. Lodge does show. Indeed, these essays may be described as a covert *apologia;* any one who desires to understand them must put himself, as far as possible, in the author's position, and bear in mind the powerful impulses to self-exculpation of some sort which alone can explain much of what he says.

The essay on "A Liberal Education" was originally an address, delivered before the Phi Beta Kappa Society at Harvard in 1894. It was reported at the time to have caused surprise among the members of that learned society—why, it is difficult to see, for it is exactly what might have been expected by them from the source from which it came. Though not so in form, it is in substance a defence by the author of himself in the guise of an attack on a body whom he describes as critics of America and American institutions. This is a well-known rhetorical device, and its value depends wholly on the skill with which it is used. Of this the reader will judge for himself. A good illustration of the way in which he employs this weapon is found in the statement that the "national self-assertion" of Jefferson Brick and Elijah Pogram was "infinitely better" than "the opposite spirit, which turns disdainfully even from the glories of nature because they are American and not foreign, and which looks scornfully at the Sierras because they are not the Alps." What he desires to do evidently is to divert the attention of the hearer from the charge brought against himself of being the spokesman of the ideas of Brick and Pogram, and to arouse indignation against the person making the charge, to whom he accordingly imputes a character and motives of the most odious kind. The whole essay is full of remarks about the superiority of Performance to Criticism, which would be rather mysterious without this key. He talks about the work of criticism as if he thought that the true object of a liberal education was to teach the young to do something or other without any critical inquiry into the nature of the means to be employed—a manifest impossibility; and his statement that it was not Criticism that won the battle of New Orleans, though true, does not throw much light on his drift. What he really means here is not that criticism in itself is bad (the whole essay being a criticism of the present management of Harvard and of his audience, that would be out of the question), but that it is bad when directed against himself. The moment that this is understood, the obscurer passages of the essay become perfectly clear. They should be compared with some of those in the essay on Richard III., through which the idea seems to run that if the author can show that the critics of the accepted villain of early English history were mistaken, his own are probably at fault. The chain of reasoning is: Richard III. was criticised as a villain; the facts now show that his critics were wrong, and that he was a statesman; I too have been criticised; this shows that my critics are wrong, and that I am a statesman.

Directly connected with Mr. Lodge's sensitiveness to criticism is another characteristic trait. He evidently in his own mind personifies his country as himself. This substitution of the Ego for the non-Ego throws an enormous amount of light on his method of reasoning in politics. When he wishes to investigate a question of public policy, he is obliged to examine it only so far as to enable him to detect what view of it suits him; the view in question is at once imputed to "America." Whenever he wishes to tell us what America thinks, he tells us what he thinks himself; the "true American" is really no other than the author. Conversely, to be anti- or un-American is to criticise the author. In the same way, of course, "the people" means Mr. Lodge; any one who wants to know their aims, hopes, fears, and desires can very easily ascertain them by ascertaining those set forth in this book. When he denounces as too "abundant" the current criticism of America, what he means is that his own critics are too abundant; when he warns the Phi Beta Kappa that the great danger of the time is that they will undervalue "their country," what he has in mind is the danger that they will undervalue him. This patriotic identification runs through the essay on what he calls "Our Foreign Policy." In it he advances the proposition, which no one is likely to dispute, that the United States has a distinct historical foreign policy. He then describes a Jingo foreign policy of his own, calls it "ours," and pronounces it to be the true American policy; the inference being that no true American is at liberty to criticise him for stating it.

The fact that public men, whether in Church or State, gradually come to identify themselves with what they represent, is well known, but we have never met with so remarkable an instance of it as in Mr. Lodge's book. Were his subordination to himself of the State more veiled, it would be rhetorically more effective, but it seems to spring from an uncontrollable tendency. The author has gone far beyond "L'État c'est moi," and identifies with himself not merely the United States, but a whole hemisphere. It is on the truth of this implied premise that his conclusions really depend. If he is right, the future of the western half of the world is bound up in his own, and it is natural enough that he should think his foreign policy more important than that of Washington, and should seize the opportunity afforded by the invitation of his University to lecture it on its hostility to and ignorance of the true American view of the higher education. In the end we see very plainly how Mr. Lodge's critical is connected with his political position. A statesman's power must rest on the support of those who think him a patriot, and not on the favor of those to whom what he calls a patriot is nothing more than a bully or an egotist.

LAND POWER AND SEA POWER.

The Effect of Maritime Command on Land Campaigns since Waterloo. By Major C. E. Callwell, R.A. With Maps and Plans. Charles Scribner's Sons. Pp. 380.

Major Callwell's book is in the nature of a supplement to Captain Mahan's brilliant work on the influence of the Sea Power. Taking up events where Mahan dropped them, at the fall of Napoleon, an outline is given of the wars waged since that time in which naval power played a part.

It is not strange that military men should feel the impulse to continue the story, though the effect of doing so may not turn out to be quite what is intended. It may be questioned whether Captain Mahan was not as wise in choosing the limit of his work as he was able in its presentation. He covered the period of the great naval wars when sailing ships were at the height of their glory and romance, when the old seamanship fascinated the imagination, and when great fleets rivalled land armies in the hosts of combatants engaged. Left where Mahan left it, the effect was a most stirring one, and the reader was persuasively induced to leap to the conclusion that great peoples should rival each other in building great navies as sedulously as they have run the race of turning ordinary standing armies into armed nations. When, however, the argument is applied to a long list of great and petty conflicts of modern times, the intellectual process results in a certain amount of disillusion. We find ourselves returning to the older opinion that, for nearly all the nations of the world, a navy is only ancillary to the army, with a partial and exceptional rôle to play; that Continental Powers have not been unwise in avoiding the enormous burdens which the building of great fleets would add to their budgets; and that it is doubtful if any nation can be at once a great land and sea power. There is a limit to the expenditure for military purposes which even the richest nation can make. There is also a limit to the extent to which it can saddle the cost of its present armaments and wars upon posterity. More than one European Power is perilously near the brink of insolvency, and the gravest question which living statesmen have to meet is this of the extent to which public debts can be increased if the necessity shall arise to meet the cost of a great war. Everybody knows that this consideration is

perhaps the most potent in preserving the general peace, even at the cost of many a sacrifice of national pride and interest.

Before yielding to the impulse to try to rival Great Britain upon the ocean, statesmen of other countries will carefully analyze the asserted influence of dominant sea power on land operations. Major Callwell's book, by the very extent of its claims, tends, as we have said, to weaken the effect of the more plausible general argument which Captain Mahan had so well put. He claims for naval armaments the credit of success when their work has been the convoy of provisions as much as if they had won a battle between fleets. An improvised flotilla on a river or a gathering of private armed vessels in the Ægean Sea helps the theory as well as the formal array of ironclads. It is hard to say why the laying of a common pontoon bridge or using a flatboat ferry may not be called a naval operation and be cited also to show the influence of sea power upon land operations. There is a certain degree of truth in all this, but the truth is not found in the implied conclusion that great navies are a necessity to modern nations. We are led to discriminate, and to separate the operations of war which call for fleets from those in which some inferior or temporary use of water transportation may be useful. The uses of these last are interesting, but it is not worth while to claim that they show the advantage a great nation has in being dominant in sea power.

To "rule the waves" properly means to be superior in organized squadrons of ships-of-war, as Great Britain now for some generations has been. What would be the consequence of France, Germany, or Russia trying to excel her in this respect? If done at all, it must be thoroughly done. Half measures are worse than none. If the naval supremacy is to be taken from England, her rival must be prepared to beat her in number of ships and in their fighting efficiency at all times and places. Napoleon, by combining the fleets of France and Spain, succeeded in sending to sea more ships and guns than England could give Nelson, but Trafalgar proved that this was not enough. The fact is, it is doubtful if any of the great Continental peoples of Europe takes kindly to the sea.

Then England herself is the best proof that even the richest nation cannot stand the strain of trying to lead in armaments both by land and sea. It was only the other day that the *Spectator* said that England frankly disclaims the wish or the ability to land on a foreign shore an army large enough to be seriously formidable to a powerful neighbor. Her naval power is in chief measure a defensive power. The old name of "wooden walls" truly showed that it grew out of her insular position originally, and has progressed by the action and reaction of her colonial policy. Because she was strong on the ocean, she successfully planted colonies when others failed; and because she nourished many and distant colonies, her fleets were increased and made stronger and stronger. So long as wars are waged, dominance in ships will be a necessity of British policy, and whoever would rival her in it must calculate upon going beyond not only all she has hitherto done, but all that her wealth would make possible in a further struggle for leadership. She now acts on the policy of being able to put in commission a heavier naval armament than any two of her possible rivals could do. She thus provides for any probable combination against her, for it would be a very strange conjuncture of European affairs in which she could not find one ally out of three great Powers.

This condition of things is fortunately one that tends powerfully to preserve the peace of the world. The dominance of the seas is not an end in itself, but a means to an end. The great peaceful mercantile commerce of the world, and leadership in it, are of capital importance to the richest commercial nation of the Old World. She could greatly annoy any opponent, but a conquest such as France inflicted upon Prussia at Jena, or Germany upon France at Sedan, is wholly beyond her power. She knows this so well that it never enters into her plans. It was the combination of all Europe against Napoleon's unbridled ambition that made a Waterloo possible, and there is little danger of the rise of such another conqueror.

But it is not only true that a great naval power cannot afford to be also the organizer of vast land armies: there is a limit soon reached in the possibilities of transporting armies to distant shores. Even when England and France united in the invasion of the Crimea, the army that fought at the Alma bore no proportion to the military strength of Russia. Russia's fatal weakness was that she had aspired to be a naval power, and had just fleet enough at Sebastopol to commit her to fighting the duel out at that remote outpost. Had she been without it, and tolled on her adversaries into the steppes of southern Russia, a very different story of that war might have been written. It was the point of honor to protect her few ships and dock-yards in the Black Sea that proved her ruin. A great naval power may land a comparatively small army almost where it will, but when the small army advances into the interior, it meets a large one and retreats to the cover of its ships or is captured. The boot is then on the other foot, and the theme of an entertaining book would be the importance of land power to the ultimate success of naval incursions.

History, then, seems fairly to teach the comfortable doctrine that it is not given to a colonizing nation to be at once a great sea and land power, and that this natural determination of the direction of its energies tends to preserve the peace of the world by making commerce its supreme material interest, as well as by making it unable to rival a Continental power in the concentrated weight of military strength upon the land. Under these circumstances, in spite of the most taking of Jingo essays, practical statesmen in Continental nations will conclude that they find no call to exhaust their exchequer in chase of the will-o'-the-wisp called Dominance of the Sea Power.

In his general outline of recent military history Major Callwell is clear and interesting, with one exception, which will go far with American readers to discredit the whole work. The sketch of our civil war is written from the standpoint of the prejudice and very imperfect knowledge of 1866, and must be regarded as a burlesque in its characterization of men and of events. A serious writer owes it to himself to keep more abreast with the progress of investigation and discussion.

Bertrand du Guesclin: His Life and Times. By Enoch Vine Stoddard, A.M., M.D. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1897.

It is an observation of Henri Martin that when the Middle Ages were regarded as all alike, Bertrand du Guesclin was erected into a type of the chivalrous knight. The truth is, on the contrary, that his influence tended to destroy the French chivalry of his day, and to substitute for the hero of the tournament the professional captain of Renaissance times. His manners from childhood resembled those of, let us say, Bayard little more than the manners of Father Damien (depicted by Stevenson in his open letter to the Rev. C. M. Hyde) resembled those of the conventional "plaster saint." He disconcerted his parents by extraordinary roughness of demeanor and peasant tendencies. Among the great men of France, he was second only to Mirabeau in plainness of feature. He was not a native of the Île de France. He had an apparently falling cause to support. With such long odds against him, the degree of his force, determination, and bravery can be measured only by a detailed examination of what he accomplished for himself and his country. He did more than win the Constable's sword, in spite of court opposition, and wield it with distinction under circumstances which would have taxed the address of Turenne. He was one of the chief agencies in the achievement of French nationality; and ever since the process of consolidation has been understood, his countrymen have assigned him a place next and close to Joan of Arc among the worthies of the Hundred Years' War.

Dr. Stoddard's sketch of Du Guesclin's career is, with the exception of a short chapter on social conditions in the fourteenth century, occupied with its hero's own undertakings, to the exclusion of political issues in their wider sense. Its avowed aim is to disentangle the Constable from "the influences of an inadequate estimate of the actual social and political conditions of his time, and from the false conceptions of character which naturally arise from the distance in time between the living present and remote past, as well as from the distortion produced by the roseate mists of a romantic atmosphere which envelop it." For our own part, we should be disposed to leave aside this somewhat indistinct definition of purpose to say that Dr. Stoddard has prepared for popular use a narrative that combines sufficiency of biographical information with a full measure of biographical sympathy. The writer seems to us to belong to a class which we only wish were larger—the class of men who, without being trained historians, are moved by the events of distant centuries to undertake some special study in them. The interests of history suffer when historical reading is held to be the property of a close corporation. The amateur may fall into an occasional slip which in the professional writer would be heinous, without incurring quite the same censure. One is only gratified that his tastes lie in the right direction. We state our impression that Dr. Stoddard is a volunteer historian, because, without habitual inaccuracy, he once in a while errs in a fashion that marks him off from students who have served an apprenticeship. For instance, on the last page of the preface he styles Cuvelhier, one of his chief authorities, a Troubadour, and then more correctly, in the first line of chapter i., a Trouvère. But a determining proof of inexperi-

ence is the following account of the Jacquerie:

"The occurrence at this time of what is known as the 'Insurrection of the Jacquerie' introduced a startling element into affairs. This was an uprising aimed against the nobility, and was led by one Jacques Bonhomme (James Goodman). This insurrection was mainly participated in by the lowest and most ignorant orders of society. The ravages committed were not confined to any class, but were equally violent and destructive among all conditions of society. Like all movements of a similar character by an ignorant populace, the effort was a failure, and those concerned in it were dispersed by the organized effort of the intelligent classes. Its end was hastened by its excesses, which united the better elements of society in suppressing it."

In a critical age this identification of the proverbial Jacques Bonhomme ("Jacques Bonhomme a bon dos, il souffre tout") with an individual leader, illustrates the process by which folklore is begotten and extended. In comparison with this mistake, Dr. Stoddard's failure to dilate satisfactorily on the peasant revolt is less glaring. Among other marks of the novice in setting forth French history, we may mention an arbitrary use of accents, or, rather, their omission from many vowels with which they belong if French forms are not to be frankly discarded.

The modern biographer has only to present facts in dealing with Du Guesclin. He has few judgments to revise. One seldom encounters a case where the opinion of contemporaries has endured till now without greater modification. As with Joan of Arc, the sources are full and the literature excellent. Dr. Stoddard has fortified himself by careful reference to the chief authorities. and if we have treated some features of his work rather slightingly, we can commend its main outlines with heartiness. Probably the most important consideration which he urges is that Du Guesclin was far from being a mere leader of *coups de main*, and a champion against such knights as Sir Thomas Canterbury and Sir William Brambourg. He was a strategist superior in tactical skill to the best of the English, even superior to the veteran Sir John Chandos. "Common sense, not aphorisms drawn from the tournament, guided his campaigns. He would fight if necessary, but was just as ready to reach his goal by craft as by hard blows." Yet how terrible he was in person, the vogue of his proud battle-cry shows. "Notre Dame, Guesclin" almost drove "St. Denis" out of the field.

In specifying what seem to us Dr. Stoddard's best chapters, we should give praise to his account of the reverses which Du Guesclin suffered, especially Auray and Navarrete. In both cases where conspicuous failure fell to his lot, his judgment had been overruled, and the large ransoms immediately raised to redeem him prove how indispensable he had made himself to his employers, whether French or Spanish. The fourteenth century comes in for more copious abuse than any other mediæval period, and is usually made to suffer by comparison with the age immediately preceding it. So regularly is it decried that one is tempted to plead a little in its behalf. Its love of splendor and luxury did more for the revival of literature and the arts than any amount of scholastic philosophy had been able to effect; it suffered untold misery from pestilence; it revealed marked democratic sentiments; and, finally, it furnished a small quota of notable men. Among these Du Guesclin looms up well, and the three hundred pages which Dr. Stoddard devotes to him are none too prolix.

Studies in Psychical Research. By Frank Podmore, M.A. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1897. 8vo, pp. 458.

This pleasant volume may be recommended to those who desire to inform themselves concerning the progress of psychical research since the publication of 'Phantasms of the Living.' It must be acknowledged that in the meantime the reasons for believing in something which may vaguely be called telepathy have been considerably strengthened. This has, in part, been due to the influence of facts already in print before that publication, but which had not yet been sufficiently digested even by those who knew them best. Among the corroborations the first to be mentioned is the enlarged census of hallucinations. It is true that this did not strictly conform in its scheme to the logical requisita—so much so as to bring its authors in some quarters under suspicion of dreading to meet the facts face to face; and, in consequence of its defects, the new census leads to no decisive conclusion. Yet it was certainly an improvement upon the first one, and did contribute something to the evidence for telepathy. But that which has strengthened the case much more has been the multitude of experiments, mostly unreported, which have been undertaken of late years. Almost everybody, roughly speaking, who has been interested in the subject, has made such experiments for himself. These experiments, too, have often been conducted with a measure of good sense, not in mechanical routine (which is as unfavorable to any other mental phenomena than those of fatigue as can be), but with some appreciation of the style in which telepathy, granting it to be a real action, appears as a matter of fact to operate. The results of the best of these experiments have usually afforded what appear to be indications, though extremely slight ones, of some tendency to something like telepathy. Now it was precisely such very slight phenomena, occurring with a certain frequency, that were wanting a dozen years ago to bridge the chasm between the ordinary course of nature and the apparently supernatural. In the third place, the decade has not been altogether barren of striking phenomena suggesting telepathy, which, though less probative than the more ordinary results just mentioned, yet, as being open to experimental tests, are infinitely more so than all the ghost stories that ever were told. The striking phenomena can amount to nothing until they are welded into continuity with ordinary experience. Finally, the very simple mechanical philosophy which was in high vogue still a dozen years since, though it had already been weakened by physical investigations, has now suffered serious dilapidations. It is now doubtful whether the conservation of energy can be regarded as the original and ultimately fundamental law that lies hidden beneath the corner-stone of the universe. The hypothesis which it behooves science provisionally to adopt is not in every case the most probable theory.

One source of pleasure in reading Mr. Podmore's present book is that, from beginning to end, there is scarcely a decided flaw in his inductive reasoning. He judges of a conclusion, not by his inclination to think one way or the other, nor by any rule of thumb, but by the necessities of the case. The general plan of the book is to proceed from beliefs which the author refutes or only partially accepts, first to those which seem to him undeniable, and finally to those which try his faith. The first chapter sketches the history of the movement in psychical research. The second, upon "Spiritualism as a Popular Movement," shows the extravagant hardihood of the credulity of the spiritualists of the last generation. The next chapter criticises the experiments of Thury and Gasparin, of Dr. Hare, of Lord Lindsay, of Crookes, of Stainton Moses, and of Zöllner. The next chapter shows how the more severe investigations of the Society for Psychical Research refuted apparent phenomena of like description, sometimes identical. Chapter v. explodes Poltergeists. Chapter vi. shows how the Society exposed Madame Blavatsky's fraud. It concludes with these words:

"Of the later history of the Theosophical movement, and of the revelations made by Mr. Edward Garrett in 'Isis Very Much Unveiled,' it is not necessary to speak here. And it would be rash to prophesy even now—notwithstanding all the damning evidence of fraud, notwithstanding the loss of the unique personality of the foundress—that the movement is near dissolution. To most men who have given themselves over to a false belief, there comes a time when the ears are deaf and the eyes are closed and the heart is hardened, so that they will not believe even the testimony of the false prophet against himself. For are there not, as we have seen, black magicians and other powers of darkness who may transform themselves into the likeness of angels of light? With such men and against such a contention, argument is no longer even possible. *Discipiantur.*"

With chapter vii. the constructive part of the book begins. Experimental Thought Transference is rightly taken up first, since it must form the logical basis of the whole doctrine of telepathy. The results of the experiments are very slender, and any one series is quite inconclusive. The circumstance that two minds of the same level living constantly together will, under given circumstances, be apt to notice nearly the same sequence of ideas, is left out of account. But then, on the other hand, were such phenomena more than just discernible in the long run, they would stand in flat contradiction to the ordinary course of experience. Their slightness is thus negative evidence of the veraciousness of the effects.

Telepathic hallucinations are next taken up. What the judicious reader will think of this chapter will naturally and logically depend upon the impression made upon him by the direct experiments. If these, upon the whole, can be considered as establishing telepathy as a real phenomenon, however slight it may ordinarily be, this conviction will be drawn upon to explain the highly intensified phenomena narrated in this chapter. In regard to hallucinations, it is to be remembered that while most men never have them at all, many others have so lively a visualizing power that they may be said to live amidst hallucinations all their lives. Others, such as many painters and chess-players, have ordinarily no hallucinations about ordinary things, yet habitually behold as real the imaginary objects concerning which their brains are chiefly exercised. It is probably mostly among men of this intermediate class that visions of dear friends occur at times when their hearts are excited, whether through ordinary or telepa-

thic channels. Ghosts are next considered, and strong reasons are shown for believing them to be merely hallucinations. Haunted houses is the next topic. Nothing is said about the great number of houses which are inhabited or frequented by tramps and squatters. In the first case mentioned in this chapter, a Miss Laurence was going up stairs:

"When she reached the second-floor landing, she saw a cotton skirt, of a lilac shade and indefinite pattern, disappearing round the bend of the stairs leading to the top floor. Supposing it to be the housemaid, she called to her; and the housemaid appeared from a door close to her on the second floor. The only other servant was the cook, who was down stairs. Miss Laurence told the housemaid of her experience, and the housemaid replied, 'Oh, that's nothing, miss; I often see a skirt go round that corner.' "

Now is it natural the housemaid should think that "nothing," unless she knew it was a natural appearance? It was a house in Hyde Park Place; and intruders into city houses generally pass from one to another by the roofs. It often happens.

The author next considers Premonitions and Previsions. Here we meet with a number of stories marked by all the general characters of those relating to telepathic hallucinations. But the difference is, that these are not backed up, as those were, by experiments. Nobody has experimented upon premonitions and previsions, simply because the ordinary course of life has too thoroughly prejudiced everybody against any such thing. Yet it is hard to say how prophecy runs more counter to experience than does telepathy. It is, however, interesting to see that Mr. Podmore draws back before prevision, and wishes to consider this class of events as chance coincidences.

The next chapter, upon Secondary Consciousness, which has no obvious connection with psychical research, seems to be inserted merely as an introduction to the final chapter, which relates to Impersonation, Obsession, and Clairvoyance. It is the clairvoyance which particularly belongs to the questions here considered. As these phenomena, real or fraudulent, stand at present, they are too isolated to be brought under the dominion of science until further research shall discover other phenomena bridging the gap.

Sweet Revenge: A Romance of the Civil War. By F. A. Mitchel. Harpers.

Hell fer Sartain. By John Fox, jr. Harpers.

From the Land of the Snow Pearls: Tales from Puget Sound. By Ella Higginson. Macmillan Co.

Perennial as the pension list, the war romance appeals not less directly to the forbearance of the public. But the purest patriotism must find it difficult to justify the increase, at this late day, of both these burdensome results of our civil conflict. In its construction the war romance follows simple and unvarying lines. The hero, whose hurts are healed by the maiden of fiercest Southern sympathies, reveals his connection with the Northern army and his undying passion for herself. She flouts and insults him. The two armies manœuvre in the background. There is much mutual saving of life on the part of the lovers, and the curtain falls on a union of problematic happiness. 'Sweet Revenge' departs in no important particular from the accepted traditions, but some uniqueness may be allowed to its scenes of guerilla warfare, which are of a diverting improbability. The author's military titles afford, together with his book, satisfactory proof that with him the sword was mightier than the pen.

The well-sung Southern mountaineer has found in Mr. John Fox his latest and not least competent chronicler. Under a title of rather unjustifiable luridness, Mr. Fox presents ten sketches of life in that Cumberland Gap which he knows so well. Slight in form, they afford no opportunity for the display of constructive skill, but in accurate reproduction of dialect and custom, in swift and successful characterization, they leave little to be desired. "Courtin' on Cutshin" is "courting as she is wrought" along many a creek and in many a cove of the Southern Appalachians. The mountain white has already undergone apotheosis and vilification in turn; that he is a man who can see a joke, who can even originate one, has been left for Mr. Fox to bring out. Other resources than those of dialect are shown in the effective English of "The Purple Rhododendron." The theme is a pretty one, and the flower may serve Virginia lovers as a test of devotion; but any one who has seen its acres of bloom mantling the shoulders of Roan or Craggy in North Carolina, will be inclined to doubt its entire fitness for the rôle of American edelweiss.

The Puget-Sounders are unmistakably people of like passions with ourselves; their remoteness is merely geographical. Nothing is more clearly revealed in Miss Higginson's book than their affinity with New Englanders—Miss Wilkins's New Englanders. Theirs is surely the land whither have strayed the wandering sons and derelict lovers of Miss Wilkins's widows and maids. The New England fibre has somewhat coarsened, the dialect roughened, as indicated on Miss Higginson's page; but the Christmas cranberry-sauce still casts its heart-softening radiance over family reunions in the valley of the Willamette. The people of the West have recently shown symptoms of a revolt against their dialect writers. The uncouth representations of their speech—the "choos," "yuhs," and "hunh uhs," which affront the eye more than the ear, they have suffered in silence. But Nebraska has risen up to protest against Octave Thanet's imputation that "Ma" is the ordinary filial utterance within her borders. "Ma" is, however, a pleasing and decorous form of address compared with that in vogue with the Puget-Sounders. Can a people poetic enough to speak of their mountains as Snow Pearls profane the parental relation by the hideous monosyllable "Maw"? The question is not one with which a stranger may safely intermeddle. Miss Higginson evidently shares George Moore's recently expressed conviction that "the sadness of life is the joy of art." Most of her stories wail themselves out in minor cadences—the deserted maiden, the jilted lover, the ingrate child. Something too much of this, one is tempted to cry out in the presence of these numerous and familiar sorrows. It is no slight proof of the author's skill that she has been able to invest with so much interest her rather trite motives.

The Brontës: Fact and Fiction. By Angus M. Mackay, B.A. London: Serviss & Paton; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1897. xii, 187.

This important addition to Brontë literature derives its value, not from fresh information conveyed as to the Brontë family, but from its able exposition of fiction claiming to be truth, and from the light it throws upon the life and writings of the author of 'Jane Eyre.' It consists of two essays. The second, the longer—"A Crop of Brontë Myths"—is an expansion of one which had already appeared in the *Westminster Review.* It deals with Dr. William Wright's book. Few that read it will not agree "that the facts set forth . . . will carry complete conviction with them, and that those who possess 'The Brontës in Ireland' will henceforth merely treasure it for what it is—one of the curiosities of nineteenth-century literature." The general acclaim with which this book by Dr. Wright was received, and the several editions through which it has passed, must now be held as a warning to critics and the public to let no name, no apparent honesty of purpose, or protestations of care in the collection of materials by an author, dull vigilance in the comparison and testing of statements and dates and nice weighing of likelihoods and possibilities.

If the second essay is destructive, the first—"Fresh Light on Brontë Biography," a charmingly candid and intelligent piece of writing—is essentially constructive. It deals with what Mr. Mackay entitles "Charlotte Brontë's Secret"—a secret which the appearance of Mr. Shorter's book, written with the sanction and assistance of Mr. Nichol, renders it desirable to explain. Mr. Shorter's views regarding inferences to be drawn from passages in Charlotte's life are well summed up by Mr. Mackay as: "The story is not true; but if it were true, it would be discreditable." Mr. Mackay has gone far to establish his thesis that "The story is probably true, but if true is not discreditable"; and, with him, while feeling for and understanding Charlotte Brontë the more, we love and esteem her none the less.

"Charlotte Brontë's writings have proved a palimpsest, and scholars have from time to time hinted of the older sentences they could discern beneath the present characters. More recently there have been signs that hints are to be replaced by innuendoes, and I have therefore endeavored to restore the whole of the old text as far as it is still decipherable. It turns out to be a tragedy which for human interest equals anything in the novels, and which cannot but render those who peruse it wiser and stronger. Its central figure is Charlotte herself, as noble and brave a heroine as any which her imagination created. We see an acute sensitiveness which attracts our pity, wedded to a dauntless fortitude which compels our admiration. We see her sore wounded in her affections, but unconquerable in her will. The discovery of the secret of her life does not degrade the noble figure we know so well; it adds to it a pathetic significance."

This is as thoughtful an essay as has come into our hands for some time. We light upon sentences such as the following: "It is needful to remember that persons of strong intellect are apt to vindicate their right to freedom of thought by adopting some other opinions than those offered by their environment." "He taught her the sweet and tranquil pleasures of an affection which is almost more precious than love." "The flame, it would seem, had already passed on her, and left behind nothing that was inflammable." Respecting Anne Brontë's genius we read: "Upon those bright twin stars [Char-

lotte and Emily] many telescopes are turned, and then there swims into the beholder's view this third, mild shining star of the tenth magnitude, which otherwise would have remained invisible." While in no degree concerned to defend the character of Bramwell Brontë, we cannot take Mr. Mackay's view that his letter to Hartley Coleridge, which appears on page 120 of Mr. Shorter's book, exhibits him as "capable of the worst which has been imputed to him."

We unhesitatingly recommend this little book.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adam, James. The Republic of Plato. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Adams, W. I. L. Sunlight and Shadow: For Photographers. Baker & Taylor Co. $2.50.
Adcock, A. St. J. East End Idylls. London: James Bowden; New York: M. F. Mansfield. $1.25.
Aldrich, T. B. Prose and Poetical Works. 8 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $12.
Alger, A. M. A Treatise on the Law in Relation to Promoters and the Promotion of Corporations. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Allen, Prof. A. V. G. Christian Institutions. Scribners. $2.50.
Among the Dunes. F. T. Neely. 50c.
Andrews, Mrs. Gwendolen F. The Living Substance as Such, and as Organism. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Asbjörnsen, P. C. Fairy Tales from the Far North. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $2.
Austin, O. P. Uncle Sam's Secrets: A Story of National Affairs for the Youth of the Nation. Appletons. 75c.
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Baker, Rev. C. R. Prayers for the Christian Year. Whittaker. $1.
Barlow, Jane. Irish Idylls. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.
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Björnson, B. Captain Mansara, and Mother's Hands. Macmillan. $1.25.
Burdick, Prof. F. M. The Law of Sales of Personal Property. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
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Child, F. S. A Colonial Witch. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.25.
Clover, S. T. Paul Travers's Adventures. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.25.
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Connery, T. B. That Noble Mexican. F. T. Neely. 25c.
Conway, Prof. R. S. The Italic Dialects. 2 vols. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $7.50.
Coz, Mme. V. le. Sans Mari. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Cromarty, Deas. When Hearts Are Young. London: James Bowden; New York: M. F. Mansfield. $1.
Dakin, Dr. W. R. A Handbook of Midwifery. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.50.
Dawson, A. J. God's Foundling. Appletons. $1.
Dilworth, J. A. B. Free Banking a Natural Right. Continental Publishing Co. $1.
Dole, Rev. C. F. The Coming People. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Douglas, Amanda M. The Children at Sherburne House. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Drake, S. A. On Plymouth Rock. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 60c.
Estébanez, Joaquin. Un Drama Nuevo. W. R. Jenkins. 35c.
Eve, G. W. Decorative Heraldry. London: Bell; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Fisher, Prof. Irving. A Brief Introduction to the Infinitesimal Calculus. Macmillan. 75c.
Fletcher, Horace. Happiness as Found in Forethought minus Fearthought. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Ford, Mary. History of Rome. Whittaker. 75c.
Foss, S. W. Dreams in Homespun. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Fouqué, F. de la M. Undine. Macmillan. $2.
Fuchs, Julius. Kritik der Tonwerke. Leipzig: Friedrich Hofmeister.
Gates, Prof. L. E. Selections from the Prose Writings of Matthew Arnold. Henry Holt & Co. 90c.
Gordon, Julien. Eat Not Thy Heart. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Crow, Prof. C. L. Maldon and Brunnanburh: Two Old English Songs of Battle. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Hardy, Mrs. A. S. The Hall of Shells. Appletons. 60c.
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Hill, C. T. Fighting a Fire. Century Co. $1.50.
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Holbrook, Dr. M. L. Stirpiculture. New York: M. L. Holbrook & Co.
Irving, Washington. Astoria. [Tacoma Edition.] 2 vols. Putnams. $6.
James, Henry. What Maisie Knew. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
James, Rev. Fleming. The Message and the Messengers. Whittaker. $1.25.
Jokai, Maurus. Peter the Priest. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.
Lanciani, Prof. Rodolfo. The Ruins and Excavations of Ancient Rome. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.
Lang, Andrew. The Pink Fairy Book. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Le Gallienne, Richard. If I Were God. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 50c.
Madden, D. H. The Diary of Master William Silence: A Study of Shakspere and of Elizabethan Sport. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.
Magee, L. J. Songs after Work. A. D. F. Randolph & Co.
Manacéine, Marie de. Sleep: its Physiology, Pathology, Hygiene, and Psychology. London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Nall, W. G. Elementary Latin-English Dictionary. Macmillan. $1.
Nicholson, William. An Alphabet. R. H. Russell. $1.50.
Oliphant, Mrs. William Blackwood and His Sons: Their Magazine and Friends. 2 vols. Scribners. $10.50.
Optic, Oliver. Pacific Shores. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Palmer, Prof. G. H. Self-Cultivation in English. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 35c.
Pelletreau, W. S. Early Long Island Wills of Suffolk Co., 1691-1703. Francis P. Harper.
Penniman, Prof. J. H. The War of the Theatres. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.
Perry, R. R. Common-Law Pleading: Its History and Principles. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Peters, Rev. M. C. The Great Hereafter. New York: J. A. Wilmore & Co.
Reflections of a Bachelor. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co. 50c.
Reyner, E. Free to Serve: A Tale of Colonial New York. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.50.
Ross, Clinton. Chalmette. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Ryan, C. S. Under the Red Crescent: Adventures of an English Surgeon at Plevna and Ezeroum. 1877-78. Scribners. $3.
Sabatier, Auguste. Outlines of a Philosophy of Religion based on Psychology and History. James Pott & Co. $2.
Schmid, D. William Congreve: Sein Leben und seine Lustspiele. Leipzig: W. Braumüller.
Shakespeare (William). From the British Museum Catalogue of Printed Books. London: William Clowes & Sons.
Sherman, F. D. Little-Folk Lyrics. Illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Sidney, Margaret. Phronsie Pepper. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.50.
Smith, G. G. The "Spectator." No. 1 to No. 80. Vol. I. Scribners. $1.50.
Steel, Flora A. In the Permanent Way. Macmillan. $1.50.
Stories from the Arabian Nights. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 40c.
Sullivan, J. F. The Flame-Flower, and Other Stories. London: Dent; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Swett, Sophie. Tom Pickering of 'Scutney. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.25.
Tchertkoff, Vladimir. Christian Martyrdom in Russia. London: Brotherhood Publishing Co. 25c.
The Ian Maclaren Calendar. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
The Ian Maclaren Year-Book. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
The Love Affairs of Some Famous Men. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
The Maiden and Married Life of Mary Powell (Afterwards Mistress Milton), and the Sequel Thereto, Deborah's Diary. London: Nimmo; New York: Scribners. $2.25.
The New Era Union. Denver: Chas. W. Caryl.
The Roger Williams Calendar. Providence: John Osborne Austin. $5.
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The Story of an Irish Sept. London: J. M. Dent & Co. $4.
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Thompson, Prof. S. P. Light, Visible and Invisible. Macmillan. $1.50.
Van Dyke, Henry. The Poetry of Tennyson. [Cameo Edition.] Scribners. $1.25.
Vernois, Gen. J. von Verdy du. With the Royal Headquarters in 1870-71. Vol I. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Scribners. $3.
Ward, James. Historic Ornament: Treatise on Decorative Art and Architectural Ornament. Scribners. $3.
Waring, Col. G. E. Whip and Spur. Doubleday & McClure Co. $1.
Warner, C. D. Being a Boy. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Warner, Rev. B. E. The Facts and the Faith. Whittaker. $1.25.
Waterloo, Stanley. The Story of Ab. A Tale of the Time of the Cave Men. Chicago: Way & Williams.
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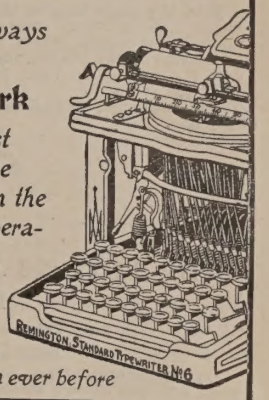

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 11, 1897.

The Week.

Spain is naturally incensed at the articles, interviews, and letters of ex-Minister Taylor, but no international appeal lies to the sense of propriety of a private citizen. If Mr. Taylor thinks it fitting to go on speaking of what came to his knowledge through his official position, no power on earth can stop him as long as the newspapers are agape for his views. All that Mr. McKinley needs to say to Spain is that this is a free country, and that he has no more control over Mr. Hannis Taylor, now that this gentleman is out of office, than he has over the Ohio election. He might add, however, an appeal to the forbearance of Spain on the ground that she knows how it is herself. She has the spoils system in as great perfection as we have it. With a change in the Spanish Administration, the public service has to undergo upheaval just as with us. There is no permanent diplomatic service in Spain any more than in the United States. The new cabinet has to give up all its time, there as here, to office-seekers. The boss system, as Mr. Lowell found out, is as flourishing in Spain as in our own proud republic. Even Gen. Weyler's recall, over which so much fuss has been made, seems to have been more the seizure of good places for original Sagasta men than anything else. In fact, Mr. McKinley might make out a powerful argument that the two countries ought to be good friends, as both have, under different forms, the same idea of destroying continuity in the public service, and of gracefully stretching out their necks for the bosses' heels.

The severe shaking of Wall Street on Friday by unfounded rumors of war with Spain was a prelude of the shaking that all business interests would receive if those rumors should be confirmed. Wall Street is only a barometer that serves to forewarn the public of disturbances in the upper regions before they manifest themselves in tempest and tornado. We do not believe that there is any foundation for these rumors. Mr. Hannis Taylor's indiscretions may probably be explained by a personal desire not to be forgotten by the political party to which he and Senator Morgan, the leading Democratic Jingo, belong. It is not likely that the Administration would choose a shirt-sleeves statesman of the opposite party for its mouthpiece. Moreover, there has been a decline in Jingoism perceptible to the journalistic sense during the past three months. Even the *World*, valiant organ of Cuba Libre as it has been, perceives the change. The coming together of Congress, we are sorry to say, is viewed with alarm by all business interests; that is, by the orderly, industrious, God-fearing portion of the community. If a vote could be taken by this class of citizens on the question whether there should be any meeting of Congress during the coming twelvemonth, it would be decided in the negative by so large a majority that the affirmative would not be worth counting; and among the reasons for not wanting a session would be the fear lest some wanton outbreak of foreign embroilment should take place in consequence. But, says some one, no such thing can happen if the President stands firm. That is true. Congress has the power to declare war, but Congress is not likely to declare war without some aggressive act on the part of Spain. There has been no such act, and there is no likelihood of it. If there were any such act for which prompt reparation could not be obtained, then the responsibilities of war would not rest upon the conscience of the nation. The case would wear a very different aspect from that of a war in which we were the aggressors. The question, therefore, which agitates Wall Street is whether President McKinley has the firmness to prevent those steps leading up to war which lie within his own discretion. That his private inclinations are strongly for peace, and that the Jingo sentiment in the country is not so strong as it was some months ago, are facts upon which good hopes may rest.

Friends of Hawaiian annexation in Washington now report a new reason for the President's anxiety that the treaty be speedily ratified. He wants it safely out of the way before the Cuban business gets acute. That is to say, two ugly foreign complications are better than one. Hawaiian annexation, if it stood alone, is confessedly a subject requiring the closest study and the fullest debate; but if it can possibly get in the way of our going to war with Spain, why, agree to it at once and in the dark. This is a marked change, be it noted, from what was said last May to be the President's idea of the relations of the Hawaiian question to the Cuban question. Then he was going shrewdly to head off the Cuban Jingoes by drawing the Hawaiian herring across the trail. There was bound to be some kind of annexation, some kind of Jingo explosion, some occupation for the navy and naval editors; so how fine and sly it would be to divert all the bottled Jingo fury towards the Sandwich Islands, with only 100,000 aliens unfit for self-government, and so save us from taking in Cuba with her 1,500,000 unfit aliens. But it appears now to have been found out, even in Washington, that Jingo appetite grows by what it feeds on, and at present the argument is that we must hurry up and bolt Hawaii in order the sooner to set our teeth to Cuba.

We are glad to read that in the new negotiations for a treaty of arbitration between England and the United States care will be taken at Washington not to "press the subject unduly." We all know that undue pressure was what killed the other treaty. If the people had not been so eager and unanimous in expressing their desire for its ratification, the Senate might have agreed to it. As Senator Hoar explained, when churches and colleges and boards of trade and chambers of commerce and State Legislatures began petitioning the Senate to ratify, the cause was at once lost; there was nothing for a self-respecting Senate to do but refuse to ratify. This fatal error, it is gratifying to be assured, will not be repeated. The new treaty will be devised in a casual, nonchalant way, turned over to the Senate with an indifferent air, with assurances that the people are taking no interest in it whatever, and then, by not being unduly pressed, it may stand a chance of being ratified. It is certain that thereafter, at any rate, the people will take no interest in it whatever.

Cornelius N. Bliss, after several days of silent meditation, is able to remark about the Tammany victory:

> "It is simply what might be expected from a division in the ranks of the people who won the victory last year. This is all there is about it. When it became impossible to make a union of forces opposed to Tammany, defeat was inevitable. As to responsibility, every man will have to decide that for himself. We hope that before another election takes place we will be able to get these divided forces together."

Has Mr. Bliss decided for himself what his responsibility is? And if so, is his sense of it likely to prevent him, when the time for another city election arrives, from again using all his influence to delude 100,000 Republicans into an alliance with a "rotten" machine, and into the support of a hopeless candidate who is put in the field by a boss "who deliberately acts so as to make it impossible for self-respecting men to be allied with him even for a good purpose"? Is Mr. Bliss a "self-respecting man," or did he perform the "impossible" when he joined forces with Platt for the purpose of defeating Mr. Low and putting Tammany in possession of the city for four years? An entertaining rumor comes from Washington that

President McKinley is so disgusted with the result of our election that he will not bestow any more New York patronage on Platt. He has ample cause for disgust, but he should visit his wrath mainly upon himself and Secretary Bliss. He did what he could to aid Platt by giving him the Brooklyn appointments at the very moment when the Brooklyn Republican organization was halting between Platt and Low, and he allowed Mr. Bliss to give the impression that the national Administration was on Platt's side by coming here to speak for Tracy.

The fact that there is a large anti-Tammany majority in this city now jumps into our eyes, through figures, as it has never jumped before. We have always believed and maintained that it existed, but never before has there been a movement like the Low movement to bring out the fact mathematically. Here it is mathematically:

Low	148,585	Van Wyck	228,688
Tracy	101,571		
George	19,864		
	270,020		

For a beginning of an entirely new system of nomination, and for a canvass conducted largely by inexperienced amateurs, we hold that the Low vote of 148,585 is splendid and full of hope. There is great ground for encouragement, too, in the fact that Gen. Tracy's Republican vote was lower than it has ever been for any Republican candidate in the old New York since the Wicked Gibbs ran for the mayoralty in 1884. Gibbs polled 44,000 votes in a much smaller electorate in 1884; Roosevelt polled 60,000 in 1886; Erhardt polled 73,000 in 1888; Tracy only 55,000 in 1897. This shows that an impression may be made on the Republican column by steady effort. Four years is a long time to wait, undoubtedly, for another attack on Tammany, but in those four years Tammany will be furnishing us with plenty of ammunition, and Republicans will be seeing and thinking, and the Citizens' Union will be learning how to fight.

The great hindrance to all continuous and persistent reform agitations in America hitherto, except the anti-slavery agitation, has been the national tendency to sit down quietly under accomplished facts, to accept defeat with a laugh, say it "will all come out right in the end," and turn attention to something else. The readiness of the press, after opposing a candidate tooth and nail for good reason, to congratulate him on his victory, and promise to support him if he is good, is a comic illustration of the same thing. There is a little trace of it in Mr. Low's pledging to "the new Mayor and his associates the coöperation of all my supporters in any effort they may make to administer the government of the city in the interest of the people." All talk like this, however courteous it may seem, takes the heart out of a steady and continuous criticism and opposition. If there be the smallest probability that Mr. Van Wyck and his associates will do anything of the kind, two-thirds of our talk about Tammany in the late canvass was pure campaign "guff." We fought and have lost on the theory that there was no such probability; that Van Wyck's associates would be the old gang as we know them, and that "the administration of the government of the city in the interest of the people" would be the last thing they would think of. Croker and Van Wyck have both discarded any such idea, in their talk with the reporters since the election. Our duty to the new government is not to "coöperate," because we do not know in what we should have to coöperate, but to watch, and criticise, and expose, and defend the people whom Tammany may annoy or persecute, and see that its majorities do not affect the imagination of the courts; above all, keep alive the opposition, if not in the character of patriots, in that of civilized men who refuse to live quietly under the rule of barbarians and thieves.

When Mr. Croker, speaking in that authoritative voice which he always uses in his deliverances as the King of New York, says that "*we* have plain, practical men in Tammany Hall; the men that *we* need at the head of the departments will be found in Tammany Hall without drawing upon the Citizens' Union," who are the men that he has in mind? There has been no time since Tweed's day when the number of really respectable Democrats in Tammany Hall was so small as it is to-day. How many such were among the Tammany orators in the late campaign, or even appeared on the Tammany platform at its meetings? The leading orators were Tom Grady, Birdie Gardiner, and Sulzer. Not a Democrat of first-rate character and ability appeared as Tammany's champion anywhere. This being the case, who are the "plain, practical men" with whom Mayor Van Wyck is to fill the forty great positions which will be at his disposal on January 1, and the thirty or more minor ones? There is nobody in Tammany except the old gang—Gilroy, the Martins, Grady, Scannell, Koch, and the rest. They are all there, and they are all determined to have places. If Van Wyck were a man of great strength of character and of high purpose, he would be incapable of successful resistance to the "pressure" of his associates. Even if he wished to put fit men in the forty chief offices, where is he going to find them among his followers? Croker says he will not be allowed to go outside for material, and if he is not the real Mayor, he speaks as if he considered himself so.

Full returns of the Iowa election show again that courage pays in politics. Mr. Shaw, the Republican candidate for Governor, got his nomination against the opposition of the party machine, and then made his campaign as the open and avowed champion of the gold standard. The opposition succeeded in combining the Bryan Democracy, Silver Republicans, and Populists pretty successfully on one ticket, and induced many Gold Democrats to support this ticket by the claim that the contest was purely a State one. Nevertheless, Mr. Shaw polled a vote far larger that was ever secured by a State ticket, and his plurality over the fusion ticket is fully 30,000, or larger than the record for the Republican candidate over the combined Democratic and Populist vote since the silver issue came up. The contrast between Iowa and Pennsylvania, where the Quay ticket was left in a minority this year, tells a story which even the dullest politician cannot fail to comprehend.

The lower branch of the Georgia Legislature voted last week in favor of making the birthday of Jefferson Davis a legal holiday in that State. But any fearful soul at the North who may fancy that such a vote signifies devotion to "the lost cause" ought to be reassured when he learns that during the same week the Board of Supervisors of Warren County, Miss., which includes Vicksburg, the chief city of Jefferson Davis's own State, adopted unanimously resolutions declaring it "the deliberate opinion of this board that the entire subject of quarantine against yellow fever and other infectious diseases of foreign origin ought to be under the paramount control of the United States; the experience of the present system and spread of yellow fever this year furnishing conclusive evidence that the several independent Boards of Health of the States bordering on the Gulf of Mexico cannot be safely relied upon to prevent the introduction and spread of infectious and contagious diseases." When this official expression of preference for federal control of quarantine is endorsed by so representative a Mississippi newspaper as the Vicksburg *Herald*, which says that it "strikes a keynote that is commended to every county and municipality in the lower valley," the most timorous can dismiss all apprehension as to a revival of "the State-rights heresy."

Mr. Edward Atkinson has published a small pamphlet to prove a thesis which he has heretofore maintained in reference to the silver question, namely, that some of the largest mines in the world are now worked in such a way that the silver produced by them is merely a by-product—the other ores yielding enough profit to make it worth while to work

them, even if no silver at all were produced. Among these are the Broken Hill Proprietary of New South Wales and the Anaconda of the United States. When Mr. Atkinson first advanced this statement it was questioned by a writer in the *Financial News* of London, who insisted that the cost of operation ought to be charged to all the metals produced, and that if this rule were followed, it would be found that the cost of silver to the Broken Hill Company for the year 1896 was 22½d., or 45 cents, per ounce. Mr. Atkinson now proves that the cost of all silver produced by this company from 1891 to 1896, according to the customary method of crediting the bye-products to the cost of the principal product, namely, silver, has been less than 25 cents, or 12½ pence, per ounce. Also, that the copper production of the Anaconda mine in Montana, in the last fiscal year, ending June 30, 1897, yielded a profit over and above all charges of every name and nature, without regard to the silver production. Also, that in that year of low prices the sale of the largest silver product ever made at that mine in one year—namely, 6,057,067 ounces fine—yielded $3,881,551.75 in gold; the whole of this sum received for silver bullion being in addition to the profits upon copper. As the Anaconda property has been sold to an English syndicate, it follows that the largest share of the silver production of the world, something more than one-half, is now centred in London, that the silver so produced is a clean profit to the owners, the cost of operation being nearly all borne by other products of the same mines, and that the principal seat of bimetallism as a money-making venture is in London, and not in Colorado or in any other part of the United States.

Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, the English Chancellor of the Exchequer, has been addressing his constituents on various topics, and naturally enough touched on the recent bimetallic flurry in the Bank of England. He said, among many other things:

> "The letter of the Governor of the Bank of England caused great excitement in the City of London. There is a reasonable, aye, and to my mind a very proper and wise, feeling in the City of London, in favor of the maintenance to as great an extent as possible of the gold reserve in the Bank of England. I do not think there can be a question, I think even I might put it now to my bimetallist friends who may happen to be present, that if we have a gold standard we must have an adequate stock of gold; and, that being so, I am quite sure that neither the Government of this country nor the Bank of England ought for a moment to consent to anything that would prejudicially affect the amount of our stock of gold in this country, either in reserve or in circulation among the people."

Now this shows two things. One is, that the talk of bimetallic philosophers, though Sir Michael treats it respectfully —too respectfully, we think—produced no effect until the Governor of the Bank of England wrote a letter; secondly, that the minute he wrote the letter, it "caused great excitement in the City of London." In other words, the minute it appeared that these silly speculators meant business, the business world rose in arms. He might have added that the minute the business world rose in arms, the Cabinet squelched the bimetallists, inside and outside, and all said "gold." Now this once more confirms what we have been saying for the last two years to the American bimetallists who have been running over to England to get comfort from Mr. Balfour, and Mr. Moreton Frewen, and Mr. Gibbs, and so forth, and then hurrying home to tell their bimetallic brethren here that England was on the edge of bimetallism: "When you arrive in England, do not go to the Treasury in Downing Street to see Mr. Balfour, or to the library of any bimetallic philosopher. Take your gripsack and go straight to the City."

A letter which John Bright wrote in 1884 about imperial federation has lately been given to the press. In it he spoke of the project of bringing colonial members into Parliament as "absurd," and went on:

> "These ideas of 'federation' between England and her colonies are equally visionary and valueless. What is intended by 'federation' I do not know. But surely trade is meant, and surely free trade—not a Canadian or a Victorian tariff. We now give the colonies everything; we buy almost all they have to sell, and levy no duty on their exports—none for protection. What can we do more? If they want a nearer alliance with us, they can give up their tariffs; we can give them nothing more. Our people are all friends of the colonies, but common sense in dealing with our brethren in distant regions is worth far more than the feeble sentiment which some dreamers seem anxious to encourage."

For a Little Englander, this was a remarkable forecast of all that has really happened. Canada has simply given up her tariff, as against England, and the Jubilee-makers could not contain themselves for joy. But a little of John Bright's common sense would have shown them that a trade arrangement for common profit was all there was in it.

The Powers have at last pulled themselves together and named a Governor of Crete. He is a Col. Schaefer of the Duchy of Luxemburg. Coming from a small and neutral state, he is expected to arouse no jealousies among the Powers; and the only question is how the Sultan will take his nomination. His appointment is, in fact, announced as only "provisional," but the Powers think that it ought not to be a "difficult task" to induce the Sultan to consent to it. If he does not, there are their Admirals still on the spot, there will be "energetic action," and so on. He that sitteth in the Yildiz Kiosk shall laugh at all this. He will believe in energetic action when he sees it, and will snap his fingers at all the Admirals in the world until they begin to turn their guns his way. Thus far the Admirals have done nothing but bombard Christians and help the English Liberals carry parliamentary elections. Another Conservative seat was lost in a bye-election on Thursday.

The continuous turmoil and rioting in the Austrian Parliament has, no doubt, causes in the sharp racial divisions which have long made the problem of Austrian government so difficult; but the inability of the presiding officer to keep order betrays a defect in the rules and parliamentary practice which Austria seems to share with France. The President of the Reichsrath, as of the French Chamber, appears to have no resource except to ring his bell, or say, "Sh!" or, as a last resort, to dissolve the sitting. No representative body in England or America is so left at the mercy of unscrupulous brawlers. A sergeant-at-arms, or some equivalent functionary, is at hand to suppress or remove them. Vienna, so long reputed the politest court in Europe, may have thought itself beyond the need of such protection against disgraceful riot in its Parliament; but the fierce struggle of races has evidently broken through the ordinary restraints of decency. A writer in the last *Revue des Deux Mondes*, commenting upon the extraordinary diversity and the extraordinary jealousy of the different nationalities in the empire, says that if local factions could have their way, we should soon be reading of the Austro-Hungario-Bohemian monarchy, or even, we may add, of the Austro-Hungario-Bohemio-Croatian monarchy.

Protection in Germany is like protection everywhere else. "Der Bund der Industriellen" (The League of Industrial Workers) met in Berlin on October 3 and 4. One of the most prominent matters under discussion was the importation of American bicycles, which has grown from $1,898,012 in 1896 to $7,000,323 in 1897. The German bicycles are clumsy and heavy wheels, which even the German cyclists, loyal as they are to German industries, will evidently not buy. The natural inference that most people would draw from this marked preference for the American article is that it is better than the German at the same price, and that the German makers should change the designs and improve the workmanship of their wheels. But instead of reading this lesson to the manufacturers, the League calls on the Government to raise the duty on American wheels because it is lower than that which the United States and some other countries impose. Certainly a high import duty laid by a large exporting community like the American is an anomaly; but it is not confined to the bicycle trade nor to Germany.

THE REVOLT AGAINST BOSSISM.

The most striking feature of the recent elections, as their results become clearer with fuller returns, is seen to be the tremendous revolt against bossism wherever it was in issue. Among the few States where contests took place were four which had each its boss well known to the country at large, and every one of these four bosses encountered a revolt so strong as to show that public sentiment was the same, North and South, East and West.

Platt controlled the Republican party in a State which gave the Republican candidate for President 268,469 plurality over Bryan last year, and chose an Assembly with 114 Republicans out of 150 members. This year the Republican candidate for Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals, whom he named through his State committee, is beaten by about 70,000 plurality, and the opposition secures more than half of the next Assembly, while his personal nominee for Mayor of the Greater New York gets only two-thirds as many votes as the candidate of the Citizens' Union. Instead of having a majority of seventy-eight members in the Assembly, as was the case last winter, Mr. Platt will be short of any majority whatever this winter. What is especially bad for him is the fact that the balance of power in the new Assembly will be held by a handful of members who have been elected because they were avowed opponents of his system of government. These members believe that the government belongs to the people rather than to Platt, and they have had the impudence to hold a conference and pledge themselves to act upon that belief. Of course, men suffering under a hallucination like this will not consent to go to Platt every Sunday for orders; and the consequence will be that his system of government will have to be abandoned.

Just how many of these members will be found acting for the people when the Legislature meets, cannot be predicted now; but that there will be enough of them to prevent Platt from organizing the Assembly unless he makes an open alliance with Tammany members, there appears to be no doubt whatever. Several of them, notably Messrs. Laimbeer and Weekes of this city, are men of such force of character and of such high purpose that any attempt to swerve them from the course they have entered upon will be futile. They are not unlikely to have allies from other parts of the State than Brooklyn, for dissatisfaction with the results of Platt's leadership is very prevalent and strong above the Bronx as well as below it. And it would be surprising if this were not the case. The party has lost everything in the election. It has lost control of the Legislature this year, and has thrown away irrevocably all hope of electing a Governor next year or a United States Senator in 1899, or of carrying the State for a Republican Presidential candidate in 1900. There is not a Republican politician in the State who believes for a moment that there is any chance that his party, during the next four years, will be able to poll above the Bronx a Republican majority which will be large enough to overcome the Democratic majority of Greater New York.

In Ohio, Hanna was the absolute dictator of the Republican organization, and sought the endorsement of the people as a candidate for the United States Senate. The last Legislature contained 110 Republicans and 28 Democrats on joint ballot. The best that is now claimed is a majority of five for the Republicans on joint ballot, three of which come from counties where changes of from 15 to 45 votes would have elected the Democratic candidates and given that party an unquestioned majority of the Legislature. Except for the feeling that Hanna represented an endorsement of the McKinley Administration which McKinley's own State could not afford to refuse only eight months after his inauguration, he would evidently have been beaten. Even as it is, his success is not assured, as more than one Republican member-elect is personally opposed to the boss.

Gorman has been the commander of the Democratic organization in Maryland for twenty years. During the latter part of this period his rule has been despotic. Eight years ago he signalized his power in the way that most delights a boss, by having a subservient Legislature give the other United States senatorship to a man who was simply his "Me Too." Two years ago this tool was repudiated, a Democratic State preferring a Republican in his stead. This year the same Democratic State again elects a Republican Legislature to fill the senatorship which Gorman has held, as the only way of getting rid of the boss himself.

Quay controls the Republican organization in Pennsylvania so openly that, when the last Legislature was in session, the Republican majority made no secret of the fact that it did nothing without orders from the boss. He named his men for the State ticket without the slightest difficulty, and President McKinley improved the opportunity to show that the national Administration favored him by naming a disreputable henchman of his as consul during the campaign, against the earnest protest of leading business men of Philadelphia, who furnished evidence of his gross corruption as a legislator. But the returns show that the Quay candidate for State Treasurer fell considerably short of a majority at the polls, the Democratic vote combined with that cast for an Independent Republican and a Prohibitionist who appealed even more strongly to the independent element, aggregating 377,203, against 371,053 for Quay's man. The plain-spoken clergyman who ran as a nominal Prohibitionist, but really as an anti-machine candidate, though without any effective organization or campaign fund, polled 117,430 votes, or nearly a third as many as Quay's man. In its way the blow dealt bossism in Pennsylvania was as stinging as in either of the other States.

Never before has bossism presented itself so offensively as this year. In the past there has been more or less pretence of reserve. This year the bosses threw off all disguise. They declared that bossism is the ideal perfection of government in a democracy. Hanna summed up their creed in these orders to his subjects a few days before the election:

> "Every Republican should remember his duty. It doesn't make any difference about persons, or if the candidate don't suit you exactly. The Republican organization must have the same discipline as we had in the regular army, when the boys in blue marched with their gallant leaders. As Chairman of the Republican national committee, I have the right to command, and you must stand by me in the dual position I now occupy. It doesn't matter whether you like my personality or not. I have no patience with the man who bolts his party because he is not satisfied with the candidate. If you expect business men to take part in politics and come among you, it is your duty to submit to the discipline of the party."

It is well for the country that bossism has thus been carried to its logical conclusion. The great thing is to have the Quays and Hannas and Gormans and Platts come out into the open, where the people can get at them. The late elections show that the strongest boss cannot long survive the firing which he thus invites.

THE TARIFF AND THE CITY.

When we come to hunt up the remoter causes of the difficulty of setting up decent government in this city, the first obstacle that confronts us is the fanatical devotion of a considerable body of Republicans to their own party—a devotion which in its outward manifestations more nearly resembles the devotion of religious men to a church, two hundred years ago, than anything else in modern times. That is to say, it can hardly be shaken by argument or by any exhibition of consequences. We know of no political or economical considerations which would have any effect on it; and as to its influence on the city, Republicans say simply, as the martyrs said about Christianity, "Perish the city provided the Republican party be saved." In fact, support of the Republican party seems to be an awful duty, the "stern daughter of the voice of God," to be discharged though the sky should fall.

Now, what is the explanation of this extraordinary phenomenon? Well, it is far simpler than it seems. The term "Republican party" does not really mean a party in the ordinary sense of the term, with a body of political doctrine

of its own and a set of distinctly defined aims. As a party it does not differ much, if at all, from the Democratic party, barring the recent adhesion of the Democratic party to silver. To all outward appearance, the Republican attitude towards all questions except the tariff—its view of public office, of foreign policy, and of taxation—appears to be substantially that held by the Democrats. The tariff apart, there is no difficulty for an honest man in passing from one party to the other. He might any day doubt to which party he belonged, as far as opinions are concerned. Even as regards silver, enough Democrats to enable it to elect its President had no difficulty in acting with the Republican party last year.

We are thus driven by a process of pure reasoning to the conclusion that the proper name of the Republican party, the distinctive aim which would best describe it, is the Tariff party. Its distinguishing trait is devotion to the tariff. This is the one thing which differentiates a respectable, intelligent Republican from a respectable and intelligent man of any other sect or creed. It is by this trait we know him, just as an early Christian was known by his refusal to sacrifice to the gods. It was by requiring him to burn incense to Jupiter or Apollo that the cruel Romans found him out. In like manner a Republican would be found out by requiring him to curse the tariff, or say it was a bad thing for the country. He would sacrifice himself, his aged mother, or loving wife, or innocent children, or the city of his birth, sooner than do this. The Republican party is the party which has the tariff in charge. To weaken it for any purpose is to put the tariff in peril. To join forces with the Democrats or Mugwumps for any purpose, is to weaken it; therefore "voting straight" becomes the most solemn and sacred of all political duties.

We shall not consider this so very extraordinary as it seems at first sight if we remember that we have now been living under a high tariff for thirty years; that during that period an enormous amount, practically an incalculable amount, of money has been invested under it in every species of manufacture; that a generation has grown up under it who either owed, or believed they owed, their subsistence or their comfort to it. It has naturally become linked in their imagination with everything good and "American" in the world. The mental process by which this takes place is one of the most familiar in the history of the human mind. All old institutions—the old British Constitution, the old French monarchy, the old Catholic Church, the Inquisition even—got support in this way from large bodies of persons who had been born and prospered under them. If the tariff had failed to induce large bodies of persons in this country to look on it as the source of their own comfort and success in life and of American prosperity, it could not have lasted very long. As a matter of fact, it has become identified in the eyes of such persons with property and order. To attack it is, as Sheil said of the enemies of Catholicism, to "furnish help to those miserable men who are the enemies of human hope, the apostles of desolation and despair." Its safety becomes a concern so weighty as to make all other interests seem trifling. It seems silly to talk about city government, Tammany, plunder, or dirt, with men who you know cherish, in their secret hearts, dark designs against the wool and cotton duties, and the duties on knitted goods and other textiles, and who would, if they could, take the duty off steel. It seems like discussing alterations in church ritual with a shameless infidel.

It sounds fantastical, we know, and yet it is our solemn conviction, that the march of political progress has for thirty years at least been arrested in America by this tariff fanaticism; by the erection among us of something sacrosanct which we cannot alter or dispense with, and the safety of which must not be endangered by any other change whatever. It is in reality the substitution for theocracy of a form of government closely resembling it. The tariff is, in the eyes of the Platt Republicans in New York, somewhat in the position of the Koran in the eyes of good Mussulmans at Constantinople. No matter what beneficial change you propose in the government of the latter city, two objections to it at once arise. The first is that it comes from a Giaour (Mugwump or Democrat); the second is that, there being no mention of it in the Sacred Law, it would probably endanger the true faith if adopted. Better dirt and poverty, ruined bridges, venal courts, and a declining state, than that the Prophet's idea of a political community should be departed from. Many of our people would sooner see everything that used to constitute American greatness and glory depart from us, than even endanger the chance of levying 60 per cent. on all the instruments and results of civilization. In their sad and softened fancy they would be reconciled to seeing the republic perish if in its last moments the appraisers and gaugers and inspectors were still busy on the wharves, and the giddy travellers from foreign ports were still mulcted on their silks and their gewgaws. It is an odd political ideal, belonging rather to the fifteenth century than to ours; but God is great and Mohammed is his prophet.

SECRETARY GAGE'S PLAN.

The plan of currency reform presented by Secretary Gage for the consideration of the cabinet begins with a strong argument for retiring the demand liabilities of the Government. The first of these to be redeemed and cancelled are the greenbacks and the Treasury notes of 1890, amounting to $460,000,000. That these are a menace to the Government's credit and to general prosperity the Secretary shows in an unanswerable way. He estimates the losses suffered by business interests in consequence of the doubt thrown on the Government's intention and ability to keep the currency at par with gold during the past four years at a greater sum than the outstanding paper, including the silver certificates, viz., $900,000,000. We think that this is an underestimate, but all persons of sense will agree that the losses have been enormous. The purchase of silver alone has been a direct and dead loss to the Government of $460,000,000—*i. e.*, more than one-half of the total loss estimated by Mr. Gage to have been incurred since 1893. It may be contended that the condition is now fairly satisfactory, as gold is flowing towards the Treasury, not away from it. Mr. Gage gives a more ready assent to this proposition than we should be inclined to do, but he shows that present conditions cannot be expected to last for ever. Circumstances will not always be in our favor. A change for the worse may come at any time. It is the statesman's duty to foresee such changes and to provide against them.

Mr. Gage's plan for meeting future adverse conditions is evidently based upon the idea that Congress cannot be prevailed upon now to take radical action, but may be induced to take steps that shall minimize the evils of which we have had recent experience. So, while endorsing the proposition advanced by so many of his predecessors in office, that the demand notes of the Government ought to be paid and cancelled, his specific propositions come somewhat short of this. In other words, his remedy does not correspond to his diagnosis. Perhaps if his plan had been prepared in the light of the recent elections he might have adhered more closely to first principles. These elections teach, in our opinion, one lesson, viz., that the Republican party may be beaten in 1898 and 1900 even if it reforms the currency meanwhile, but that it will surely be beaten if it does not. Therefore, we may indulge the hope that Secretary Gage will even yet adopt the more radical measure which his cabinet paper shows that he favors, and which his utterances as a private citizen have aforetime more explicitly promised.

Turning now to the specific plan, we remark that he recommends that the business of supplying a currency to the country be separated from the ordinary business of the Treasury by the creation of a department or division of issue and redemption. To this division he would transfer $125,000,000 of gold and $200,000,000 of greenbacks, the latter to be

issued only in exchange for gold. This will be not exactly equivalent for redemption purposes to $325,000,000 of gold, but it will be an immense gain over the present condition of things. The sum of $325,000,000 gold would exercise a more powerful influence on the imagination of the public than the same sum composed partly of gold and partly of greenbacks, but the withdrawal of $200,000,000 of the latter from the channels of circulation would diminish by so much the demand upon the Treasury for gold, and would have nearly the same effect as though the whole mass were gold.

How are these greenbacks to be obtained? By refunding the national bonded debt in a new gold bond bearing 2½ per cent. interest, and allowing the national banks to deposit greenbacks instead of bonds, to the amount of $200,000,000, in the Treasury to secure their circulation, these greenbacks to be subsequently converted into the new bonds and held for account of the banks. This seems like a roundabout way of selling the new bonds to the banks for greenbacks to the amount named and allowing them to issue circulation against them at par. We think that the simpler way would be preferable, because more easily understood, and hence more likely to be acceptable to Congress. The kernel of this refunding plan, however, is the proposal to insert the word gold where we now use the word coin. This change would enable the Government to save about $15,000,000 per annum in the way of interest, but it is so opposed to the congressional way of looking at things that we doubt if it could be carried into the forms of law. The average Congressman wants to pay $15,000,000 extra to the bondholders in exchange for the privilege of saying coin instead of gold, when in practice the two words mean the same thing.

Secretary Gage proposes no radical change in the banking system except that he would authorize the national banks which have deposited bonds or Government notes to the amount of 50 per cent. of their capital, to issue notes to that amount and 25 per cent. more, the latter to be issued against their general assets, the Government to be responsible for the notes and to have a first lien on the assets for its own security. To this he would add a tax of 2 per cent. per annum on the unsecured circulation, to be kept as a safety fund for all of such outstanding unsecured circulation. This has some features in common with the so-called Baltimore plan. It bears a closer resemblance to Secretary Carlisle's plan, in which deposited security was required to the amount of $30 instead of $50, against $75 of notes. The Baltimore plan requires no deposited security, but a 5 per cent. safety fund. We shall consider this part of Secretary Gage's plan at greater length hereafter. Meanwhile we express our preference for the more radical measure of taking the Government out of the currency-issuing business altogether by the retirement of all of its legal-tender paper, believing as we do that business can never be on a sound bottom so long as the question of redeeming our paper in gold is essentially a political one, depending on the chance of a majority of voters being in favor of such redemption.

THE LOST ART OF LETTER-WRITING.

"Nobody writes letters," sneered Cecil Rhodes before the parliamentary commission. He meant, of course, no public man—especially no Imperial statesman like himself, at one moment dictating the fate of the Matabele to his typewriter, the next ordering a raid on a friendly state in stock-broker's cipher. But what he asserted of his ilk, others declare mournfully to be the case with all the world. Even professional writers no longer write letters. An edition of eighteenth-century letter-writers is announced as a reprint in a kind of literature that is now a lost art in English. Even from the land of Madame de Sévigné comes the plaint that the epistolary style is no more practised. In fact, so universal is the conviction that the art of letter-writing has gone out that no one stops to question the fact; all the dispute is over the explanations of the fact.

These are various. Cheap postage has wrought the ruin, say some. When you knew that your correspondent would have to pay a shilling or eighteen pence for your letter, you were in duty bound to give him at least his money's worth. Now the writer pays the charges himself, has to expend but two cents, and thinks any curt stupidity will do. This doctrine of the cheap postage making the cheap letter will not, we fear, satisfy the truly ingenuous inquirer. He will point out the fact that if, in the eighteenth century, postage was at a high rate, the frank was common, and that some of the most delightful letters in the language were written under frank. Costing nothing did not make them worth nothing. On the other hand, if wits have not cheapened as postage has, why should we not jump at the opportunity to shower lively letters on all our friends when it can be done at so little cost? It really looks as if the trouble were to be located in the skull rather than in the pocket.

Well, but there are our demoralizing and dissipating mental habits. We live in such a whirl that we have no time to write. And oh yes, there is the diffusion of popular knowledge, the daily and periodical press—really, you know, with so much thought at everybody's disposal, it would be very like an impertinence for a man to sit down to compose an instructive or amusing letter. The fact is the telegraph has killed letters. "I telegraph, therefore I am," has, as a witty French writer says, taken the place of the Cartesian "Cogito, ergo sum." It we have not a telegraph blank or a code handy, we instinctively make our letters as short and cryptographic as possible. But even this explanation does not pierce to the centre. Here are but ways of thought-saving in the business of life; why should they leave us with less thought to bestow on the æsthetics of life? Does a copy of a weekly paper, even of our own, so fill the soul's thirst for literary joys that a witty letter from a brilliant friend would seem a great falling off by comparison? To a candid judgment the common literature of the day leaves plenty of room for the uncommon literature of good letters, instead of putting a fatal extinguisher on them. If we perforce telegraph more than our ancestors, it does not follow that we should less enjoy a letter full of wise amenity and flashing insight—if we could only get some one to write it to us.

As for the growing tendency of literary men to make their letters mere business scratches or formal notes of thanks, the reason for this is more evident. Literature is now more of a business, the one thing a man does, if he does it well; and, as Mérimée says, a man must be rather stupid who does only one thing. "How can I write letters," cried Victor Hugo, "when I have proofs to correct, and calls to receive, and big books to write, and business affairs to look after?" Then there is a subtler force at work. Why waste on a friend what would easily make salable "copy"? Dr. Holmes jokingly remarked on the improbability of an author's squandering in conversation or in a letter what he could get $50 for from a publisher; and he himself certainly did little such squandering in his letters. Apart from this, there is a feeling that a writer who has put his best into his books can have little but remnants to offer in private. "A letter!" exclaimed Gautier, when a friend urged him to correspond; "would you ask a carpenter to send you some shavings?"

A hint here in passing. Literary repute may in the long run depend more upon a man's letters than upon his books. M. René Doumic has lately said that Mérimée's volumes of letters are really carrying better than his other works. Mrs. Carlyle published nothing, but look at her letters. Edward FitzGerald persisted in the pride of printing no books except privately, but he went on writing letters to all the best of his time, which are among the raciest ever penned. The rule is not invariable: Tennyson appears to have been an inferior letter-writer; Matthew Arnold was dull enough in his letters. But it

may well be that many an author filled with longing to join the choir invisible of the immortal dead would be given a much more prominent part in that posthumous chorus if he would suppress his books and wreak himself on letters. Letters lend themselves so much more easily to preserving—or to burning!

All this brings us to what might have been said earlier, that explanations why letter-writing is a lost art are unsatisfactory, because letter-writing is *not* a lost art. Some of the names already cited show that it at least did not go out with the eighteenth century—with shilling postage and the monthly *News-Letter*. Mrs. Browning's letters, only now published, bring the succession near our own day, and Motley's, and Lowell's profuse flinging about of his mental largess, nearer still. Who can doubt that when Gladstone's biography comes to be published, we shall see a noble series of letters spanning almost the entire century? The long and tiresome letter, its back broken with the weight of humdrum it attempts to carry, may have gone, and a good riddance it is. But the letter, as yet the choicest vehicle (conversation being impossible) for the conveying of undress thought between equal minds; the letter, as the safe receptacle for the incisive comment and the witty fling that cannot be spoken or printed; the letter, in which friend strikes out the spark from friend as iron sharpeneth iron, in which confidences are shared, judgments exchanged, the form and impress of the age given record—that this is an art no longer cultivated by the discerning, we, for our part, flatly refuse to believe.

WHO ARE THE PEOPLE OF ASIA MINOR?

AMHERST, Mass., October, 1897.

However much it may deserve such honor, Asia Minor has not yet been invaded by the tourist, for, in fact, the country is little known to the world at large. We of the West labor under the belief that Moslem fanaticism makes travel in that country dangerous to the life or limb of the venturesome traveller. Ever since the time of the Crusaders, the impression has been traditional that the Moslem in general and the Turk in particular are professional cutthroats, who ask for no higher enjoyment than the opportunity to carve up a Christian dog of a giaour every day. The assertion, therefore, that the Turk, and certainly the peasant Turk, is preëminently a man of peace, is not likely to find favor in any quarter just at this juncture, since for some years past the world has been horrified by the accounts of awful deeds of murder and rapine committed by the Turks upon the Armenians. Recent events in Thessaly have not served to efface this impression. And yet, for all that, it is a fact that the Turkish peasant is peace-loving and averse to bloodshed. He is merciful to a fault, and his false mercy makes him incapable of putting a suffering animal of any kind out of its misery. Storks cannot abide the Greeks, but they are found quietly nesting on every house in a Turkish village. Even hawks, which in other countries are so careful to avoid contact with man, build their nests under the eaves of Turkish houses. An experience among the Turks that extended over several years has given me no cause for entertaining an unkindly opinion of them. But still every one who has had to deal for any length of time with the people who call themselves Osmanli (for the word Turk is unknown to them except as a term applied to a stupid fool) notices that they betray a twofold character, in which fierceness, cruelty, and official corruptness intermingle strangely with gentleness, kindness, and goodness. Few attempt to explain the phenomenon.

The inhabitants of Asia Minor do not represent a homogeneous population, nor even an aggregation of peoples of kindred stock. On the contrary, that unfortunate country is peopled by a number of tribes which are without racial, and originally without linguistic, affinity. This is a fact that was noted long ago by Strabo, though the Roman sway and the spread of Christianity both tended to obliterate those racial differences which originally prevented intercourse and intermarriage between neighboring village communities. But not only was this process of the obliteration of racial distinctions stopped with the advent of the Turks in 1070, but the distinctions were emphasized, and new tribes have come in to add to the racial chaos.

A rapid survey of these new tribes will show that they consist of Turks, Turcomans, Avshars, Yuruks, Circassians, Kurds, not to speak of the old Greeks and Armenians, nor of the Tatars, Noghai, Ansarieh, Yezidi, and Jacobites, which, with the exception of the Tatars, are found only along the southeastern fringe of Asia Minor and in Syria and Mesopotamia. The Osmanli Turks themselves exhibit a variety of types, though for our purposes they may be divided into two classes: the dwellers in cities and the dwellers in villages, the former class representing the official and governing class. The Turcomans are of kindred stock with the Ottoman Turks, but differ from them in this that they are still wholly nomadic; the Osmanli have long since become residents in fixed abodes, but for all that even the urban populations have not wholly abandoned nomadic habits. The spirit of the thing still lives, for not only do the villagers abandon their villages for the Yaïla during the heated season, but even the great officials of Stambul are in a mild way true to the nomadic instincts of the conquering shepherds. During the summer the traveller will see the harems of the wealthy city gentlemen encamped in tents along the entire line of the railway from Constantinople to Nicomedia. The Turcomans also fall into two classes: the orthodox and the heterodox Turcomans. The latter, called Kizil-Bash (Red Heads), are heartily detested by the Ottoman Turks. Like most nomads, the Turcomans are very hospitable, and rarely accept money for their rude but kindly hospitality. The Avshars came originally from Persia; they, too, are nomadic, though they are beginning to adopt the settled habit. They are found chiefly in the mountainous regions of the Antitaurus, where I came into constant contact with them. They are sturdy, courageous, and hospitable. The Yuruks, also nomads, dwell chiefly in mountainous regions, and by some are regarded as Mongolians, while others think them a race akin to the Gypsies. They are said to have no religion whatever, and to practise incestuous marriage; but I am not competent to speak either of their religion or of their racial affinities. They are inoffensive, but are universally despised.

The Circassians are Moslem refugees from Russia; they are now found all over the peninsula, and even in Syria and Mesopotamia. They are feared and detested by all alike as thieves and cutthroats. I came into frequent and intimate contact with them, even in the wildest districts of the Antitaurus, but I was everywhere received with welcome and a lavish hospitality. My Asiatic friends told me that my immunity was due to the fact that my chief servant was a Circassian, fierce-looking enough, but in reality the mildest of men. But however that may be, and as an offset to the universal hatred felt for the Circassians, I have no evil to speak of them; certainly it was refreshing to accept the royal hospitality of a Circassian village, with its cleanliness, thrift, and providence, after the filth, lice, and other vermin of the Turkish villages. Like the Circassians, the Kurds are our own brothers, racially speaking; their language is a dialect of the Persian. Outside of Kurdistan and Armenia they are nomads, and are found in numbers in Catalonia, northern Cappadocia, and Galatia. They are a murderous set of filthy villains, who, with the exception of the nomads (in whose tents I have been entertained handsomely), have not even the primitive virtue of hospitality. History has nothing good to relate of them from the time when the Ten Thousand forced a passage through their country, down to the time when they became the butchers of the Armenians. The only time in all my travels in Asia when for a half-hour I thought that Atropos was about to use her shears, was in a Kurdish village in Catalonia, not far from the Euphrates.

These, then, are the new elements brought in by the Turkish conquest to complicate the racial problem. None of them practise intercourse or intermarriage, and all of them except the Circassians are nomadic. For years the central government has been trying to abolish nomadic life in Asia Minor, and from time to time an order is sent out to the provisional governors to confiscate the costly and serviceable black hair tents of the nomads. But little is accomplished thereby except untold misery among the poor nomads, who, in spite of the loss of their tents, simply will not settle down into fixed villages, but live beneath wretched bowers of brush and leaves until with time their women have woven new tents. Recent events have made it unnecessary to speak of the Greeks and Armenians in Asia Minor. I may say, though, that Greek and Armenian merchants, especially men of the latter nationality, are found throughout the peninsula, while in Cappadocia and Pontus Greek-*speaking* communities are common.

The inhabitants of Asia Minor have never at any period been a homogeneous population; they have never been an independent, sovereign people. From the dawn of history they have been subject to foreign rule, if we may except such kingdoms as those of Midas, Gordius, Crœsus, etc., foreign dynasties which themselves soon succumbed to more forceful foreign dynasties. At the opening of history the Asiatics were a wealthy people; in fact, commerce was invented by them, and to a late date the "Lydian mar-

kets" were well known. Indeed, it may not be controverted that, although the people of Asia Minor were never independent, and, therefore, presumably, never capable of self-government, yet they were ever prosperous and rich whenever they were living under a strong, paternal government that, even in a half-hearted way, secured the individual in the peaceful enjoyment of his earnings. Even in Roman times their wealth was proverbial, and a Roman proconsul or proprætor wished for no greater stroke of luck than to be appointed to a post in Asia Minor for a season. The pickings were fine, and the post was as good as the ownership of a mint. But under the ignorant and rapacious government of the conquering shepherds, who were quick enough to seize the pickings, but incapable of improving or exploiting their conquered property, the people of Asia Minor have become familiar with a depth of poverty unknown before in the history of that still fertile land.

And herein lies the kernel of my contention, which is that the Moslem peasantry in the villages of Asia Minor are not Turks at all, but simply the lineal descendants of the old aboriginal inhabitants, with their traditional exclusiveness, that was originally based on racial differences; with their traditional and inherited inability to assert their independence and govern themselves, being driven, now as ever, by interloping taskmasters. Throughout all history their very long-suffering gentleness, stolidity, and honesty have made them a peculiarly facile prey to robber officials, and this character they maintain to the present day. There is no more fruitful field for the ethnologist than Asia Minor, and ethnology has much to tell us about the problems which that curious complex of nationalities propounds to us; but still there is much evidence to prove that, as the years have rolled on, the aboriginal people of Asia Minor have repeatedly changed their language and their religion. Whatever may have been their primitive worship, they certainly accepted from the Hittites the worship of the Chaldean Istar, and we may infer from the analogy of their subsequent history that they also adopted the Hittite language, at least in central Asia Minor. At the bidding of the Phrygians, the successors of the Hittites, a large portion of them changed their language again. But if it be said that this is partly conjectural, it is at all events certain that they readily exchanged their language and their worship of the great Asiatic goddess of fecundity for the Greek language and the galaxy of Olympian deities, to whom they transferred many of the characteristic features of their old religion. In its turn this religion was readily supplanted by the state religion of Rome, that universal, all-embracing cult known as the worship of the Roman emperors. They accepted Christianity just as readily, and though they clung to it for a thousand years, yet the Turks, by opening to them all the privileges and honors that were the right of the conquering race, found little difficulty in inducing the rural population to embrace Islam and adopt the language of their shepherd conquerors.

At first all these various changes were slow of progress, and in the change to the Greek language, for instance, we have many traces of a struggle long kept up. In the case of the last change the process had been going on for several centuries before the fall of Constantinople, at which time it had been virtually completed. As might be expected of densely ignorant people, they have utterly forgotten this change of language and religion, and they would be swift to resent the imputation that they are not Osmanli Turks, but simply the same patient, good-hearted, and stolid people whose forefathers dwelt in the land thousands of years before ever the Turks were heard of. It was in this way that the whole Christian population of Asia Minor became Moslems, with the exception of comparatively few districts and villages. So true is this that scholars have even claimed that it is still possible to differentiate the nationalities that occupy different localities in Asia Minor, and herein is a great field for the ethnologist. Who ever heard of a blonde and blue-eyed Turk? And yet there are such men in Galatia today, men who stoutly claim that they are Ottoman Turks, whereas in point of fact they are almost certainly the lineal descendants of the old Gauls, or Galatians, as the Greeks called them. They might even be called French Turks.

This peasantry, which has accepted Islam and the Turkish language—and, when the tide turns that way, will quite as readily re-accept Christianity—is still in the main an Aryan race, now ruled by a handful of officials, the hybrid remnant of the shepherd horde that conquered the peninsula. If this be true, we begin to understand the reasons for that two-fold character of the Turk which has been commented upon so frequently. Mongrels have ever had a bad name. The peasant is not a mongrel; he is, therefore, honest, sturdy, peace-loving, long-suffering, and slow to anger, whereas the official or ruling Turk, who is at all events the traditional representative of the blue-blood of the conquerors, is exactly the opposite. Indeed, the Turkish peasant is oppressed and plundered by the official Turk quite as unmercifully as is the Christian subject; the only difference, so far as I could discover, being that the Christian has to pay a war capitation tax in lieu of service in the field, and in so far he is better off than the Moslem, his turn-coat brother. This ruling class is itself not of pure Turkish origin, for intermarriage with women of every conceivable stock, from Ethiopia to Circassia, and from 1070 A. D. down to the present day, has brought about the virtual extinction of Turkish blood. The Padishah himself can make no claim to purity of blood; he is more Circassian, more Greek even, than Turk. The purest Turkish blood is found only in the tents of the Turcomans and in Turkistan.

If the ruling class are not Turks any longer, no more are the peasants, for they never were Turks. While the conquerors might, and always did, take wives from the conquered natives, the principle did not work both ways. But it may be claimed that, after the original status of the peasantry had been forgotten by master and subject alike, then the aboriginal inhabitants, now turned Moslem, might marry Turkish women. True, they might; but if there is one social feature that forces itself upon the attention of the traveller more than another, it is the astonishing exclusiveness prevalent in Turkish communities as regards neighboring communities. The peasants live and die within the territory of their own villages, having neither intercourse nor intermarriage with neighboring villages. They get their sole glimpse of the world when they go off to the army. Indeed, the traveller who seeks for topographical information is often exasperated to find in village A a total ignorance prevailing in regard to village B, only ten miles distant. This exclusiveness is as old as Strabo certainly, and it goes to prove that racial differences, though long since forgotten, are traditionally still existent, and prevent intermarriage between villages. All of which argues strongly for the theory that the peasants are not a homogeneous race—that is, are not Turks. In-breeding prevails, and intermarriage between the ruling class and the ruled was limited to the period before the final adjustment of interests and the definite settlement of the ruling class in fixed abodes. It is still true that the harems of the wealthy class of officials and the gentry are stocked with beauties of any and every extraction. But there is a sorrowful absence of beautiful or even handsome women in the homes of the villagers. Amongst the nomads one often sees women who are splendid animals, splendid breeders, who might readily find housing in the harems of the great, but centuries of grinding drudgery have driven comeliness from the face and the person of the peasant woman, who is, therefore, rarely a candidate for harem honors. So that if an intermingling of blood still goes on, it is wholly one-sided. Intermarriage may take women from the village to be wives or concubines to the wealthy in the cities, but it brings no women to the village to break the traditional exclusiveness of the non-Turkish villagers.

The Turkish peasant, while a faithful Moslem, is no fanatic, under ordinary circumstances at least. In fact, according to his poor lights, he is very liberal-minded. On a hot summer's day without any hesitation he will quarter a foreign giaour in the mosque, because that is the coolest place in the village. This liberal-mindedness is very pronounced in comparison with the fanaticism say of the Persians, who account a mosque defiled if entered by a Christian or a pig. However, the non-Turkish peasant can be a fighter, and if his religion be insulted or he be prodded on to fanaticism by the superior or ruling class, he will defend himself until he is cut to pieces. His stolidity and his religion make him an excellent soldier, but, until further light be given me, I shall continue to believe that the *non-Turkish peasant* had no share in the Armenian massacres.

J. R. S. STERRETT.

THE RAWLINSON MSS. IN THE BODLEIAN LIBRARY.—I.

LONDON, October, 1897.

Once upon a time a party of Americans who were on a visit to Oxford were being shown over one of the beautiful colleges for which that ancient city is famous. As the visitors were walking on one side of the quadrangle, a window was suddenly thrown up on the opposite side. "Oh, my! are these ruins inhabited?" exclaimed an American belle who was one of the party. In much the same way would American students be surprised if they knew what vast numbers of unpublished documents that tell of persons and things American during the colonial period are preserved in the various college libraries of the University, and, above all, in the Bodleian. As regards the contents of Sir Thomas Bodley's fane of

learning, the authorities of the Library and the Syndics of the Clarendon Press have, by the printing of admirably prepared catalogues, done their best to bring their hoard of manuscript treasures within the ken of historical students. But, whether it is that the prices at which the catalogues are published are not "popular," or that reviewers do not find catalogues a sufficiently tempting subject for review, it is a fact that the treasures of the Bodleian are not known far and wide as they ought to be. In manuscripts the Bodleian ranks as a very good second to the British Museum in numbers; and in the rarity of some classes of documents, such as Oriental MSS., the Bodleian surpasses the great National Library of the United Kingdom.

It is practicable, at present, to deal with but a single class of MSS. in Oxford's principal library, and with an individual collection of that one class. With the help of the catalogue published by the Clarendon Press, and its admirable index, it is easy to bring before the eyes of readers of the *Nation* the contents of the manuscripts in the Rawlinson Collection. Subjoined will be found a list which, while it does not pretend to include every document, supplies particulars of most of those that relate to the colonial period of American history. Some talk of individuals—of simple colonists, or of clergymen, or of Governors or other officials. Others tell of towns, or districts, or of whole colonies. Administration, civil, military, or ecclesiastical, is described. In fact, the documents noted supply materials that cannot but throw fresh light on the personal and public transactions of the colonial period. Many, relating to the West Indies, have not been noted in the list subjoined.

The Rawlinson Collection includes a vast number of manuscripts besides those relating to America. It was bequeathed to the Bodleian Library by Richard Rawlinson, who died in 1755. The son of a wealthy Lord Mayor of London, Rawlinson was himself a non-juring bishop. His life was mainly devoted to the collecting of books, manuscripts, seals, and curiosities. Some of his books, and most of his manuscripts and other collections, were, by his will, left to the Bodleian. The estimable collector was a bit of a crank, as is shown by certain restrictions he imposed upon some of his endowments. By his will, natives of Scotland, of Ireland, or of the Plantations could not fill particular offices endowed by him. Legislation, however, has annulled those restrictions.

All libraries of repute should possess the admirable catalogues issued by the Clarendon Press, and especially that of the Rawlinson Collection of MSS., which is sold at the price of ten dollars, but, to students, is worth its weight in gold. Inquirers living in the United States can there learn of the materials for history awaiting employment. It is not necessary to cross the Atlantic to get copies of the documents, for there are persons in Oxford who, for a modest charge, will make all transcriptions required.

D. D.

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Orders of Privy Council, etc., on an appeal in Allen *v.* Waldron, 1701-8 (*copies*), C. 379. 6b—12.

List of papers relating to his pretended title to New Hampshire, C. 128. 6.

Allett, Rev. Thomas Bond to go as chaplain to Virginia; 2 Apr. 1718, B. 376. 141.

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Notes of grants to planters in Virginia, Newfoundland, etc.; *temp. Jac. I.*, B. 309. 163b.

Ecclesiastical papers, C. 933; Papers of Corpor for prop. of Gosp. in N. England; 1649 56, C. 934. Act for promoting the Gosp. in N. Engl., 1649 (*printed*), *ib.* 1. Letter from the Commrs. of the Colonies to the Corp. for prop of Gosp., *ib* 40. Account of goods supplied to the Commrs. by the Corp.: 1651-2. *ib.* 44, 48, 50.

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Instructions for the commander of an expedition against the Dutch settlements in the Manhattoes: 165–, A 36. 109.

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The market prices of provisions in Old and New England compared. A. 185. 263.

Commission of Ch. II., appointing a Council for the American Plantations; 30 July, 1670, A. 255. 140. Instructions for the Council, *ib* 145. 150.

Accounts of conferences between Indian Sachems from Canada and the Commissioners for Indian affairs at Albany; June and July, 1700, A. 272. 98, 100.

Draft of a clause in an Act for preserving the pine forests, C. 933. 159b.

A Bishop desired; 1720. C. 933. 135. Petition from a Bishop of London to the Crown respecting the powers of his commissaries and the maintenance of ministers, C. 933. 166. Notice of a letter from the Bp of London to the clergy of New England; 1724, C. 151. 170.

Engraved map of part of N. America, C. 281. (*end*).

Clergy in America; see the miscellaneous papers of bp John *Robinson*, *passim*.

Anne (Queen). Allowances to Colonial Clergy, Foreign Chaplains, &c., C 933 164.

Archdale, John, Governor of Carolina Questions respecting Carolina addressed to him, B. 243. 12

Army. Reasons why clothing for the soldiers at New York should be made up in England, A. 238. 110.

Warrants for Payment for the company serving at Newfoundland; 16 June, 1705, A. 238. 180.

Arnold, Sion, a pirate. Copy of a pass granted to him by the governor of New Jersey; 12 Aug. 1699, A 272. 56 (see 75).

Ashby, John, Capt. of H.M.S. the Rose. Instructions for him on being sent with land forces to Virginia; 20 Nov. 1676 (*copy*), A. 214. 108.

Abstract of his journal in the Rose. A 185. 299.

Aspinwall, William, Boston, New England. Speculum chronologicum; a chronology of the Scriptures; 1652. B. 156.

Astwood, John, New England. Signature; 1652, C. 934. 41, 45.

Atwood, W., Chief Justice of New York. Letters to J Champante; 1702-9. A. 272. 161, 243.

Ballantine, John. Certificate that he is Clerk of the Peace, co. Suffolk, prov. Massachusetts; 1720, C. 128. 23.

Baron, Rev. Robert. Bond that he will go as chaplain to Maryland; 23 June, 1714, B. 376. 52

Basse, col Jeremiah, governor of New Jersey: *v.* Coote Rich, E. of Bellamont.

Letter to E. of Bellamont, gov. of New York; 17 June, 1698 (*copy*), A. 272. 7. —— to Capt. Nanfan, lieut. gov. of New York; 30 May, 1699 (*copy*), *ib.* 35. Pass granted to a pirate (*copy*), *ib.* 56 (*see* 75). Appointment of a committee of the H. of Representatives of N. York to consider a petition from him; 12 Feb. 1699, *ib* 80.

Basse *or* Bass, Jeremiah, Secr. of Prov. of New Jersey. Signature; 1713, C. 933. 91.

Bayard, *or* Byard, colonel Nicholas: *v.* New York.

Creates disturbances at New York; 1702, A. 272. 142, 151.

His case to be heard before the Queen in Council; 30 Apr. 1702, *ib.* 157.

Bell, T. Journal of the work of fortifying St. John's, Newfoundland; 1697, C. 873.

Bennett, Richard, Governor of Virginia. Letter from R Bennett and S Matth to Thurloe, respecting Maryland; 10 Oct. 1656, A. 43. 87. Objections against Lord Baltimore's patent for Maryland, etc., *ib.* 93. 97. Order to him from Cromwell to forbear disturbing Lord Baltimore's colony in Maryland; 12 Jan. 1654; with a further letter thereupon (*copies*), *ib.* 101, 103. Resolution of the Council of Virginia upon the foregoing order; 28 June, 1655, *ib* 105 Breviat of the proceedings of Lord Baltimore, *ib.* 107.

Boston, New England. Order of the Council allowing Capt. Gookin to publish to the people proposals for transplantation to Jamaica; 7 Mar. 1655 6, A. 38. 267. Letter from the Governor, etc., of N E to Cromwell, on the foregoing proposal; 23 Oct. 1656, A 43. 125

Brabant, Henr , Comptroller of the customs of North Carolina. Letter to Rod. Mackenzie; 3 Aug. 1699, A. 312. 2.

Bradstreet, Simon, New England. Signature; 1652, C. 934. 41. 45.

Butler, Peter, Boston, New England. Representation from the Council of State to the Spanish amb in his behalf; 19 Sept. 1653, *Lat., and transl.*, A. 6. 320, 322 [*v. sub nomine in Ind., supra*].

Butts, Laurence de. Bond that he will go to Virginia as chaplain; 22 June, 1721, B. 376 265.

Calvert, Family of. Notice of pedigree and arms; 1679, B. 74. 3b

Campbell, Duncan, New York. Bill of exchange payable to him, drawn by the gov. of N. York; 1700, A. 272 109. Letter to J. Champante; 3 Dec. 1701, *ib.* 134.

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Draught of the forts, B. 243 15.

An act for the better ordering of slaves; 1701, C. 155. 273. An act for enlisting trusty slaves; 1708, *ib.* 279.

Questions relative to emigration there, by French refugees. C. 934. 217. 228 questions respecting the province, on behalf of an intending body of Lutheran settlers; 1705. B. 243. 12.

Representation of eccles. affairs in South Carolina; 1713, C. 943.

Admiralty proceedings in South Carolina about the ship "Ludlow;" 1717. C. 385

Testimonial from 18 members of the French church at Charlestown to their minister P. L'Escot, on his leaving them; 14 March, 1718-9, B. 376. 154.

Champante, John, junior, Agent for the Province of New York. Papers collected by him relating to the province of New York; 1697-1715, A 272. Appointed agent for the province; 1699, *ib.* 60. Re appointed agent; 1715, *ib.* 275. Persons recommended by him for the Council of New York, *ib.* 290. Petition to Will. III. for payment of the Earl of Bellamont's salary, *ib.* 293, 302. Petition to Q. Anne in behalf of Capt. Nanfan, *ib.* 300. Appointment as receiver of the Earl of Portland's rents; 1714, A. 290. 79.

Letter to Capt. Nanfan; 10 Apr. 1703, A. 272. 201. Letters to Col. A. de Peyster; 1707-10, *ib.* 237, 248b, 257b. —— to Roger Mompesson; 1707 10, *ib.* 239, 240, 245, 258b. —— to Adolphus Philips, 1707 10, *ib.* 245b, 257. —— to his sister Kate; 30 Dec. 1708. A. 238. 117. —— to Messrs. Staats and Governeur; Nov. 1709—Nov. 1710. A. 272. 245b, 247, 259, 260. —— to John Collins, *ib.* 246, 260. —— to Col. R. Hunter; 25 Feb.-Nov. 1710, *ib.* 250, 261. —— to Rob. Wallers; 8 Nov. 1710, *ib.* 256b. —— to Franc. Harrison; 9 Nov. 1710, *ib.* 257b. —— to Jac. Regnier; 1710-11, *ib.* 248b, 256, 262. —— unaddressed; 5 July, 1711. *ib.* 264. —— to Capt. Lawson; 8 May, 1715, A. 238. 131.

Compton, Henry (Bishop of London). Draught of Commission to a Commissary in America; 1697. C. 933. 7.

Coney, Peregrine, rector of Middle Neck, Maryland. Appointed commissary of the Bp. of London; 1697, C. 933. 7.

Connecticut. Petition to Charles II for a renewal of the patent of the colony, A. 175. 109. 176. 113.

Coote, Richard, Lord Coloony, first Earl of Bellamont. Grant to him and others of all captures of pirate vessels, etc., made by capt. W. Kidd in America; 27 May 1697, A. 241. 251.

Conferences with some Mohawk Indians respecting land in New York; 1698, A. 272. 16, 18. Order thereupon. *ib.* 28. Extract from a letter from him to the Commissioners for Trade respecting Col. Basse's proceedings in New Jersey, and Every the pirate; 1 July 1698, *ib*, 22. Instructions to Thos. Weaver appointed agent in England for New York and for the earl's private affairs, *ib.* 26. Instructions for Capt. Nanfan as lieut. gov. of New York; 25 May,

1699, *ib*, 32. Letter to John Champante; 6 Sept. 1699, *ib*. 60. Letters to the Commissioners of Trade on the affairs of New York; 1699 1700 (*copies*), *ib*. 62, 69, 75, 76, 102. Bills of exchange drawn by him on Sir John Stanley; Nov. 1700, *ib*. 108, 9. Reasons for suspending col. Thos. Willet from the Council, *ib*. 288. Petition (by his agent J. Champante) to Will. III for arrears of his salary, *ib*. 293, 302. Notes of points urged by his counsel in justification of his claim of jurisdiction over East New Jersey, *ib*. 298. Complaints by Lord Cornbury of his mal-administration at N. York, C. 984. 133^{b}, *et seqq*.

Coxe, Dr. Daniel. Conveyance of land in Carolina or Florida from him to French Protestant refugees; 1698 (*copy*), A. 271. 26. Grant to lord Maltravers, on which Coxe claimed in Norfolk co., Virginia; (*copy*), *ib*. 30.

Description of the province of New Jersey; with proposals for the sale of his lands and rights therein, etc., C. 128. 39-47.

Sketch for the government of a colony first called the New Empire, drawn up for him, A. 305. 2.

Lived in Charles Square, Hoxton, C. 441. 42.

Cranfield, Edward. Commission from Chas. II. to be governor of New-Hampshire (*copy, unfinished*), C. 379. 14.

Delaware, North America. Memorial from the people of Sussex county to the Bp. of London for a minister, C. 933. 169.

Digges, Edward, governor of Virginia. Letter to Cromwell; 29 June, 1655, A. 27. 783 (*see* 43. 105).

Letter to him from Cromwell; 8 Oct., 1655 (*copy*), A. 261. 55^{b}.

Dudley, Colonel, Gov. of New Hampshire. Letter to the Council of Trade; 23 July, 1702 (*copy*), C. 128 14, 16.

Eager, Thomas. Bond that he will go as chaplain to New England; 23 Apr., 1712, B. 376. 15.

Endecott, Thomas, governor of New England. Signature; 1656, A. 43. 125.

Fountaine, Peter, B.A., Dublin, son of Rev. James Fountaine. Certificate of his birth and baptism in 1691, B. 376. 86. Testimonial for orders from the archbishop of Dublin; 1715, *ib*. 88, 89.

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French Protestants. Account of relief afforded in England to refugees, in 1700-'01, and of their settlement in Virginia, A. 271. 7-38.

Franklin, William, Boston, New England. Order from Cromwell to the Commissioners of Customs in his favour; 6 July, 1655 (*copy*), A. 261. 50.

Gotherson, Major Daniel. Letter to Matthew Prior; 15 Sept. 1663, A. 175. 114.

Covenant with Col. J. Scott for the quiet possession of land in Long Island; 11 July, 1662 (*copy*), A. 175. 128. Other instruments between Gotherson and Scott respecting the same estate; 1662-3, *ib*. 131 7.

Gotherson, Dorothea Scott, widow of Daniel. Petition to the King respecting some dealings with col. J. Scott for land in Long Island, A. 175. 112. Informations respecting her case, *ib*. 119, 126. Indenture with col. F. Lovelace constituting him her attorney for the management of her Long Island estate; 2 Nov. 1667, *ib*. 139. Letter to Thomas Lovelace, *ib*. 140. —— to Francis Lovelace; 15 June, 1669, *ib*. 144. Answers to 13 questions from Pepys concerning Scott and her dealings with him, *ib*. 147. Copy of the questions, A. 194. 125^{b}.

Gray, Samuel. Receipt for 20*l*. granted on his going as chaplain to Virginia; 3 Dec. 1689, A. 306. 73

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Letter to J. Champante; 5 Oct. 1710, A. 272. 255.

Hooper, John, clerk to the Corp. for Prop. of Gosp. in N. England; *v*. Cludd, Edward.

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Howard, Henry Frederick, lord Maltravers, afterwards Earl of Arundel. Copy of a grant to him of the co. of Norfolk in Virginia; 22 Jan, 1637, A. 271. 30.

Hudson's Bay. Observations on the effects of cold at Hudson's Bay in 1741, 2, A. 344.

Hudson's Bay Company.

Charter of incorporation; 2 May, 1670, A. 295, 26. Copies of seven statements and replies on the part of the English Company and the French Company of Canada, with reference to their conflicting claims; *c*. 1687, *Fr*., B. 250. 33^{b} 53^{b}.

Hunter, Colonel Robert. Appointed Governor of New York; 1709, A. 272. 245, 6. Described in the *Tatler*, no. 69, under the name of Eboracensis, *ib*. 245^{b}. Letter to J. Champante; 23 July, 1715, *ib*. 275.

Hyde, Edward, lord Cornbury, afterw. third E. of Clarendon; gov. of New York. Proceedings against Capt. J. Nanfan of N. York; 1702-5, A. 272. 83. Complaints against his government, *ib*. 159, 161. Suspends three members of Council; 9 June, 1702, *ib*. 163. Order prohibiting the departure of the Countess of Bellamont and Capt. John Nanfan; 5 Oct. 1702 (*copy*), *ib*. 171. Extract from a letter from him to the Commissioners of Trade; 12 Dec. 1702, *ib* 174. Letter to the same, on Lady Bellamont's accounts; 7 Oct. 1703 (*copy*), *ib*. 194. Warrant for arrest of Capt. Nanfan; 19 May, 1703 (*copy*), *ib*. 204. Notice of an official report on his letters touching the accounts of the Earl of Bellamont and Capt. Nanfan; 1706, A. 289. 188.

Letter to Bp. Compton respecting affairs at New York; 1702 (*imperf*.), C. 984. 133. Letters to Bp. Robinson; 1712-1719, A. 286. 177. B. 376. 169.

Johnson, Zachary, *i. e*. H. Manning, *q. v*.

Johnston, ——, Commissary of Bp. of London in S. Carolina. Representation of eccles. affairs in S. Carolina; 1713, C. 943.

Johnston, Gideon. Bond to go as Chaplain to S. Carolina: 1714, C. 393. 67.

Kidd, Capt. William, a pirate; *v*. Coote, Rich E., of Bellamont.

Runs away with a French ship in 1689, from St. Christopher's, A. 270. 1. Depositions at New York respecting him; 1699, A. 272, 47. 48, 52. Orders of the Council of New York with reference to him; Aug. 1699, *ib*. 58, 59. Claim in the Court of Admiralty on the part of some Persian merchants to goods seized from Kidd and condemned as pirates' goods, B. 383. 543-545.

Lawson, Deodat, minister at Boston, New England. Diatribe de sessione Christi ad dextram Dei, C. 879.

Letter to Jer. Dummer and Henry Newman; Lond., 24 Dec. 1714, C. 128. 12.

L'Escot, Paul, French minister at Charlestown: *v*. Carolina.

Recommended for ordination for the French church at Dover; 1719, B. 376, 171. Certificate of examination, *ib*. 172^{b}.

Leverett, Capt. John, Governor of Massachusetts. Letters to Cromwell; 1654, A. 16. 52. 18. 58. Letters to Capt. John Scott; 1663, A. 175. 110, 113.

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The *Leavett* to Virginia; 1698-9, C. 872. 1.

Two voyages in the *Bristow* to Virginia; 1699-1701, C. 872. 42, 76.

The *John* to Virginia, etc.; 1700-1, C. 965. 21.

The *Harrison* to Virginia; 1701-2, C. 967, 45.

Lovelace, Col. Francis, Governor of New York: *v*. Gotherson, D. Prior, M. Wren, M.

Indenture, constituting him attorney for the management of Mrs. D. Gotherson's estate in Long Island; 2 Nov. 1667, A. 175. 139.

Lovelace, Thomas: *v*. Gotherson, D.

Letter to Pepys; 15 July 1680. A. 173. 184. Petition to the duke of York, *ib*. 185. Account of his losses in the colony of New York, *ib*. 186. Letters of recommendation from Pepys on his behalf; 1680, A. 194. 185^{b}-187^{b}. Information respecting Mrs. Gotherson's case; 12 July, 1680. A. 175. 119.

Ludlow, Robert, New England. Signature; 1652, C, 934. 41, 45.

Correspondence.

THE AGRICULTURAL DEMAND FOR MORE MONEY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have been a subscriber to the *Nation* so long—more than fifteen years, I think—and a constant reader more than twenty-five years, ever since I was a schoolboy, that, for many reasons, though I have not the honor of your personal acquaintance, I regard you as my stanch friend. More particularly is this true, as I have all these years considered the *Nation* as the best of American journals, and when in doubt, or when difficult political, financial, or other questions were before the minds of the people, have always deferred to it, and invariably found it correct, and unquestioned by fair minds in its positions. In the last Presidential canvass it was masterful. If I am not right politically, financially, and in other ways, you are most to blame for it, as you have, through the columns of the *Nation*, been my teacher.

Now can I interest you somewhat, through me, in my immediate section of the country in a financial way? We are needing money to do business. Many farmers have money locked up in the bank-vaults; they really do not know what to do with it; but there is not, by any means, enough of that, even if they knew how to lend it, to supply the needs of the community, which is a comparatively new one, and as a farming section is very fertile, and is destined to be, in the near future, one of the foremost agricultural regions in the country. It now yields per acre, in its yet primitive development and crude culture, from twenty to forty-five bushels of wheat and from fifty to seventy-five bushels of corn, and other cereals and crops of the middle temperate zone in the same high proportion. Fruits, berries of all kinds as fine as anywhere, all kinds of stock, can be raised and fattened here as profitably as anywhere. We have land that will grow grapes as fine as any in Steuben County, New York, or anywhere in the grape region. No stones, or gravel, or sand to contend with. The soil on the undulating surfaces is a rich dark loam, and underlying it a firm yellow clay that holds the fertilizers and prevents their waste. The level or "bottom" lands are a deep alluvial deposit, inexhaustible and easily drained. We are sixteen to twenty miles from the Mississippi River, whose waters can at no time come any nearer, because of the bluffs and hills between us and the river near its bank.

Even the crops raised to fertilize the soil, peas and red clover, pay as well when harvested in their use and sale as the other crops. So there is always a profitable inducement to keep the soil in good tilth. This section is getting better every year; no such thing now as failure in crops; invariably plenty to spare to pay any debts contracted, over and above the needs of the community.

Can you put me in communication with parties who would lend money in this section? I can easily show any one there is absolute safety; no community could be better in paying debts. Money lends here at 8 and 10 per cent. per annum, and the bank rate is about 1 per cent. a month. The legal rate is 6 per cent. No question about the land titles. The people are as frugal, industrious, and law-abiding as anywhere in the Union. I never knew any trouble about enforcing a mortgage debt. I cannot call to mind any foreclosure on land if the party kept his health; and there is no healthier section anywhere.

I have seen this country from Minnesota to Mississippi and Missouri to Massachusetts, and no section I have seen can surpass

this in the ease and certainty of acquiring a competency. So there can be no doubt about meeting, with regularity, any mortgage debt or interest. This, like all new countries, with great agricultural advantages, needs capital to develop it rapidly. The silver craze is subsiding, never to trouble us again in our day, and the people in these parts are now ready to go to business, thanks to the thorough campaign of education.

The editor of a periodical such as the *Nation* is, can have a great influence wherever he may choose to exercise it. I should be highly gratified if you could be interested in our section. Lend your influence in binding us by financial links to the great city; it has a plethora of capital; we need some of it. A. M. HANCOCK, Attorney.

UNION CITY, TENN., November 4, 1897.

[All that Mr. Hancock says about the condition of his part of the country is undoubtedly true. But his ideas about banks and their functions seem to indicate that he has not, in common with a large number of others even here, sufficiently considered the subject. Banks are enterprises started everywhere all over the world, since the close of the Middle Ages, for the purpose of making money, just like opening a dry-goods store or a restaurant. They make this money by using the money of depositors, in conjunction with their own, for the purpose of discounting bills, and buying securities for the purpose of selling them again at a profit. But it has been found by long experience that they cannot safely lend money without security, and that the security they lend on must be realizable *immediately*, in case the loan is not paid at maturity. Consequently banks of discount do not lend money on land, because the security is not realizable at once, and may not be realizable for years. For this reason farmers in all countries have long been clamorous for banks, and have never yet been successful in getting them, because the only security they can offer is land which cannot be sold, and cattle which may disappear, and crops which may fail.

This question has long been known in France, and made a great deal of rumpus under the name of "crédit agricole." Every now and then there is a proposal both there and here, that the Government should be compelled to establish country banks at the public expense, and lend money to all citizens without security. What the farmer needs, even more than money, as a silver statesman remarked some years ago, is "collateral." Now, business men will establish banks in no place where there is no collateral. In vain you tell them about the prosperity and productiveness of your region. They will coldly answer, "Have you plenty of collateral? Are there among you plenty of men to borrow, whose credit is such that they will be sure to pay on the day named, or who can put up securities which we can sell at a moment's notice?" Mr. Hancock may be assured that if this is true of his region, he will find any number of men to establish a bank. The sole reason why banks do not exist in any locality is that the number of borrowers who have credit and collateral is not large enough to make them pay. Bankers are not philanthropists. Show them, not that you would like a bank, but that a bank in your neighborhood can make money by the ordinary banking business, and a bank you will have, without any introduction or inquiry from us.

An effort, and a very successful one, has been made in Italy, and is being made in Ireland by Mr. Plunkett, the member for South Dublin, to meet this difficulty of "crédit agricole," or farmers' banks, by starting coöperative banks, which substitute moral for collateral security. A certain number of farmers, who "have money locked up in the bank vaults," form an association which jointly is probably able to borrow some more capital, as an investment, if they need it. They start a bank and make loans to their neighbors, but each borrower's application is considered by the whole corporation with reference to what they *know* of his character. He has to tell what he wants the money for, and it has to be a productive enterprise, and his business and moral character have to be such as to convince the bank that he will keep his engagements. In this way a farmer of good character who wants money for business purposes, and has shown himself capable, rarely fails to get it. But it is not a regular banking business, for the bank does not lend to anybody whom it does not know well. We do not see any other way in which farmers' banks can be established, and we advise our correspondent to write to Mr. Horace E. Plunkett, 104a Mount Street, London, for his experience and documents. A good many such banks are working successfully in Ireland.—ED. NATION.]

PENNY WISE, POUND FOOLISH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The price cotton is selling for is a great disappointment to the South. It was not anticipated, as consumption and production were close on each other's heels, and the stock on hand was of extremely meagre proportions. Judged in the light of past experience, it looked as if the crop would bring two cents per pound more than it is now bringing. However, in the factors that formerly fixed the price of cotton, one element differs now, and to this difference, in the estimation of many, is due the low price now ruling.

The difference consists in the way the bulk of the cotton crop is now marketed as compared with the method in vogue seven or eight years ago. Formerly the crop was marketed through the cotton factor in the cities of the South. Now it is done largely through the local buyer at the "cross-roads" depot. The advent of the local buyer was hailed with great rejoicing. The farmer could then sell direct to the "spinner buyer." The cotton factor would be eliminated as a useless expense, and the one-half cent per pound cost of marketing saved. In the light of recent events it looks as if the farmer had to a considerable extent accomplished his purpose of saving the two and one-half dollars in commissions and charges, and lost ten dollars per bale in the value of his cotton; a delightful bit of rural financiering.

Formerly the crop was concentrated in the large cotton centres with cotton factors. It was in strong and comparatively few hands. The higher the price of cotton, the better it was for both factor and grower. Factors having control of the spot cotton, declines in price could often be successfully resisted and advances in values maintained. How different the conditions now! The cotton is scattered in the hands of many, many thousand cotton-farmers, each marketing his cotton alone and without reference to the other; in the hands of parties mainly who are in debt and must sell their cotton to pay the country merchant's store-bill.

The thousands of little railroad stations each has its little local buyer. Each country buyer is a force continually acting to lower the price of cotton. He is either endeavoring to get the farmer to accept the extremely low bid of the shrewd spinner at a price that will net the buyer twenty-five or fifty cents a bale, or he is flooding the different markets with telegraphic offers, wildly endeavoring to pluck orders from his almost innumerable competitors. The number of offers alone causes the amount of cotton offered to be largely magnified. In many instances the local buyer is impecunious, and has adopted cotton-buying after having failed in every other line. This has, however, not prevented him this year from selling ahead thousands of bales of spot cotton, which it would be impossible for him to deliver were the market to advance. He can readily do this, as he has nothing to lose; and if the market goes his way, as it has done, he is so much the gainer.

During the present crop the price has been put down notch by notch by the enormous offers of spot cotton by these local buyers, in spite of the fact that the size of the crop is purely prospective and the actual movement is smaller than with the crop last year, a crop which, although a large one, lacked three hundred thousand bales of supplying consumptive requirements.

That cotton should bring the best possible price is a matter of national concern. Many schemes have been proposed for marketing the crop, but, on account of the large area of territory involved and the number of parties in interest, nothing feasible has been proposed. Laissez-faire must be trusted to bring a solution of the problem.

W. COLLIER ESTES.

MEMPHIS, TENN., October 26, 1897.

THE THORVALDSEN MUSEUM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A recent number of the *Berlingske Tidende* of Copenhagen contains a communication that should be of interest to American art lovers and technicians. It is sent out by a committee, of which the architect, F. Meldahl, is the chairman, to which has been intrusted the restoration of the decorations on the outer walls of the Thorvaldsen Museum. These pictures were executed

at the time the building was erected, a few years after the death of the sculptor, and represent the most important events of his life. For a number of years it has been felt that some steps would have to be taken to prevent the obliteration of the colors, and in order to reach the best results this committee calls upon technical experts throughout the world to offer suggestions. All persons able and willing to assist in this important undertaking are requested to communicate with the committee under the address, "The Thorvaldsen Museum, Copenhagen, Denmark." Prompt attention will be paid to all such communications, and any required information as to the present condition of the decorations and the manner of their original production will be freely given.

Yours respectfully,

DANIEL KILHAM DODGE.

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS, November 6, 1897.

MONS PILATUS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of November 4, 1897, Mr. Edwin W. Fay, of the Washington and Lee University, gives us an etymology of Mount Pilatus on the Vierwaldstätter See, deriving the name from *mons pilleatus*. This etymology has long been known to and accepted by scholars: it is to be found in any reliable book on "Deutsche Volksetymologie" of recent years. Thus, in Andresen's 'Ueber Deutsche Volksetymologie' (Heilbronn, a.-N., 1883), p. 27: "Der Berg *Pilatus* in der Schweiz heisst nicht nach dem bekannten römischen Landpfleger, obgleich die Sage sich auf ihn bezieht, sondern ist der *Pilatus* (der Behutete)." Early commentators derived the word from *pila*, often used to denote a mountain-pass; scholars are now agreed, however, that it is from *pileus*, a hat, referring to the mighty cap of clouds which usually covers its bald summit completely. Hence the old French couplet:

"Quand Pilate a mis son chapeau,
Le temps sera serein et beau."

The Germans have another name for this same mountain, namely, "Frakmont," from *mons fractus*, indicating its rugged and broken aspect. There is an interesting article in *Bentley's Miscellany*, i., 608, on the above-mentioned mountain.

Respectfully, EDWARD MEYER.

WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY,
CLEVELAND, OHIO, November 6, 1897.

Notes.

The lectures which Prof. T. K. Cheyne of Oxford is now delivering in this country at various colleges and elsewhere, on 'Religious Life and Thought among the Ancient Hebrews in Post-Exilic Days,' will form the third volume in the series already begun with Prof. Rhys-Davids's 'Buddhism' and Prof. Brinton's 'Religions of Primitive Peoples.' The publishers will be G. P. Putnam's Sons.

'The Story of Gladstone's Life,' by Justin McCarthy, and 'The Social Mind and Education,' by George E. Vincent of the University of Chicago, are in the press of Macmillan Co.

Fleming H. Revell Company will shortly publish, in connection with John Murray, London, 'Korea and her Neighbors,' by Mrs. Isabella Bird Bishop, with numerous photographic illustrations and two new maps.

'In Tune with the Infinite,' by Ralph Waldo Trine, is to be issued by T. Y. Crowell & Co.

The Whitaker & Ray Company, San Francisco, will have ready next month the Complete Poetical Works of Joaquin Miller in one large volume.

Smith, Elder & Co., London, are just bringing out 'The Autobiography of Arthur Young,' with selections from his correspondence, by Miss Betham-Edwards. Two portraits and many unpublished letters enhance the value of this work.

George Redway's autumn list includes 'Reminiscences' of Miss Betham-Edwards; a new translation of Voltaire's 'Candide,' with introduction and notes by Walter Jerrold and sixty-two vignettes by Adrien Moreau—in a limited edition; 'The Morality of Marriage, and Other Essays on the Status and Destiny of Woman,' by Mrs. Mona Caird; and 'The Story of Our English Towns,' by P. H. Ditchfield.

The fifth edition of Prof. Saintsbury's 'Short History of French Literature,' to be soon issued by H. Frowde for the Clarendon Press, is marked by thorough revision, especially in the section on the nineteenth century.

Those interested in the history of the exploration of Australia in the first half of the seventeenth century, and of the doings of the Dutch East India Company of that time, will be glad to learn that the long-promised work upon Tasman may be confidently expected to appear early in 1898. The recently discovered Journal of Tasman's discovery of Van Diemen's Land and New Zealand, in 1642-43, signed by Tasman himself, with fifty-three drawings and charts, will be reproduced by photolithography. A word-for-word translation of the Journal into English will be given, and of the letters of instructions for the voyages of 1642 and 1644. It has been revised by Mr. Coote of the British Museum, an expert in cartography. Tasman's own observations with the compass will be given. A very valuable memoir of the Life and Labors of Tasman will be supplied by Professor J. E. Heeres, who possesses exceptional knowledge of the colonial archives at The Hague. Four large reproductions of charts of Tasman's exploratory voyages in 1634, 1639, and 1642-44 will form part of the work, which Muller & Co. of Amsterdam will publish. Those who desire a copy of this luxurious work can have it on payment of £6 sterling.

In recognition of his valuable historical work, Mr. George McCall Theal, LL.D., historiographer to the Government of Cape Colony, has been elected by the Council of the Royal Colonial Institute, London, to be an honorary fellow of that society. Dr. Theal's 'History of South Africa' is a standard work. Its author has been for many years settled in South Africa, but is at present in London, charged by the Cape Government with the duty of scanning the records of the British Museum and the Public Record Office for papers illustrative of the history of South Africa. The extent to which the Colonial Government has been amassing papers connected with that part of the world may be gathered from the fact that between five hundred and six hundred volumes of copies of old records have been sent from The Hague alone to the Cape. Dr. Theal is a native of the Dominion of Canada, whither his family, who were loyalists, removed from the United States, and it is more than two hundred years since their progenitor removed from England to North America.

Little more need be said of the four-volume edition of Rousseau's 'Confessions,' published in London by Gibbings & Co. and in Philadelphia by Lippincott, than that it is handy in form and well printed. It is a patchwork upon the anonymous English version of a hundred years ago, and so far an improvement; but no translation will supply the peculiar charm of the original, in which the style is in the highest sense the man. A few illustrations (besides a portrait) have been inserted, reductions from the ten-year-old designs of Maurice Leloir; and there is an index of names which is passable. But an analytic index is the boon which a not indolent editor might have earned gratitude for, and we ought at least to have had a table of contents. There yet remains to be made an edition of the French, annotated from all the other biographical sources of this author, and even then for the true character we should have to go also to the correspondence.

The 'Works of Rabelais' have nothing intrinsically in common with the foregoing, but are issued by the same publishers in five volumes, following the version of Sir Thomas Urquhart and Peter Motteux, and have the same merit as specimens of bookmaking.

'Shakespeare's London,' by T. Fairman Ordish (Macmillan), appears to be the introductory volume to a new series, to be entitled "The Temple Shakespeare Manuals." Its scope is rather less than might be inferred from the title, embracing little more than a somewhat rambling attempt to explain the background of the scenes in Shakspere's plays which are laid in London. A few, but far too few, illustrations add to the interest of the book. An outline map of old London is especially needed. Attention disproportionate for a "Manual" is given to recent theories of the allegory of contemporary life and politics in Shakspere's plays. In style and arrangement the book is neither sufficiently lucid nor sufficiently entertaining to be altogether successful. The student may more profitably consult the pertinent chapters in the larger works of recent date on the London of old, by Wheatley, Loftie, or Besant, or even the original descriptions in Stow or Harrison.

The fall trade is bringing out the usual number of picture-books. First in order of time and easily first in order of merit is Boutet de Monvel's 'Joan of Arc' (The Century Company), the quality of which should not be judged from the black-and-white reproductions that have appeared from time to time in the *Century Magazine*. This artist's style is essentially decorative, and his line is but a skeleton for his color. What seems, in black and white, the ultra simplicity and almost affected naïveté of his drawing, reveals itself in the colored prints as the appropriate boundary of his exquisitely selected and balanced tones and colors; and the result, though between the covers of a book, is truly mural and even monumental. It is interesting to compare some of these drawings with the treatment of similar themes by Mr. Abbey in his "Holy Grail" series in the Boston Public Library, and to remark how the American artist, notwithstanding his ability and the great merits of

his work, remains, conversely to his French confrère, the illustrator of books, even when painting vast compositions upon the walls of a noble building. The story of Joan is simply told for children in the accompanying text by M. Boutet de Monvel himself.

'An Alphabet,' by William Nicholson (R. H. Russell), introduces to the American public an artist of a very different type, whose portrait of the Queen, in a style similar to these drawings, had a great vogue in England during the Jubilee celebration. Mr. Nicholson affects the manner of rude early wood-engraving in which outline, light and shade, and local color are all indicated by and merged into fat, flat blacks. The crudity of contrast is then overcome by the use of broad tones of brown or gray over the whole surface, and there is an occasional note of red or blue to enliven the somewhat sombre pages. These twenty-six drawings, from the "Artist" at the beginning to the "Xylographer" and the "Zoölogist" at the end, vary much in quality, some of them being richly decorative and some almost stupid; but the coloring, in its deadened, Whistlerian key, is nearly always good. The "Flower Girl" and the "Trumpeter" may be mentioned as two of the best, and the "Urchin" as one of the least interesting, of the series. Judged by a short experience in one family, the book is remarkably and somewhat unexpectedly successful in its appeal to children—especially to very young children.

From the same publisher comes another work, whose appeal is to the elders, or at least to "boys" rather than to "children"—a collection of 'Drawings by Frederic Remington.' In a short note "Concerning the Contents" Mr. Owen Wister eloquently sets forth the truth to life of Mr. Remington's cowboys and soldiers and Indians, and this may be accepted as expert testimony on the matter.

We confess ourselves unable to discern in 'Phil May's Graphic Pictures' (Routledge) the merit that has been found by many in that artist's work. His drawing is undoubtedly accurate, but to us it seems neither humorous nor beautiful, but simply commonplace, while his manner is inflexible and lacking in charm.

The Macmillan Company are the New York agents for 'Portrait Miniatures,' by George C. Williamson, Litt.D., the latest addition to the "Connoisseur Series," published by George Bell & Sons, London. The book, besides some hints to "the amateur collector," contains a history of miniature painting in England from Holbein (1531) to Sir William Ross (1860), and a briefer account of foreign miniaturists and of the present revival of miniature art in England. Naturally there is no mention of American work of to-day, some of which is of excellent quality. The book contains very good collotypes, process cuts, and woodcuts of more than a hundred and eighty well-chosen miniatures; and an examination of them throws light on the curious difference between merit and reputation. Holbein and Cooper are indeed great names as well as great artists, but Cosway, whose name dominates the eighteenth century, and who may almost be called *the* miniaturist *par excellence* in popular opinion, is, as an artist, vastly inferior to such less-known contemporaries as George Engleheart, Ozias Humphrey, or William Grimaldi. The sub-title is "A Handbook for Collectors," and the work should prove useful in that capacity.

The Century Co. have reproduced in book form Mr. La Farge's delightful 'Artist's Letters from Japan,' with the original illustrations that appeared with them when they were running in the *Magazine*. The letters gain in interest, read consecutively, but they are still somewhat desultory, and the book is not one for the searcher for information. Mr. La Farge writes always as the artist, more interested in colors than in facts, and much of what he has written is an attempted record of visual impressions, charmingly done, but not always quite successful in reproducing the thing seen to another's eyes. There is always a subtle and flexible style, and there is a good deal of philosophizing and suggestive criticism by the way, some of which is of real value. Part of the chapter on "Japanese Architecture," which deals with the whole question of right and wrong methods in art and what art is, may be especially recommended as wholesome and stimulating reading for students of art, and even for many professional artists who may be in danger of forgetting the truths Mr. La Farge teaches. They are truths which have been attempted to be enforced again and again in these columns, though with less distinction of manner, and Mr. La Farge is almost as good as Fromentin in his treatment of them. More than this it would be difficult to say.

Mr. F. C. Selous, the well-known African sportsman and traveller, puts a low estimate on the agricultural value of Rhodesia in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for October. The superficial area of that part above the fever-belt (4,000 feet) and accordingly adapted to European colonization, is approximately 26,500 square miles; but, whatever the fertility of the soil, the cost of transport to Europe will prevent the cultivation of any agricultural product for export. The two great evils under which the country is suffering at present are the rinderpest, which has practically destroyed all the cattle and large game, and the locusts, which for seven years have made agriculture well-nigh impossible. These evils Mr. Selous believes to be temporary and not likely to recur for many years, possibly centuries. A useful orographical map adds to the value of the article. Prof. W. M. Davis of Harvard University discusses the relations of the winds to ocean currents. His conclusions are that the "surface currents are ruled by the winds," but that the movement of the deep water is probably due to oceanic convection. This is followed by an account, by Prof. R. E. Dodge of this city, of what has been done recently to improve the teacning of geography in our schools.

The water on the Banks of Newfoundland is the subject of an article by Dr. G. Schott in *Petermann's Mittcilungen*, No. 9, which is accompanied by an interesting series of six maps showing the direction of the warm and cold currents, the temperature of the surface water in February and in August, the extent of the floating ice, the percentage of fogs, and the steamer-routes from January to July and from July to January. Other articles are a physical description of Tierra del Fuego by Dr. O. Nordenskjöld, with a map, and the conclusion of Dr. Fischer's investigations into the geological development of Italy.

Medical journals are countless as leaves in this country, but the rapid growth of interest in pure science in recent years has at last made necessary (in the opinion of its promoters) the foundation of an American journal devoted solely to Physiology. The first number of the proposed journal will appear in January; the editors will be Bowditch of Boston, Chittenden of New Haven, Howell of Baltimore, Lee of New York, Loeb of Chicago, Lombard of Ann Arbor, and Dr. V. I. Porter, No. 688 Boylston Street, Boston, to whom the subscription price of five dollars should be sent.

The *Monist* has begun its eighth year with a very engaging list of contributors, past and future. This journal, which is devoted to the discussion of the fundamental principles of scientific inquiry, fills a most useful office, and is an instance of how much can be done by the devotion of a single individual, if he is an editor, to add to the amount of intellectual work which is brought to the light in a given country. Dr. Paul Carus is deserving of the earnest support and encouragement of those who believe in furthering intellectual pursuits. The October number of the *Monist* reprints Prof. Eimer's Leyden address on Orthogenesis, by which he means definite evolution occasioned by organic growth. Prof. Mach expresses his adhesion to the view that the ear, which, in its several parts, is now known to be the organ for orientation as well as for hearing, had the former of these two functions for its original one, and that even so high up in the animal scale as in fishes, hearing, as a distinct sensation-quality, does not exist.

In the face of the agitation which has been carried on by well-meaning persons who have succeeded in making instruction regarding alcoholism compulsory in several States, it is extremely desirable that the physiologists *von Fach* should tell us distinctly just what science has to say regarding the deleterious effects of alcohol in small quantities, and to what extent the argument in favor of total abstinence can be made sound. Children are peculiarly keen at detecting any forcing of the note in the incentives which are put before them towards virtues of any sort, and there is an intellectual honesty which it is of more importance to propagate than abstention from alcoholism. It is therefore a matter of importance that the Committee of Fifty has commissioned Prof. Hodge of Clark University to make a thorough study of the subject. Prof. Hodge's discoveries regarding the immediate and marked effect of alcohol on nerve cells have made it natural to regard him as an expert on the subject.

The Quarterly Statement for October of the Palestine Exploration Fund contains the final report on the excavations at Jerusalem by Dr. Bliss, and a description of portions of the great mosque at Damascus by Mr. Dickie and Mr. R. P. Spiers, illustrated by numerous drawings to scale. This building, which was nearly destroyed by fire in 1893, is now being slowly restored. Col. Goldsmid makes an interesting statement as to the increased number and improved condition of the Jews in Palestine. "Where there were three little needy colonies [in 1883] there are now over a hundred, some of which are nearly self-supporting, and the output of wine in the Jewish colonies is something enormous at the present time."

Seven years ago we called attention to the merits of Gottfried Keller as a story-teller, and it is with interest that we note

the appearance of one of his best-known tales in the October-December number of *Poet-Lore*. The editor, however, is in error in accepting, and confirming, the statement of *Cosmopolis* that no translation of his work had ever appeared in English. The same tale, which is here given in an abridged form, was published in the *Century*, a high-class weekly of New York, in the issues for August 23 to September 13, 1860. In 1885 a three-part tale, "The Flag of the Seven Upright Ones," appeared in *Outing*.

The Society of Natural and Economical Sciences of Palermo has resumed the publication of its *Giornale*, six years having elapsed since the appearance of volume 20. The twenty-first volume contains seven papers, including a continuation of Gammellaro's account of fossils from the Sosio valley.

—If any settlement of the Bacon-Shakspere question were possible, Mr. John Fiske's entertaining 'Forty Years of Bacon-Shakspere Folly' in the current *Atlantic* would dispose of it. The difficulty is, as any one can see who reads the history of this curious narrative of delusion, that the gift of weighing literary evidence is not coextensive with that of reading and writing, nor even with that of a very high degree of general education. One of the oddest facts in the story is that one of the books produced to prove the case for Bacon was written by a judge who was also a lecturer on evidence; yet he would probably have passed on the question (had it come before him judicially) with perfect sanity, because, in that case, he would have felt forced to allow himself to be governed by the weight of authority, which is all one way. Outside the articles in this number which may be regarded as instalments of books, one of the most valuable papers is F. J. Stimson's "Democracy and the Laboring Man." He shows that during the last ten years some 1,639 laws have been passed in the various States and Territories affecting laboring interests. Of these, 114 specific statutes have been declared unconstitutional, while "of the forty-three lines of action in which legislation has been essayed, the constitutionality of no less than twenty-three is, mildly speaking, in doubt." If we assumed that each court decision was right, and would be followed in other States, 56 per cent. of the whole legislation would turn out invalid. This cannot be presumed, especially as the courts of all the States do not take the same view of the same law. But, according to any test, an immense proportion of the legislation has been upset. If we inquire on what ground, the answer is in nine cases out of ten that the Legislature has attempted to give the laborer special privileges, or to interfere with his actions, or the actions of employers, in his peculiar interest. Hence these statutes, when they have not been set aside as interfering with rights of contract or property, have been nullified by the courts as invasions of individual liberty; all this activity of the Legislature representing tyranny against which we have to struggle as our ancestors struggled against the tyranny of their day. A more shocking exposure of the modern Legislature has never been made. The invasions of liberty which it describes stand, the reader will notice, not so much for that tyranny of the majority which Socialism would introduce, provided the majority favor it, as for the corrupt influence over the legislative body of a special class. Nine-tenths of the laws would probably never have commanded a majority vote of the electorate had the question been thoroughly canvassed.

—The *Century* for November prints the report of an interview extraordinary with the Sultan of Turkey, by Hon. A. W. Terrell, late United States Minister at Constantinople. It is virtually a communication from the Sultan to the American public. There is nothing in it of much importance or novelty, except some significant evidence that Mr. Terrell knew that the later Armenian massacres were to be set on foot some time before they actually occurred. He quotes from a letter of his written in December, 1895 (U. S. For. Rel., Pt. II.), in which he declared that as early as August of that year he had been convinced that "the so-called reforms would, when announced, be followed by a massacre of Armenians." He was led to this conclusion, he says, by reflection on the Ku-klux outrages in the South at the close of our war, following upon "enforced reforms," but he evidently had better warrant for his foresight than this, because he says that it was "known here that at least one of the Powers would not consent to the use of force to make the reforms proposed for the benefit of the Armenian race effective." And so, in advance of the massacres, he "demanded and obtained," on October 21, "telegraphic orders to every civil and military chief in the Ottoman Empire to protect American missionaries." Abdul wishes it to be known that he does not "have it in his nature to be wilfully cruel." "Thus," says Mr. Terrell naïvely, "does this isolated ruler, who is regarded by very many persons as a throned assassin, give utterance to the noblest sentiments." An article on Mrs. Julia Margaret Cameron, by V. C. Scott O'Connor, gives some interesting reproductions of her famous photographic portraits. The heroic "Story of Chitral" is told in all its details by Charles Lowe.

—In *Harper's* an illustrated article by Richard Harding Davis gives an amusing and at the same time sad account of the Greek soldiery. "The New Japan" is the subject of an intelligent but not very informing article by Toru Hoshi, Japanese Minister at Washington. If Japan is to become one of the family of nations, the questions which need to be answered are not merely historical or diplomatic, but legal; and on the most elementary questions of common right the article throws no light. We are reminded that Japan has a "constitutional" form of government, and that in 1899, by virtue of the recent treaties, for the first time in history an Oriental nation will be received by Christian Powers on a footing of perfect equality. So far as the relations of the United States with Japan are concerned, the treaty, which was negotiated during Mr. Cleveland's second term, bears out the statement of the article. Ex-territoriality goes by the board, and for the protection of Americans in Japan we are to look in future to the Japanese Government, exactly as in the case of Americans in England we look to the English. George Wharton Edwards gives an illustrated account of "The Pardon of Sainte-Anne d'Auray in Brittany," a festival which for the day revives or perpetuates the old Catholic peasant world in that out-of-the-way corner. Primitive Brittany is not so accessible in reality as it looks on the map, and on most days of the year the local costume is little worn; but on the occasion of a Pardon the scene is bright with color, and while the ceremonial is Catholic, there are certain accessories, especially the sacred fountain or spring and the surrounding sylvan-terraced hillsides, which take the spectator back to still more primitive times and worship, before there was any Catholic religion or French language.

—William Allen White, in *Scribner's*, gives an account of "The Business of a Wheat Farm," which exhibits by text and illustrations the present condition of agriculture in the far Northwest. What will strike everybody is the picture of Adam's occupation turned into a modern industry carried on on a great scale with capital, machinery, and the complete subordination of the original husbandman to the conditions of a new economical cosmos. In fact, in the process the original husbandman, farmer, agricultural laborer, and peasant, attached to the glebe, for life if not by inheritance, has disappeared, and in his place we have a quantity of "hands," hired for the ploughing or the reaping, who may for the occasion camp on the territory which embraces the "farm," but who have very little more vital connection with it than the hands of a factory or a railroad with their particular mill or line. Perhaps the most curious thing in the article is that the author evidently thinks the present system not necessarily final. The average farm in the Red River valley is a property of 7,000 acres, but as the land has been taken up the price has increased, and this is a temptation to sell. "Hence one finds the large farms gradually crumbling." But the fact that the work is so extensively done by machinery, one would think, would tend to a régime of large farms, in the long run, in that part of the world, more strongly than any rise in value could tend to break them up. "No Continuing City," by Blanche Willis Howard, is a painfully clever story, which recalls the pathos of a situation made familiar by Dickens, but now not much in use by writers of fiction. William B. Bigelow has an article which is worth examination on "The Country Church in America." It has many illustrations of typical churches. As for exterior design, the writer comes to the conclusion that "there is no peculiarly American church architecture." The characteristically American churches of an earlier day, such as the New England meeting-house, are rapidly disappearing before a species of art too eclectic to be called national.

—Blue Hill Observatory, near Boston, founded in 1885 by Mr. A. Lawrence Rotch, and liberally maintained by him ever since, has given more attention to cloud study than any other institution in the United States. Personal estimates during the day, and automatic photography of the stars at night, have furnished a long record of local cloudiness. Certain high and uniform cloud strata are measured at night by the light reflected upon them from cities; the angle is found which the illumination makes with the horizon, and, the distance of the city being known, the right-angled triangle is solved. Lower clouds are studied by kites bearing self-recording instruments. Cirrus is judged to be, on an average, about 29,000 feet high, but is sometimes found as high

as 49,900. Cumulus, on the other hand, is often less than a mile above the earth, although thunder-shower clouds sometimes reach into the cirrus region. Nimbus (rain cloud) is but 2,300 feet in altitude. The velocities at which these various clouds move are also very different. Generally the high cirrus travels about eighty-nine miles an hour, but in winter this speed occasionally rises to the surprising rate of 230 miles, the entire atmosphere moving twice as fast in winter as in summer; and at altitudes between two and nine miles an almost continuous westerly current of great speed prevails. Changes in barometric pressure, air temperature, and humidity with height are even more important in the science of the weather, and these are now most accurately found by elevating delicate instruments by means of large and powerful kites. With winds varying from fourteen to forty miles an hour, about 130 records have been made, many times at heights exceeding a mile. At such elevations both cold and warm waves are shown abruptly, and long before they are felt below; and in fair weather the days are damp, the nights dry—the reverse of surface conditions. So the upper air is now sounded by devices similar to those of Lord Kelvin in reaching abysmal depths of the ocean, and within the past three weeks the observers at Blue Hill have secured perfect records at vertical heights exceeding two miles, or rather more than 11,000 feet.

—An interesting instance of the elusiveness of scientific researches is furnished in a paper by Sir William and Lady Huggins, recently presented before the Royal Society and since published in full. It had long been known that certain two lines of the spectrum of calcium were remarkably conspicuous in the chromosphere and prominences of the sun, appearing when the other lines were hardly visible at all. To account for this it had been suggested that the lines did not belong to calcium, but to some hitherto undetected impurity (as argon in nitrogen), or else that calcium was itself (after the hypothesis of Lockyer) a compound substance, and that it became dissociated at certain temperatures. But the observations of the above-named investigators have shown that it is solely a question of the density at which the calcium gas is examined, and they have produced in their laboratory, and photographed, a spectrum of calcium in which other lines are almost entirely wanting. The discovery may prove to be one of great importance, because the calcium spectrum in its different phases can very likely be used as a criterion of the density of stellar atmospheres. Why density should be the quality to play so important a part, it is difficult to understand.

—Don Pascual de Gayángos died in London on the 4th of October, in his eighty-ninth year. Those familiar with the historian Prescott's works will remember the frequent acknowledgments made by that author to Don Pascual, who collected materials that were used in the writing of the histories of 'The Conquest of Mexico' and 'The Conquest of Peru.' Don Pascual's life-work was, in fact, to a great extent the collecting, the calendaring, and the indexing of historical manuscripts, and in these labors he was employed, not only by private individuals, but by the authorities of the British Museum as well. For the latter he prepared the valuable calendars of the Spanish manuscripts in the Museum, which cover nearly 3,000 pages of letter-press. Before his engagement with Prescott, he had already been employed by an American gentleman who was collecting documents relating to the history of the United States. Among the private undertakings Don Pascual carried out was that for a wealthy London wine-merchant named Cosens, who believed that fresh light might be thrown upon the life of Shakspere by documents preserved in Spain. To this end Gayángos copied a vast number of papers from the archives of Spain, among them the dispatches of the Count of Gondomar, when Ambassador in London. When Mr. Cosens died, his heirs, who did not set much store upon the collections, put them out to sale, when the British Government secured a portion at a great bargain. American students will find them in the Public Record Office, London, beautifully calendared and indexed. It is from this collection that Major Martin Hume has drawn some of the fresh details that appear in his recent 'Life of Sir Walter Ralegh.' Gayángos translated into Spanish Ticknor's 'History of Spanish Literature.' Among his other works was 'La Gran Conquista de Ultramar,' and a translation into English for the Hakluyt Society of 'The Fifth Letter of Cortes to the Emperor Charles V.' His death was the result of being knocked down in the street by a horse.

THE LIFE OF ALFRED TENNYSON.

Alfred Lord Tennyson: A Memoir. By his Son. In two volumes. The Macmillan Co. 1897.

No biography has for many years past been expected with so much curiosity and interest as this one. Tennyson was (unless an exception is to be made for Ruskin, who has been silent for many years) the last great literary man who used the English tongue. There is not now, either in Great Britain or in America, any poet high even in the second rank, and no prose-writer in the first rank. Tennyson had, moreover, so outlived all his eminent contemporaries (except Mr. Gladstone) as to have become a somewhat strange and mysterious figure to the new generation in both countries. No one remembered him as a young man. No one could recall the impression which his early poems made. To everybody he had been already famous from the time when they first began to care about poetry. Besides, he led an extremely secluded life, hated publicity, hated even to be seen by passers-by when he took his twilight walks on the down above his house at Freshwater, so that less was known regarding his appearance, character, and habits than in the case of any other person who approached him in eminence.

These two volumes, if they do not fully satisfy the curiosity of those indiscreet people who want to know everything about the great, give quite as much as needs to be known by those who desire to connect a poet's life with his verse, and to understand the conditions under which his genius worked. In general, a near relative makes a bad biographer, because he can seldom see his subject in due perspective, and because he—and still more she—cannot becomingly set forth a comment on those flaws which go to make the truth of the picture even where they are mere foils to surpassing excellence. Despite these difficulties, the poet's son, the present Lord Tennyson, has performed his task with great skill, judgment, and taste. There is hardly anything inserted which a fastidious critic could wish removed—one or two of the letters from the Queen are perhaps the only exception; and while the domestic life of the poet is given fully enough to make it real to the reader, five-sixths of the two thick volumes is devoted to tracing the development and illustrating the working of his poetic faculty.

Tennyson's life was not an eventful one, and almost the only dates that stand out like milestones along it are those that mark the publication of his greater works. He was born in 1809, that famous year which, besides Mendelssohn and Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes, ushered into the world Abraham Lincoln, Charles Darwin, and W. E. Gladstone. His father was a Lincolnshire clergyman, a man of marked character and a considerable scholar; and the poet would seem to have drawn his intellectual gifts more from his father than from his mother, for the latter is described as a woman of singular sweetness and gentleness rather than of any conspicuous talent. Both he and his brothers "lisped in numbers." Charles and Alfred published their first volume of verse when the elder was only eighteen and the younger (Alfred) only seventeen, and, strange to say, they obtained one hundred dollars for it from a local bookseller. At nineteen Alfred went to Trinity College, Cambridge, but left it before taking his degree, being recalled by his father's weak health. Of his life there less is told than one could have wished for. The university at that time contained a group of men more distinguished than either it or Oxford has since seen, eight or nine of whom attained deserved and permanent fame, and Tennyson was looked upon by them all as the most brilliant genius among them; Arthur Hallam as the most winning and gracious personality. A tender reciprocal devotion united these two from the first. But though most of the group continued to maintain their friendship with one another, it does not appear that Tennyson was much affected in character or opinions by any one except Arthur Hallam. His own individuality was too strong to be moulded by others, and maintained its own well-marked lines through the whole of his career.

From boyhood, or at any rate certainly from his college years, he had felt poetry to be his vocation. Though his private means were slender, he seems never to have thought of entering any profession. Poetry, like music and painting, is an art in which the special gift makes itself very early felt, and it may be doubted if any one has ever attained high excellence in it who did not prove his gift before he was twenty-five. The volume entitled 'Poems, Chiefly Lyrical,' which he published in 1830, when twenty-one, was enough to prove his gift to be real; that published in 1832 (including "Oenone," "The Lotos Eaters," "The Lady of Shalott," "The Palace of Art," and "The Dream of Fair Women") placed him at once at the head of all the poets of his generation, and contains some work which he never afterwards surpassed. Looking back after more than sixty years, one is amazed that the extraordinary merit of these poems should not have been immediately recognized by cultivated people, as it was by the little Cambridge group. But nearly twenty years were to elapse before Tennyson's appointment as

Poet Laureate, after the death of Wordsworth in 1850, made his name familiar to the general public in England; and his American popularity came still later.

In 1837 or 1838 he became engaged to Miss Emily Sellwood, but it was not till 1850 that his circumstances permitted him to marry. His wife was a woman of singular refinement and charm, and their wedded life was one of unclouded happiness. In 1845 Sir Robert Peel had advised the Queen to grant Tennyson a pension of £200 a year; and within the four following years the sale of his poems had so far increased that it became possible for him to maintain a household. After 1850 his income from his books steadily increased, and from 1860 onwards he had no need to think about money. In 1853 he went to live at Farringford, near Freshwater in the Isle of Wight, and in 1868 he built a house at Aldworth on the top of Blackdown, a lofty hill near Haslemere in Surrey, and thereafter spent his time between these two country-seats, with occasional short trips to the continent of Europe. He died in October, 1892, having enjoyed good physical health through nearly his whole life, and retained his intellectual powers to the last. His latest volume of poems was published in the year of his death, at the age of eighty-three—an almost unparalleled instance of the prolongation of poetical power into extreme old age, for of the other great poets who have passed threescore and ten, which indeed not many have done, Sophocles is perhaps the only one who, according to the famous anecdote about the "Oedipus Coloneus," retained his gift in all its fulness.

There are not many letters of the poet's in this Life, for of the earlier ones few seem to have been preserved, and in his later years he wrote extremely few. Those printed are admirable, and more helpful to a comprehension of his character than the Reminiscences printed in the appendix. Of these reminiscence articles, those written by Mr. Myers, the Duke of Argyll, and the late Mr. Jowett are interesting, but two others are injured by the intrusion of the writer's personality, and one of these two, that by the late Mr. Tyndall, adds so little that it might with advantage be omitted in future editions. On the other hand, all that the biographer himself records—conversations with friends and opinions delivered by his father (such as the criticisms on Milton) —is admirably given, and makes us wish for even more of the same kind. Of the personal recollections happily introduced here and there through the book we have found those contributed by Edward FitzGerald and Aubrey de Vere, together with Mr. Sidgwick's remarks on the impression produced by "In Memoriam," the most interesting.

As already observed, it is in the history of the poet's mind and opinions, in the explanation of his modes of working and his self-criticism, that the chief interest of such a Life as this is to found. The biographer has most wisely devoted great pains to this branch of his task, giving us so much matter that is both new and instructive as to make it hard to select any parts for special notice. Four topics have, however, struck us as of eminent and peculiar interest. One is the opinions Tennyson held on religion. Another is his method of composition. A third is the origin of the several chief poems, *i. e.*, the conception or suggestion whence each sprang. A fourth is the poet's own judgment and taste in poetry.

The religious sense—that is to say, the impulse to look to and turn to a higher power—was strong in Tennyson from his childhood; and though he early divested himself of the dogmatic forms in which Christianity had been taught to him, he clung all his life to the belief not only in the existence of a Deity, but in the divine government of the world. His mind was incessantly occupied, from early manhood onwards, by the problems which the advance of physical science had raised. In the days between 1833 and 1845, when he was composing at intervals (and at first with no thought of publishing them) the poems afterwards entitled "In Memoriam," he had already begun to muse on these problems, and nothing in this Life is more interesting than the account given of the way his mind played round them, dramatizing the various moods through which he passed and the phases of doubt or hope that successively emerged. Somewhat later, he began to study metaphysics more regularly than before, and to read a good many scientific books. Neither of these influences altered the settled tendency of his mind. In old age he seemed more than ever concerned at the growing scepticism of the age. It cast a shadow over many hours, yet his own convictions did not falter. There are few of his later poems in which his disquiet at the decline of faith and his own belief in the power and guiding hand of a personal Deity are not indicated.

Being a man of very simple tastes, loving nature and quiet, indifferent to so-called sport and the other dull amusements of his social class, averse to city life, and not drawn to any kind of practical work, because he felt that his own gifts lay in a different direction, he was able to devote the whole of his time to reading and thinking and musing. The gift of versification came so naturally to him that to reflect meant almost necessarily to compose verses, and this spontaneous fertility would have been dangerous but for the extreme fastidiousness of his taste. He criticised his own work as closely, and with almost as much detachment, as the work of another, constantly rejecting what he had composed, recasting it, or polishing it to a higher finish. No other great modern has taken so much pains to revise his work in new editions, so that many of the best-known poems are now, in the later issues, very different from what they were in the earlier ones. It was a habit—it was, indeed, almost an instinct—with him, when some impression or thought flashed into his mind, to turn it at once into verse, and often to write down and lay aside the line or lines which he had thus struck off, keeping them till some fit occasion should arise for using them. One remarkable instance is given (vol. i., p. 218) of three magnificent lines in "Vivien" which were thus composed at a visit to the caves of Ballybunnion on the west coast of Ireland, composed in 1842 and incorporated in "Vivien" fifteen years afterwards. These two volumes contain a good many hitherto unpublished poems—some never used because they were alternative versions of poems published; some because their author thought them scarcely good enough. Their quality approves the poet's judgment, for none among them reaches the level of his best work; yet many have the charm of graceful thought and melodious rhythm, and a few may deserve to be included in future editions of the 'Opera Omnia.' One of the finest, which well deserves to be so included, consists of some stanzas (given on p. 120 of vol. i.) written for the "Palace of Art."

Of the many interesting facts stated regarding the growth and development of the larger poems, we have space to note one only. "Maud," which Tennyson himself always rated highly, and which it always pleased him to find any one genuinely appreciate, grew out of a single poem, that which begins—

> "O that 'twere possible,
> After long grief and pain,"

and was, so to speak, written back from that piece, which (it will be remembered) comes near the end of the book. There is in the Life a short but instructive analysis of "Maud" from Tennyson's own pen, intended by him to correct some of the common misunderstandings of the poem. A curious account, too long to be abridged here, is given of the way in which the Arthurian Legend had occupied his thoughts from early youth, and of the various ways in which he had proposed to handle it. Of all his poems, none embodies so much of his philosophy of human life as the "Idylls of the King," and none shows more strikingly the change that passed on his poetical style.

Lastly, this biography contains a large number of critical dicta, most, and the best, of them by Tennyson himself, some others by the friends who surrounded him. The bard's own preferences are clearly marked. Besides Shakspere, whom he regarded as an almost superhuman intellect, he honored Milton most among English poets; next to him Wordsworth and Keats. "There is something of the innermost soul of poetry in almost everything he [Keats] wrote." He used to say in early life that he doubted if he should ever do anything as good as Keats's "St. Agnes's Eve." Among the older singers, he especially loved Homer, Virgil, and Dante, and never ceased reading them. Byron he put comparatively low, calling him "endlessly clever, but not an artist or thinker in the higher sense." Among American poets he held Edgar Poe to be, "taking his poetry and prose together, the most original American genius." However, the value of these literary judgments lies so largely in the quotations which illustrate them that they suffer by detachment from their context. The lover of poetry will find these volumes rich both in the light they throw on the workings of an intensely poetical mind, and in the profusion of acute critical observations scattered through them. There is hardly a page in which one fails to find something that deserves to be remembered.

One is struck all through the book by the way in which Tennyson's poetry was his life. He thought of nothing else; or, rather, all that he thought of turned itself into matter for poetry. He needed nothing else to occupy his mind and time. Whether he travelled or read, whether he smoked alone in his upper chamber or wandered at night beneath the stars, he was always absorbing impressions which he turned as naturally and instinctively into musical verse as a plant breathes carbonic acid and turns it into vascular tissue. The fertility of his genius and the ease with which he composed would have been formidable enemies to excellence. But he was happily no less an

artist than an inventor, and his power of self-criticism was joined to a noble diligence in seeking to bring all the work he put forth as near to perfection as he could bring it.

The reader, who feels in every page that this biography is written with the reverence as well as the intimate knowledge of a son, may, perhaps, ask what were the shadows on a character which is here presented in so favorable a light, and may distrust the picture because it does not show the shadows. If he does this he will err. Against the many noble qualities which Tennyson's career showed him to possess, there are really no serious defects to be set. He was so direct in manner as sometimes to appear brusque, and, therefore, rather formidable to strangers. He was all his life over-sensitive to criticism to an extent extraordinary in one who had reached a position of such undisputed preëminence. But he was not vain, though, like Dante and Wordsworth, he knew when he had done a thing well and was not afraid to say so; nor was he jealous, for no one was more ready to acknowledge the excellence of other men's work, no one more free from petty spites and hinted disparagements. He was upright, simple, honest, truthful, affectionate, a hater of injustice and cruelty, a friend to all good causes, a man who lived his life in the spirit of his own poetry, and retained, all through, the uninterrupted love and respect of those who had known him in his youth. There is nothing in the picture of this life, so full of tranquil dignity, more beautiful than the friendship which united him to three of the greatest of his literary compeers, Thomas Carlyle, Robert Browning, and Edward FitzGerald; nor do any records of those three men's lives set them in a more attractive light than what we find here as to their relations with Tennyson. The friendship of Browning and Tennyson, as we have it here set forth, deserves to take its place beside the friendships of Virgil and Horace, of Goethe and Schiller, of Wordsworth, Coleridge, and Southey. Such instances show how far from being generally true is the judgment expressed in the familiar phrase, *genus irritabile vatum*. There was a strong dash of melancholy in Tennyson's character, which produced in him moods of depression faithfully reflected in his poetry. But apart from this, and from the two great sorrows of his life, the death of Arthur Hallam in 1833 and the death of his son Lionel in 1886, his life was serene, as should be the life of a great artist, consecrated to the work in which he excels, honored in his own time, and destined to the crown of undying fame.

TWO BOOKS ON SPAIN.

Across the Country of the Little King. By William Bement Lent. Bonnell, Silver & Co.

In Northern Spain. By Hans Gadow. London: Adam & Charles Black.

Mr. Lent's title is not such as to prepossess one in favor of a book; nor is the prejudice created by it removed by its contents, which are in harmony with the title. It is possible to write a book on the most beaten paths in Spain and yet find plenty of new things to say. Mr. Lent follows these paths, but he saw only what the most commonplace "personally conducted" tourist would notice, and his style is that of the most rambling domestic letter-writer. Even in a private letter one would hardly look for such literary slovenliness as that which makes the author run on from p. 30 to p. 38 without a break or a paragraph. The volume is adorned with a dozen illustrations.

A very different sort of book is Mr. Gadow's. It takes us into mountainous regions of Spain of which the ordinary tourist does not even know the existence, and where Spanish life may be studied in its unadulterated mediæval backwardness. Once Mr. Gadow took a peasant companion to Riaño, where the latter for the first time saw a telegraph wire.

"The *guardia* at once ventured to explain the meaning and working of the telegraph. 'If I want to speak to my chief in Madrid, I go into that house to the postmaster. He makes click (accompanied by manual demonstration), click, click, and they have my message in Madrid.' 'Then the wire must be hollow?' 'No, you stupid, it is done by electricity.' Poor Miguel, he did not even say, 'Oh, I see,' but shook his head and thought Riaño was a very queer place."

Among the curiosities carried off by our author was the shoulder-blade of a cow which he found hanging inside a shop, and which had been used for writing down memoranda—an Arabic practice only recently superseded by the use of slates. All the older people in the mountains, from Galicia to the Basque provinces, had learned to do their sums upon such *huesas* (a word specially coined from *hueso*, bone). Mediæval also, or rather Oriental, was the custom Mr. Gadow found prevalent in the schools of teaching children their lessons by making them repeat sentences over and over again in chorus until the sound (though perhaps not the sense) had become familiar to them. Postal affairs, again, he found in a more primitive condition than even in the cities of southern Spain. A letter addressed to John Smith, Esq., is quite as apt to be put in the pigeon-hole marked J. or E. as that marked S.; so Smith has one chance in three of getting his letter when he asks for it. Once, at Potes, the author came across a letter addressed to a gentleman living in a town near Santander. He asked why it had not been sent to that place, to which it was addressed. The answer was, "That man is a *compatriota* of yours, a foreigner, at least, is he not? Well, numbers of strangers come to Potes, and he is as likely to turn up here as at Cabezon." Even at San Sebastian, Mr. Gadow was once compelled to seek the assistance of the consul to compel the postmaster to disgorge a letter for him which he knew must be there.

On the other hand, these primitive mountaineers have learned the use of modern dynamite to help them fell their hard gnarled trees which it takes days to bring down with an axe. The Government, in view of recent anarchist plots, has forbidden the sale of dynamite, and in the cities it would be dangerous to ask for it; but in the country you can get as much as you please. The men carry the cartridges about in their pockets, and one day Mr. Gadow was horrified to find that his muleteer had secreted two of the red sausage-like sticks in his (the master's) saddle-bags! In one respect these Spanish peasants were even found to be ahead of the rest of the world. They have learned to make cocks hatch eggs and look after the chickens, while the hen, being at liberty, can and does lay more eggs than she would if hampered by her maternal duties. The trick is performed in this way: They carefully pluck the feathers off the rooster's under-side, and the bare skin is then irritated with nettles until inflammation sets in. The cock soon finds that the pain caused by this cruel process is mitigated by warmth and softness, and this makes him willing and eager, although for purely selfish reasons, to hatch a brood and let the little chicks sit under him. It is even said that he emits the hen's clucking sound, but this *on dit* was not verified by the author.

Spain, like California, is in the popular mind associated chiefly with oranges and other products of warm climates; but, like California, it has every possible variety of climate and scenery. Who has ever heard of the Deva pass? Mr. Gadow says of it: "There is not a pass anywhere else in Europe to which this one yields the palm in grandeur and extent. Certain valleys in Norway . . . are flanked by higher mountains, and others in Switzerland are perhaps as grand, but here we have a pass about thirteen miles in length, every few yards of which bring new surprises of never-flagging sublimity." On the range near Oviedo, he says, "in the previous winter snow fell in such masses that it reached to the roofs, and the people were obliged to dig tunnels from their doors into the roads." In such regions the chamois are apt to be at home; our author repeatedly hunted them, and his experiences, graphically related, will interest sportsmen. The beaters demand only forty cents a day and find their own food. But not all these mountaineers are so modest in their demands. One day Mr. Gadow gave a boy a copper for catching some insects. The next day a maiden, who looked like a milliner, came in with a whole bandbox full of beetles, grasshoppers, and flies. To get rid of her he offered her a peseta (sixteen cents), but she flared up and wanted at least a dollar. "There are so and so many *bichos* in the box; you gave twenty centimos to my brother for less than one dozen; this makes one duro, and that without the box." When he told her to take her box and insects away, she grew vicious and wanted to be paid at least for the insects that had escaped into the room!

The natives of this part of Spain are by no means as polite as they are in the south. In Andalusia, an attempt to browbeat or to rebuke would be fatal—politeness alone makes an impression there; whereas "our sad experience has taught us that if you want anything at all from a Galician, be he a miserable shopkeeper in the Sierras, or be he agent of a line of transatlantic steamers, you must 'go for him' from the beginning; make yourself as disagreeable as possible." But these are not true Spaniards; their language, at least, is more like Portuguese than like Castilian. With all their rude manners, the humblest of the mountain peasants are apt to be very sensitive in regard to a supposed slight. One day, noticing that his beaters had only bread and cheese with them, the author cut his piece of ham in two and with a "Catch!" threw it over. "Neither of them caught it. They only looked astonished, and, with a bitter smile, one of them remarked, 'As at a dog!'" The Spanish language, with its charming diminutives, lends itself admirably to fine distinctions in the matter of etiquette and address—a reproach, for instance. To call a man a *burro*, a donkey, plain and simple,

would be resented as an insult. *Burrico*, or little donkey, is comparatively inoffensive; but to convert the thing into pleasant chaff, you must call him *un gran burrico*, a big little donkey. Another advantage of the Spanish language is pointed out on p. 67:

"It is wonderful how well the Spanish language is suited for shouting and for communication across enormous distances. Many a time have we beheld two natives asking for and receiving information at a distance which would effectually bar any understanding in English, German, or other eminently consonantal idiom. *Anda á la derecha* is bound to carry further than 'Go to the right.'"

Something might be said for plantation long-distance English in the mouths of the Southern blacks.

Mr. Gadow had his kodak with him, and his volume is illustrated with ninety pictures. The appendix contains over fifty pages of valuable notes on the fauna and flora of northern Spain; but why an author who otherwise shows such good taste should have padded his volume needlessly with a forty-page condensed history of Spain, passes comprehension.

Varia. By Agnes Repplier. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1897.

Two essays out of the nine included in this collection—"Little Pharisees in Fiction" and "From the Reader's Standpoint"—have already had a month's immortality in the magazines, and are here reprinted with their fellows. The latter essay insists on the obvious right of the reader to choose what he shall read, and of the writer what he shall write, in spite of Mr. Hamlin Garland and the critics. We have met with the same contention in much the same language in an earlier volume of Miss Repplier's essays, entitled 'Our Friends, the Books.'

The touch of Miss Repplier's hand is as light as ever, her sparkling gayety has its wonted edge, her method of composition has not changed. It is in respect of this last that she chiefly fails to live up to her nickname, "Little Miss Lang." Amiable flippancy, light-hearted irresponsibility, and a neat gift of expression she certainly has in common with the author of 'Essays in Little.' But Andrew Lang's fine carelessness of manner is as a glove under which you feel the hard metal of solid classical attainments—the scholarship that shows itself in the turn of a phrase, a half-quotation, an allusion that may be wholly lost on the uninitiated reader. It is the secret of Andrew Lang's irritating charm. The results of Miss Repplier's great literary industry lie on the surface. You can—and what is worse, you must—track out step by step the special course of reading pursued for each essay. For Miss Repplier, essay-writing is still an entertaining little game, in which you take a score or so of quotations from authors too little read, and, having shuffled them, stop the gaps with sparkling comment of your own. Miss Repplier manages the transitions with considerable skill, but the skill is too obvious to be art. The general effect of such an array of authorities is of all sail and no anchor. Yet we are convinced that Miss Repplier has chosen the literary type that best "sets her genius." It is a sad pity that one whom Nature cut out for an essayist should spoil herself in the making. There is a well-invented story of Pindar which we commend to Miss Repplier. Korinna the poetess had reproved him for neglecting to use myths in his odes. Pindar took the hint, and his next poem fairly bristled with mythology. Whereupon Korinna said, with a smile, "One should sow with the hand and not with the whole sack."

It is perhaps because it is necessarily free from quotations bearing the label of Dr. Johnson or the Ettrick Shepherd that the essay entitled "The Fête de Gayant" is one of the most pleasing of the nine. In this tale of Miss Repplier's experiences of French towns, and especially the town of Douai, *en fête*, there is such charming humor that one can almost forgive that slipshod use of the present tense in narrative which is one of the mint-marks of a lady's composition. "Old Wine and New" is a spirited defence of the infusion of "mere literature" into history in defiance of Prof. Seeley's warning to historians to keep to "blue-books and other statistics." In "The Deathless Diary," Miss Repplier, in the course of copious quotations from diary-keepers ranging from Pepys and John Evelyn to Maurice de Guérin, thus apostrophizes "those who hunger and thirst after the glories of the printed page":

"O writers of dull verse and duller prose, quit the well-worked field of fiction, the arid waste of sonnets and sad poems, and chronicle in little leather-covered books the incidents which tell their wondrous tale of resistless and inevitable change. Write of electric motors, of bicycles, of peace societies, of hospitals for pussy-cats, of women's clubs and colleges, of the price of food and house rent, of hotel bills, of new fashions in dress and furniture, of gay dinners, of extension lectures, of municipal corruption and reform. . . . These things do not interest us profoundly now, being part of our daily surroundings; but the generations that are to come will read of them with mingled envy and derision—envy because we have done so little, derision because we think we have done so much" (p. 47).

This excellent advice would be well timed if there were the smallest chance that the writers thus exhorted would recognize themselves in Miss Repplier's category of "those who have nothing to say which anybody wants to listen to now."

"The Eternal Feminine" is a carefully supported refutation of the popular fallacy that the "new woman" has innovated on her great-grandmother. We are not sure that the "new woman" will feel flattered by the implication that, like other paradoxes of this generation, she will become a platitude of the next, but Miss Repplier's evidence certainly goes to show that the misunderstood pioneers of female progress need only wait for two or three generations to become proverbs for domestic industry and true womanliness. Miss Repplier's English is terse and epigrammatic as usual, but she should remember that colloquialism is a dangerous instrument to play with. Imagine Andrew Lang's using such a phrase as "By the time I got that far back" (p. 186)! A loose construction of which Miss Repplier is too fond is illustrated by "So old we shall have mastered" (p. 185). In "Lady Somerset" (p. 131) we imagine that we meet Lady Henry Somerset in her customary American disguise.

The Italians of To-Day. From the French of René Bazin. Translated by William Marchant. Henry Holt & Co. 1897.

This book is not, as the title suggests, a complete study of contemporary Italians. It is just a group of sketches and notes of travel by an exceptionally clever observer; yet in its own class it is quite an ideal book for cultivated readers whose tastes are not particularly specialized. It contains four short articles, various in character and treatment, on North Italy, Rome and the Campagna, Naples, and a "corner of Sicily"—this last mainly an account of an expedition to Ætna in eruption.

Mr. Bazin writes in an easy, simple, offhand style, with a Parisian's true sense of measure, and never fails to be interesting. There is not a dull page in the whole book. With perfect tact the author passes from description to dialogue, from dialogue to statistics, from statistics to personal observation and acute comment, never dwelling on any point so long as to weary the reader, yet never giving the impression of frivolity. Kindly sympathy, rare freedom from prejudice, good judgment in the choice of subjects, are joined to a catholic interest in everything worthy of an educated curiosity. In the north of Italy he discusses literature and politics; in Rome he inquires into the history of the recent financial disasters and the ancient problem of the Roman Campagna; Naples suggests to him the appropriate subjects of pauperism and the "jettatura," while the south of Italy brings up the difficult question of underpaid labor and consequent emigration. His fairness and readiness to hear both sides of every question, and his patience in unearthing valuable information, are everywhere conspicuous, while his powers of observation, and his delicacy in speaking of those Italians from whom or about whom he learned so much, are worthy of all praise.

His own comments and reflections would lose too much by being quoted apart from the mass of facts upon which they are based; but their judiciousness may be judged of by the following on Italy's army and navy expenditures. "An armed Italy," says the author, "an Italy which exhausts itself in armaments, is far from being of no account; but an Italy frugal and careful would be a formidable Power." We must allow ourselves also to give one specimen of Mr. Bazin's humor. One of the great landowners of the Roman Campagna has been talking to him at a fashionable club, after a drive in that dangerous region, and assuring him that there has been great exaggeration as to the malaria. The author continues: "He stopped just here, without considering the connection of ideas. 'Garçon,' he cried, 'a glass of vermouth and some quinine! and, waiter! a good deal of quinine!'"

Mr. Bazin is not always impeccably accurate. When, for example, he tells us (p. 61) that "open any secular journal, the least religious possible, and you will see in the almanac [read 'calendar'] of the day, 'Ave Maria, Morning 5h. 15, Ave Maria, Evening, 5h. 22,'" he is falsely generalizing for all Italy from what he saw in one district, and that, too, in ignorance of the fact that what he quotes as an evidence of religiousness is merely an indirect way of announcing the hours of sunrise and sunset somewhere about the middle of March. More curious than such slips as this is the great multitude of blunders in the relatively little Italian quoted or used. This might well give a reader pause, were it not that French is so universally spoken in Italy as to make it possible for a traveller to know the country fair-

ly well without being proficient in Italian. Here is a list, with corrections in brackets, for the use of readers who may not be Italian scholars. P. 11, *mama* (*mamma*); p. 18, *spirito* (the verse requires *spirto*); p. 20, Teatro *dal* (*del*) Verme; p. 36, Palazzo *della Consiglia* (*del Consiglio*, but the proper name of that palace in Vicenza is "la Basilica Palladiana"); p. 47, *junta di vigilenza* (*giunta di vigilanza*); p. 53, *paese voldostani* (*poesie Valdostane*); p. 117, *vicotta* (*ricotta*); p. 133, *bonefica* (*bonifica*); p. 183, *passegiata* (*passeggiata*); pp. 185, 191, 194, *resanimento* (*risanamento*); p. 188, *brasero* (*braciere*); p. 189, *donne di male affari* (*mal'affari*); p. 197, *lustroscarpe* (*lustrascarpe*); p. 204, *innomabile* (*innominabile*); p. 215, *bracciani* (*braccianti*). On p. 172, in "Fa la spia, ma fala bene," the form *fala* may be dialectic for the Tuscan *falla;* but the translation, instead of "She plays the spy, but plays it well," should be, "Play the spy, but play it well"—which proverbial saying is one of several curious phrase-names quoted as given by the herdsmen of the Campagna to the buffalo cows and their calves. On page 220, "tempo di Sicila (Sicilia), tempo femineo" means not "woman's weather," but "feminine weather," in allusion to the "mutabile semper femina." On p. 205 Matilda Serao is called Mathilda Serrao, though the name is properly given in other places.

The translator and the printers must share the responsibility for *Solférino* (*Solferino*), p. 20, 66; *Rudini* (*Rudinì*), p. 26; *Messenian* (for a native of Messina), p. 72; *consomme* (*consommé*), *Catana* (*Catania*), p. 228; *Fortune* (for the proper name *Fortuné*), and a few other obvious misprints. The translation is in the main remarkably good, though we have met with a few lapses. Thus, on p. 33, 4,350,000 tons of *charcoal* should, of course, be *pit-coal;* and p. 183, where the vines are said to "run over the ground on green and red arches," we should read "in" (French "*en*") for "on"; the vines themselves making the arches with their leaves and fruit. On p. 187 "a slice of *infected* air" should be merely "evil-smelling" or "malodorous" air—that being the ordinary meaning of the French word *infect*. Mr. Marchant misuses the rare and technical word "quiritarian" in the sense of "belonging to the Quirites," and falls into the common error of making Italians use "Signor" (not followed by a proper name) instead of "Signore," which alone is correct as a form of address. The book has a sufficient index and will well repay a perusal.

The Scholar and the State, and Other Orations and Addresses. By Henry Codman Potter, D.D., LL.D., Bishop of New York. The Century Co. 1897.

Bishop Potter modestly tells us that the publication of this volume was not due to any suggestion of his; but he need not feel that such a suggestion would have been presumptuous. The papers have all a strong, clear tone that will be everywhere welcome and helpful. They are addressed in some cases to the clergy, but in the main they appeal to all conscientious citizens, and their burden is the increasing importance of our public duties. Such appeals are easily made in general terms, in which case they are equally inoffensive and ineffective. To frame them so that particular acts shall be advised without arousing party spirit, is a difficult task; but Bishop Potter knows how to be outspoken without being arrogant, and how to be earnest and tactful at the same time.

"There are two dangers to which religious teachers, or those holding ecclesiastical office, are liable," Bishop Potter observes in his preface. One is a danger of omission, the other of commission. Some of the clergy abstain from all active intervention in the secular life of the community; others obtrude themselves in such a way as to seem to forget that, "in its highest aspect, the Kingdom of their Master is not of this world." Educated men in general are prone to sin in the former way, and perhaps the second error is often a sign of a lack of culture. But there is a middle course, well described by Bishop Potter in the paper entitled "The Scholar and the State," which is not so impracticable, perhaps, as our educated class is inclined to suppose. We may call it the elevation of public opinion by constant appeals to lofty motives. Men are so constituted as to approve virtues that they cannot bring themselves to practise, and the power of the most successful unprincipled politicians may be undermined by the steady influence of purer standards. It is slow work to educate a whole people, but we have the work to do, and such exhortations as Bishop Potter's should cheer the faint-hearted.

Siam on the Meinam. By Maxwell Sommerville. Philadelphia: Lippincott. 1897.

We judge from the preface of the above work that the writer intended it to be "a popular notice" for the use of travellers in Siam. With obvious lack of sympathy for this idea, the publishers have given us a volume with such heavy paper and binding that it is a weariness to the hands, and would increase the charge for overweight in a trunk, but it would look well as a "gift book" on the parlor table, where its pretty yellow covers would not show the dust. Those who read it through will find that they can do so in a few hours. The larger half of the book consists of a hasty description of what the author saw in Bangkok and farther up the river; there are nine pages on the hotel, a page and a half on the museum, and so on; then follows a chapter on Buddhism, and then three stories "as an original means of illustrating phases in Siamese life and customs combined with the history of the Meinam and of the people of the northern province." The first and only important one of these, where the scene is laid in the seventeenth century, is illustrated by photographs (!) of the principal characters. The other two together do not fill ten largely printed pages or illustrate anything at all.

As for the style, though occasionally vivid, it is stilted and irritating, besides being confused and at times ungrammatical. We should not have expected, at the present day, a professor in a well-known Northern university to speak of a theatre as "a temple, where, through Thespian sources, men are trying to obtain all the enjoyment possible." Is it to show that he knows the French words for library and umbrella that Prof. Sommerville inserts them in a work on Siam? If his largest dictionary gives him authority for "consentaneity," "inquietude," "he was desolate," and "her potential parents," is that why he puts them in his "popular notice"? Finally, we must protest against the taste which inserts in such a book two photographs of a "dead body being eaten by vultures"; the second, particularly, is disgusting.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold, Sarah L., and Gilbert C. B. Stepping-Stones to Literature. A First Reader. A Second Reader. Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co.
Barr, Mrs. Amelia E. The King's Highway. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Blackmore, R. D. Dariel. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.75.
Blanchan, Neltje. Bird Neighbors. Fifty Colored Plates. Doubleday & McClure Co. $2.
Brewer, D. J. The Pew to the Pulpit. F. H. Revell Co. 25c.
Bromby, C. H. Dante's A Question of the Water and of the Land. London: David Nutt.
Buckley, Rev. J. M. A History of Methodism in the United States. 2 vols. Harpers. $5.
Bury, R. G. The Philetus of Plato. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $3.25.
Chambers, R. W. Lorraine: A Romance. Harpers. $1.25.
Chatfield-Taylor, H. C. The Vice of Fools. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Charleton, R. J. Netherdyke: A Tale of the "Forty-Five." Edward Arnold. $1.50.
Clough, Blanche A. A Memoir of Anne Jemima Clough. Edward Arnold. $3.50.
Cowley, A. E., and Neubauer, Ad. Ecclesiasticus, XXXIX. 15, to XLIX. 11. Translated from the Original Hebrew. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde.
Crawford, F. M. Corleone. 2 vols. Macmillan. $2.
Davenport, W. E. Poetical Sermons, including the Ballad of Plymouth Church. Putnams. $1.50.
Edgren, Prof. H. Hjalmar. A Brief Italian Grammar. W. R. Jenkins. 90c.
Gardiner, S. R. History of the Commonwealth and Protectorate, 1649-1660. Vol. II. 1651-1654. Longmans, Green & Co. $7.
Howard, Blanche W. Seven on the Highway. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Hunt, Violet. Unkist, Unkind! Harpers. $1.25.
Huntington, Archer M. Poem of the Cid. Text Reprinted from the Madrid MS. Vol. I. Putnams. $25.
Huntington, Faye. His First Charge. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.25.
Hurll, Estelle M. The Madonna in Art. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.
Julleville, Prof. L. P. de. Histoire de la Langue et de la Littérature Française. Tome IV. Dix-septième Siècle. Première Partie. (1601-1660.) Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Legouis, Prof. Emile. The Early Life of William Wordsworth. 1770-1798. Scribners. $3.
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Mayer, Hy. The Autobiography of a Monkey. R. H. Russell. $1.25.
McCarthy, Justin H. The French Revolution. Vol. II. Harpers. $1.50.
Moorman, F. W. Fletcher's The Faithful Shepherdess. [Temple Dramatists.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. 45c.
Murray, J. A. H. A New English Dictionary. Foisty—Frankish. (Vol. IV.) Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde.
Ogilvie, J. N. The Presbyterian Churches. F. H. Revell Co. 40c.
Perce, W. R. Genesis and Modern Science. James Pott & Co. $1.50.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 18, 1897.

The Week.

We have long been trying to get some Dingleyite to tell us exactly when the famous tariff for revenue is going to produce revenue, and we at first thought that the *Tribune's* elaborate article on the subject on Thursday would give us a definite date; but it miserably fails us. November was to be a great revenue month, but all that is now claimed for it is that it will produce "almost" enough to meet the month's expenses. Not a deficit, you observe—that is a hateful word—but almost enough. Then we read on and find that there is "fair ground for hope" that "by the end of the year" the Dingley tariff (elegantly called by the *Tribune* "the revenue bill") will "begin to return enough to meet current expenditures at the ordinary rate." This looks encouraging, but we are instantly reminded that "the disbursements in January" are "usually larger than in most months," so there will be "no occasion for disappointment" if there is a deficit in January, too. There the matter is left hanging, and we are as much in the dark as ever as to when the revenue is to begin. Mr. McKinley told us on March 4 that we were to have sufficient revenue *"without delay, hindrance, or postponement."* The deficit for the fiscal year to date is 44,000,000, and there will be no occasion for disappointment, the *Tribune* says, if it amounts to $50,000,000 by the end of January. The bigger the deficit, the more "cheerful" the Republicans. With the finances in such a snarl it is certain that the country would not dare put incompetent Democrats in charge again.

It has been hastily assumed that the transfer to the United States Treasury of $14,000,000 on account of the Pacific Railway sale will add just so much to the available assets. But this is to overlook the extraordinary American genius for finance. That money is a sacred fund, as it were, not to be expended in any ordinary way, but to be devoted exclusively to some new form of extravagance. The Nicaragua Canal Association has already held a meeting and voted that this Pacific money be religiously set aside for itself. We are sure the pension agents will also want it, and so will the ship-armor men, and the sugar-bounty men, and the bounty-on-exports men, to say nothing of the one-cent postage men, and the buying-of-Cuba men, and the other men, amounting to the whole membership of Congress, each of whom would like to grab the whole sum for "public works" in his own district. The fact is that the unexpected addition of $14,000,000 to the Treasury is evidently going to excite the maddest competition to see who shall have it. The net result will probably be some log-rolling scheme by which $40,000,000 or $50,000,000 will be taken from the Treasury on the strength of this extra $14,000,000 put into it.

There is great enthusiasm in the protection press just now over reciprocity—especially Canadian reciprocity. If the farmers in northern New York had, in grateful acknowledgment of protection against Canadian hay and barley, voted the Republican ticket a little more heartily on November 2, the case might have been different. One of the fundamental principles of the protectionist economy is, no Republican votes, no protection. This was explicitly assigned as the reason for giving up the sugar duties in 1890. Louisiana, by her steady Democratic majorities, had forfeited all right to protection; and if the farmers on the Canadian border aren't going to pay for protection by votes, why, it will be only right to expose them at once to the horrors of Canadian hay and barley. But this is to be remembered in all the negotiations, that if a reciprocity treaty is agreed upon, it will be due to a change of policy at Washington. The Canadians have been willing to make an agreement from the start. They had representatives in Washington before the Dingley bill was hatched, inquiring what could be done to facilitate trade. But they were rebuffed. It was because they could do nothing with the United States that they turned to England. So it was explicitly stated in the Canadian Parliament. Thus if there is now any change of plan it must be on the part of our Government. Canada has always been ready to enter into a reasonable treaty. Whether one can be framed that the Senate would ratify is doubtful, but we surely have no objection to protectionists undoing, in the name of reciprocity, what they have done, to their own manifest alarm, in the name of protection. The difficulty is to keep reciprocity as a commercial question from getting mixed up with reciprocity as a political question.

Prof. Taussig, in his answers to the questions of the Currency Commission, advances the opinion that the silver currency (certificates and dollars) will not prove an embarrassment to the Government if the legal-tender notes are retired, and hence that it will not be necessary to provide for their redemption in gold. Probably every competent authority will concur in this opinion. There is a certain field of circulation to be filled with currency of certain denominations, from one dollar up to tens and twenties. Congress can, if it chooses, assign this field to the existing silver certificates and silver dollars with the assurance that they will be so constantly employed as to give no trouble. Even if they were made specifically redeemable in gold, they could not, in such case, be collected for the purpose of redemption. They would fill the same rôle as the uncovered circulation of the Bank of England, or the five-franc pieces of France, or the thalers of Germany. Redemption would be merely nominal, as it is now, yet the silver currency would continue at par as it is now. Prof. Taussig makes the further recommendation that the retirement of the greenbacks should be made *pari passu* with the issue of banknotes, or at the rate of four dollars of the former for five of the latter. This is a suggestion of a political rather than an economical kind, but is a wise one, and will, no doubt, be followed by Congress, if that body can be induced to provide for the retirement of the greenbacks on any terms.

The recent elections, and particularly those in Kentucky and Iowa, show that the Bryan element has secured a hold upon the Democratic organization so firm that it need no longer fear the opposition of the Gold Democrats. In both Kentucky and Iowa the National Democrats put excellent tickets in the field, and conducted a vigorous canvass, but in each case the vote polled was small, and it is obvious that most of those who dissented from the Chicago platform last year are ready to fall back into the ranks. The principle of "regularity" has always had great weight with Democrats, and while some believers in the gold standard excused their support of the regular candidates who were running on a silver platform this year on the ground that the contest was really on State issues, it is evident that many of these will do the same thing next year, when nobody can dispute that the issues are national. A few old Democrats voted the Republican ticket again this year as they did last year, but the whole drift of things since McKinley's inauguration has been calculated to discourage such a tendency, and they will be still less inclined to keep it up next year.

Another thing which has been made plain, especially by the result in Iowa, is the hopelessness of maintaining a separate Populist organization. Many members of that party detested the fusion with the Bryan Democrats in the Presidential contest, and vowed that

they would never support such a coalition again. These "Middle-of-the-Road" men put up a ticket of their own in Iowa, and expected that it would receive a good many votes, but the movement "petered out" until it had become ridiculous even before election day. It is as obvious to old Populists as it is to old Democrats that no third organization is likely to amount to anything under present conditions, and this forces the former, as well as the latter, to choose between the Republicans and the Bryanites who have got control of the Democratic organization. The only question left is as to the relative proportions of Populist principles which will be found in so-called Democratic platforms hereafter, and the promise is that they will be large enough to reconcile even "Middle-of-the-Road" men.

The sworn returns of expenditures which candidates for office in this State are required to make are always illuminative, although our law is the most inadequate one of its kind in this country. It requires sworn returns by candidates, but not by campaign committees, and in this respect is especially defective. Candidates can conceal the real use to which their money is put by turning it over in a lump sum to the committees, and it is not possible to trace it further, except by requiring the committees to account for its use, as is done in all adequate corrupt-practice laws. Still, the statements made by candidates are often of value, merely as revelations of the amounts which are spent in an election. Thus, Francis M. Scott's return disclosed the fact that he had paid Tammany Hall nearly $9,000 for his nomination to the Supreme Court bench. Comptroller Fitch's return shows that he paid over $1,000 for various purposes, including "advertising." The latter item includes, without doubt, the eulogistic biographical sketch of Mr. Fitch, with his portrait in the centre, which appeared in the papers a few days before election. Many of the candidates are more frank about this item than Mr. Fitch is, and set it down openly as "newspaper sketches." It is the old "reading notice" in a new form.

But defective as our corrupt-practice law is, it is far from being strictly enforced. In many localities it is treated as a joke, and its provisions are openly defied. Take, for example, the following return made by Frank Matty, a candidate for Alderman in Syracuse:

For newspapers	$10 00
Janitor service	5 00
Hacks and carryalls	20 00
Refreshments and cigars	200 00
For renewing old acquaintances and forming new	900 00
	$1,135 00

Compare this impudent performance with the requirements of the law:

"Every candidate who is voted for at any public election held within this State shall, within ten days after such election, file an itemized statement showing in detail all the moneys contributed or expended by him, directly or indirectly, by himself or through any other person, in aid of his election. *Such statement shall give the names of the various persons who received such moneys, the specific nature of each item, and the purpose for which it was expended or contributed.*"

It is perfectly clear that Mr. Matty has not complied with the law. It is also clear from his statement that he made very doubtful use of his money, and as he was elected by a plurality of only 200 votes, his defeated opponent ought to bring him into court at once and compel him to make his return conform to the law, or suffer the penalty.

An amusing "coincidence" is pointed out by the *Tribune* in the virtually simultaneous publication of the same editorial article in Platt's Owego paper and his personal organ in this city. It was a statesmanlike comment on the result of our municipal election, placing all the blame of Tammany success upon the Citizens' Union, and "thanking God" that Seth Low had not been elected. Platt seems to have composed the article in advance of the election for use in his organ here, and to have been so pleased with it that he took a "proof" of it with him to Owego, Tioga County, when he went there to vote. There is nothing surprising in this coincidence. The only unusual aspect of it is that the article should appear in only two of the Platt organs at once. Heretofore, Platt's custom has been to supply all his editors throughout the State with his views editorially expressed in circular form. These are usually quoted here in his personal organ as evidence of the soundness of the rural Republican press. It is a droll business in every way, but in nothing more so than the solemnity with which the Platt editors go about it.

Little has been heard since the election about Congressman Grosvenor's bill to repeal the civil-service law. A month ago we were told that the Grosvenor project was gaining friends every day, and that it would certainly be introduced and passed in the coming session. Some of its over-enthusiastic promoters thought that it would command enough votes to be passed over a veto if the President should separate himself from his party on this subject. In all this chatter no mention was made of the following clause of the Republican national platform, to wit:

"The civil-service law was placed on the statute-book by the Republican party, which has always sustained it, and we renew our repeated declarations that it shall be thoroughly and honestly enforced, and extended wherever practicable."

Why do we hear no more of this hopeful scheme? What has occurred to damp the enthusiasm of the repealing squad? Possibly the signs of a coming *débâcle* may have been discerned in the voting on the 2d of November. It would not be a nice thing to repeal the civil-service law and thus enable the Democrats to turn out all the Republican clerks, letter-carriers, postal-route agents, and minor officials all over the country and fill the places with their own "heelers." The fable of the dog that dropped a good piece of meat in the stream in order to grab what he took to be another piece from the mouth of another dog, has much pertinence in this case. Already we hear the Tammany heelers thanking Gov. Black for taking the "starch" out of the civil-service law of this State. They expect to have a Governor of their own kind soon, and when that times comes, they will not be so much embarrassed in finding places for good Democrats as they were when they were last in power at Albany. It is often said that there is no great loss without some small gain. Such would seem to be the case this fall. The Grosvenor repealing law, we venture to say, will not be passed this winter.

Judge Jackson, of the United States District Court for West Virginia, has rendered a decision in which he stoutly maintains that the civil-service rule against removals for political reasons has all the force of statute law, and that no superior official can legally so remove any subordinate in the classified service. The case which came before Judge Jackson was one in which a new (Republican) collector of internal revenue attempted to remove a gauger and a storekeeper (Democratic) in a distillery from their positions by transfers to less desirable places for no other reason than their politics. Some minor points were raised in defence of the collector, into which it is unnecessary to enter, as whether such a transfer was technically a removal. The vital part of the decision is that in which the Judge maintains that the civil-service act is constitutional, and that the executive rules proclaimed by a President under the provisions of that act have themselves the binding effect of the original law, being in fact only methods of carrying out that law. On the 27th of July last, Mr. McKinley issued an order which laid down the rule that "no removal shall be made from any position subject to competitive examination, except for just cause, upon written charges filed with the head of department or other appointing officer, of which the accused shall have full notice and an opportunity to make defence." In the West Virginia cases the collector attempted to remove men "for the good of the public service," without specifying any "just cause" or giving them "an opportunity to make defence." Judge Jackson holds that this action was as plainly illegal as it was obviously improper. His argument runs thus: In the first place, the rules promulgated

by the President and the Civil-Service Commission are clearly within their scope and power, under the civil-service act of Congress; and when they exercise the power to limit and restrict the power of removal as they deem best for the public interest, it is only the execution of a duty imposed upon them by Congress and which should be effectually performed and fully complied with. The very object and purpose of the rule of July 27 regarding removals was to furnish a full opportunity to everybody within the classified service to meet any charges made against him, and to prevent his removal without such charges. The assignment of the "good of the public service" as a reason was an attempt to evade the rule, and was "too general, vague, and indefinite to authorize the removal of an officer under existing law."

The respectable negroes of Texas have held a convention at Columbus, which took action that was most creditable to the race. The cause of the meeting was "the alarming frequency of the crimes of criminal outrage and murder by mob violence," the leaders in the movement rightly holding that this state of things made obvious the necessity for action on their part. Resolutions were adopted deprecating the violation of any man's home; deploring "the crimes which have brought a blot upon our people, irrespective of race"; declaring themselves "at the service of any party whose family has been outraged, to do all in our power to apprehend and bring to justice any person who has been so forgetful of the sanctity of female virtue as to violate it"; and asking their white fellow-citizens "not to condemn a whole race for the sins of a few among them, and that they accept our services in ferreting out and bringing such criminals to justice." If the leaders among the blacks can hold their race up to the level of this spirit, they must greatly discourage the perpetration of the crime which has caused so many lynchings, and they should receive the coöperation of the whites in insisting upon legal trials, instead of mob violence, for those who still commit the offence.

The Princeton Inn bade fair to arouse a fiercer discussion in the Presbyterian Church than ever the Princeton theology excited, but Prof. Shields cut all short by promptly withdrawing from the church. He maintained that the persecution to which he was being subjected for having signed an application for a liquor license for the Inn was an unjustifiable interference with his personal rights, and in this position he was supported by so good an ecclesiastical lawyer as President Patton; but rather than precipitate a long wrangle and trial, he stepped out incontinently. Of course the Presbytery had to indulge in some of the "current compliments of theological parting," and if it did not ban and anathematize Prof. Shields, it took occasion to remind him, and other brethren beloved, that to sign an application for a liquor license was to be guilty of "reprehensible complicity" with evil. But much more so, according to other deliverances of the General Assembly, is drinking or offering drink to others; and at least equally so is theatre-going. Yet Prof. Shields might point to honored officers of the church who do these things unrebuked. But the point was that an ecclesiastical fury had been stirred up on the subject of the Princeton Inn, and that a victim was necessary. Prof. Shields's immolation of himself should serve—though the whiskey-drinking divines of earlier Presbyterian days would be puzzled to make out what the row was all about.

We hope the deliverance of President Schurman of Cornell University on football, as reported in the papers, is not a fair specimen of the style of reasoning he teaches his students. Here it is:

> "Several persons playing football have recently been seriously hurt. A far larger number travelling for pleasure on railways have recently been killed. Yet freedom of travelling remains; why, then, an ordinance against football?"

The reason is that people travelling on railroads do not court danger, but avoid it, and would not take a train in which an accident was likely to occur or in which they might be pummelled by the conductor; that when they are killed, therefore, they are killed by pure accident, not by riding on the cowcatcher, or by trying to jump on the train when in motion; that railways are highroads which people must take if they travel at all, and not roads which people take only when travelling for pleasure; that railroad passengers are commonly adults of mature judgment, whose freedom of locomotion cannot be restrained, while the persons who are "seriously hurt playing football" are youths *in statu pupillari*, who can, and ought to be, and are, restrained from pastimes dangerous to health or morals. A pugilistic ring fight, or a "rough-and-tumble" Georgia fight, would not be permitted in any college in the country, however much amusement it would afford. Railroad passengers are not in college, and are not learning how to behave. The analogy, therefore, is not one that either inspires respect or suggests pleasant thought.

The order for "concentration" in Cuba, about the modification of which so much is heard just now, was, of course, a war measure pure and simple. It was intended to cut off the supplies of the roving bands of insurgents. It was, moreover, essentially a measure of retaliation. The revolutionists began the concentrating—that is, they compelled farmers and planters and peasants to declare for the republic, and to furnish supplies, or else to go over bag and baggage to the Spanish lines, thanking their stars that they were not hanged on the spot, as there is reason to believe that too many of them were. Thereupon, Gen. Weyler said it was a poor rule that would not work both ways. If no non-combatants of Spanish sympathies were to be left in peace, none of Cuban sympathies should be. And there was also the possibility of seriously crippling the revolutionists by laying waste and depopulating the farms and plantations whence they had been obtaining food and horses. So the order was issued to drive in all the people of the country districts, who were allowed to cultivate the soil only within the "zones" marked out by the Spanish military authorities. That frightful suffering resulted is undoubted. But it was a result, as we have said, of a war measure, and war measures have a way of producing suffering. To modify or repeal this measure now will naturally give aid and comfort to the insurgents. They will have an easier chance to get supplies, and they will also feel that Spain is relaxing the fierce energy of her efforts to overwhelm them. That Gen. Blanco has moved in the matter as far as he has, shows how anxious the new Spanish Ministry is to please the United States and to placate the Cubans.

Sir Robert Giffen expresses in the *Nineteenth Century* the general English feeling that the Government has been dancing on the edge of a bimetallic precipice. He declares that the City was justly amazed to learn that British Ministers had "listened gravely" to the astonishing proposals made them, and had dealt with these proposals "in a dilatory fashion," when they should have been "summarily dismissed." But, at any rate, argues Sir Robert, something has been gained, which is the conviction, now so earnest and widespread in England, that there "must be no playing with bimetallism in our communications with foreign nations." "We have had a sufficient lesson. Our courtesies are interpreted as business," and any further dallying out of courtesy will surely bring Nemesis. Above all, no more futile international conferences. "How could sober Englishmen, with their belief that the monetary unit is a certain weight of the metal chosen for the standard, ever discuss money with those who believe that money is the creation of law, and that some miracle takes place at the mint?" This is the thing, affirms Sir Robert, that makes bimetallic conferences such "pure farce," and the only way to stop them is for the Government flatly to say to all comers that it can neither confer, correspond, nor consider in reference to any proposal which implies a belief in the theory of bimetallism.

THE PRESIDENTIAL BOGIE.

Certain things have, in the course of events, been coming out more and more clearly since the disappearance from the political arena of the high moral issues raised by the anti-slavery agitation and by the war. The chief is the inordinate importance which the politicians are constantly endeavoring to ascribe to the Presidential election. That the Presidency is a great office, and that it ought, when Congress has lost so much character, to be filled by a man of courage and ability, there is no doubt. But the politicians by no means try to magnify the office, and generally nowadays pay scant respect to the actual incumbent. What they try to magnify is not the office, but the election to the office. They spare no pains to fill the popular mind with illusions as to the tremendous gravity for the country of the process of choosing, and of the prodigious risk we shall all run if the other man gets in. What the result would be if our own side does not succeed, they seldom set forth. As a rule, party discipline is so strict they do not need to set it forth. They leave it to the imagination. The result is that most of us have come to believe that one of the chief reasons for our existence is that we may elect Presidents; that government and public offices were not created for man's benefit, but that man was created simply that he might carry on government, and, at stated intervals, elect officers. If we show the least desire to consult the health and happiness of our families, the cleanliness and security of our streets, and the security of our homes and our property, instead of considering the best means of electing the President, we are actually reproached with want of patriotism.

This complete turning upside down of the early democratic idea of government and its objects is one of the oddest phenomena of the day. All who have read of the rise of democracy after our Revolution and that of France, or who remember its great step forward about 1830, must recall the fact that its earliest and most emphatic promise to humanity was that the government should be recalled to its original functions, promotion of the health and happiness and security of the masses; that for this purpose the huge and complicated machinery set up by monarchs should be abolished, and that "the greatest happiness of the greatest number" should be the one object of statesmen, and that everything relating to government should be simplified and cheapened. The paraphernalia of monarchy were to go—the standing armies, the sinecures, the enormous salaries, the pensions, the wars, the dynastic alliances, and all the falsehood and humbug of courts. The French revolutionary war-cry, "Guerre aux châteaux, paix aux chaumières," rang through the world like a trumpet-blast which announced the dawning of a new era.

In one century we seem to have forgotten all this. We have allowed the politicians to "set up" at Washington a game of extraordinary cost, corruption, and complications, as expensive as a monarchy, and consisting simply in filling the place of chief magistrate. We have allowed them so to stuff our imagination with this game that we feel as if we ought to surrender the very ends of government—peace, security, and health—in order to enable them to carry it on with vigor. In comparison with the business of enabling Platt or Croker to elect their man, we have come to look on the very foundations of civilized society as trifles. We cannot police our cities, or elect our health boards, or our School Commissioners, or even buy our clothes, without considering what the effect will be on the next Presidential election. And yet the President has very little power, of legislation none, and the little he has he is bound by one of the most solemn of human oaths to exercise for the comfort and safety of the masses—not to rush into unnecessary wars, not to give away places of trust and emolument so as to satisfy greed or selfishness, not to promote reckless expenditure so as to increase the taxes—not, in short, to veil from the popular eye, for one moment, the great fact that the government was made for man and not man for government.

The game at Washington, however, does not confine itself to the Presidential election. It embraces legislation. People have long ceased to expect from that quarter any laws intended to promote the popular welfare. The business world trembles when Congress meets. Merchants and bankers do not know the day when they will be called on to back up some silly war by the sacrifice of their property, or submit to some senseless exaction because somebody in Congress thought it a good vote-catching dodge. In fact, congressional action has for years been devoted to vote-catching. It is hardly possible to get a measure through the two houses which will benefit neither set of politicians, or will please the supporters of the other party. The experience of the human race, its science, its wisdom and learning, are of no more use in Washington than they would be at an Ojibway council. The Naval Observatory, the Census Bureau, the Coast Survey are all roped into the game. Mathematical problems are decided in caucuses by majority, and the roar of a Kansas Populist counts for more than the words of the greatest jurist or philosopher, because his roar brings votes, while the words of the jurist or philosopher bring nothing but grace, wisdom, and understanding.

What we need is a great revival that will bring back to the minds of the American people the objects for which this government was established, and for which all governments ought to exist. It was established not for the election of officers, but "to establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, *provide for the common defence*, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity." Nothing here about aggression, or annexation, or big navies to make people "stand round," or extravagant monarchical pensions, or dirty cities, or corrupt bosses, or "party fealty." This declaration was the preaching of a new gospel to suffering humanity. Yet in one hundred years we have, in many of our States and most of our cities, surrendered our liberties to dictators so base that the framers would not have spoken to them; have elevated the Presidency into an expensive and corrupt monarchy, and, before every quadrennial election, look round with bloodshot eyes for somebody to fight with, as part of the regular procedure.

CRIMINAL USE OF CORPORATE FUNDS.

In the recently published correspondence relating to the alleged payments to T. C. Platt for political purposes by a life-insurance company, Mr. Dawson, the witness in the ease, made the statement that he failed to see the significance of the charge, if true. "Unless it can be shown," he says in his letter, "that he [Platt] made a wrong use of the money, converted it to his own use, or promised some improper favor in return, the circumstance has no especial significance." The idea which underlies this evidently is that for an insurance company, bank, or railroad to subscribe money to elect Tammany or Republican politicians to office is a perfectly legitimate corporation expenditure. Thirty years ago the expression of such an idea would, all over the United States, have excited widespread surprise. When the late Jay Gould, for instance, testified that he was a Republican in Republican counties, a Democrat in Democratic counties, and doubtful in doubtful counties, but always "for the Erie Railroad," it was thought to be an illustration of individual depravity. The thing has now become common, and any one curious in such matters can ascertain without difficulty the precise amounts currently reported to have been paid to each party in the late campaign in this city by one of the corporations chiefly interested.

The legal significance of a charge that money has been so paid is certainly worth examination. The view that the law takes of corporate funds is that they are the private property of the stockholders in the management of directors or trustees for a special purpose, which is stated in the charter—as, the insurance of lives, the transportation of goods and passengers, the discounting of pa-

per. It follows from this that those directors or trustees have no power or right to use those private funds for utterly different purposes. To do anything of the sort even innocently is *ultra vires*, beyond the powers conferred in the charter. "No rule of law comes with more reasonable application" than that corporate powers are only those of the charter, says Kent; and to clinch the matter, the New York Revised Statutes (2 R. S., 9th ed., p. 978) provide that "no corporation shall possess or exercise any corporate powers not given by law, or not necessary to the exercise of the powers so given." Nothing is said by Kent, or Blackstone, or Morawetz, or in Green's Brice on *Ultra Vires*, on the subject of the right of an insurance company to contribute to the expenses of a political organization, for these writers do not discuss cases too clear for argument. The business of insuring lives has nothing to do with that carried on by Tammany Hall or Platt; the right to subscribe to campaign expenses is not given by law, nor is it necessary to the exercise of the function of issuing policies on lives given by law. Cases far less plain have been held by the courts to be clearly within the rule. Thus, when the Old Colony Railroad in Massachusetts made a subscription to guarantee the expenses of a "World's Peace Jubilee," the Supreme Court of that State held that no action could be maintained for the money, because, as lucidly explained by Gray, C. J., in an elaborate opinion, a world's peace jubilee is an enterprise "wholly outside the objects for which a railroad corporation is established" (Davis vs. Old Colony Railroad, 131 Mass., 258).

It follows from this necessarily that acts obviously *ultra vires* are not the acts of the corporation at all. The money comes out of the corporation exchequer, but the act of the director or trustee in paying it out is the act of the person who does it. He takes money which is not his, and applies it to a purpose for which it was not intrusted to him. The owners of the money, the corporation or the stockholders, must have some remedy for this, and, in fact, there are a variety of remedies. Thus, if the act is not yet complete, but only threatened, the stockholders may get an injunction (Barr vs. New York, L. E. and W. R. R. Co., 96 N. Y., 444), and if the officers of the corporations have such complete control that the corporation itself cannot be set in motion to redress the wrong, a bill for a discovery of the facts and an accounting for the moneys diverted will be sustained (Brewer vs. Boston Theatre, 104 Mass., 378).

But it is not only the stockholders who have a right to complain. In all civilized communities the diversion of funds intrusted to the care of agents to purposes other than those for which they were given, is regarded as a matter in which the public have an interest; hence it will be found that our place to look for the view taken by the law of acts not merely *ultra vires*, but involving the misappropriation ot funds, is the Penal Code. As a general thing it will be found that a payment of corporate funds as a political assessment involves the commission of a crime or of a series of criminal offences. If the money were taken and handed over to the collector without its being accounted for at all, this would simply be "conversion" by a trustee, or, under section 541 of the Penal Code, larceny, punishable by a fine equal in amount to the money misappropriated with interest and 20 per cent. more, and imprisonment for a term equal to that applicable in the case of larceny, with five years added.

But of course the money is usually accounted for; and as a "politics" account would be plainly illegal, false entries must be made in the books to cover it up. "Legal expenses" is the head usually resorted to, though others may in special cases be better adapted to the end in view. When a reputable counsel is employed, he knows nothing about the matter; it is not his business to inquire. The false entry in the books is, however, also a crime. The Penal Code provides that any officer or employee of a corporation who "falsifies" any corporation accounts is guilty of forgery in the third degree, and may be punished with imprisonment for five years (sections 514, 525). It seems probable that the act of taking the money and paying it out knowingly for purposes obviously beyond the charter powers is larceny. Section 528 declares that any corporation officer or employee who appropriates any corporation funds to the use of any person "other than the true owner or person entitled to the benefit thereof," "steals such property and is guilty of larceny." If the amount misappropriated is more than $500, it is grand larceny in the first degree (section 530), and punishable with imprisonment for ten years.

But the person who collects the assessment may get the money from an unwilling corporation by threats or suggestions that some injury will be done if it is not paid. This by section 558 is the crime of blackmail, or extortion, punishable with imprisonment for five years. On the other hand, the person who pays the assessment may expect through it to influence members of the Legislature. If this is "directly or indirectly" the object of the payment, he is guilty of bribery, and is punishable by a fine of not more than $5,000, and imprisonment for not more than ten years, or both (section 66).

It will be seen that the law does not recognize any difference between blackmail obtained for one purpose and another, and, indeed, it cannot. Stockholders' property is in just as much danger at the hands of a politician who plays upon the fears of their trustees as a private fortune would be at the hands of any non-political knave who extorted money by threats of exposing family secrets; and no doubt the ruin of many a corporation has begun in campaign contributions, people who are ready to commit crimes to advance the interests of corporations being often ready to plunder them. Property exposed to such attacks is in the position of property at the mercy of a public enemy; the only limit to spoliation is his leniency.

In nine-tenths of all the payments by corporations for political purposes, fear is the operative motive, and the most effective way to put an end to them would be to put in the District Attorney's office a man who feels about political blackmail and corruption as every one does about private abuses of trust and extortion. The appearance on the scene of such an officer would no doubt be followed by the flight from the State of several persons. There would be little difficulty in getting evidence against the head of an organization out of power. But this remedy is just now a good way off, and hence it is at present only through stockholders in corporations who may object that any redress is likely to be obtained. A bill for a discovery and an accounting, where facts like those testified to by Mr. Dawson really exist and are capable of proof, would put the guilty parties in an awkward dilemma. Proof in court of acts of directors not merely *ultra vires*, but involving larceny. payment of blackmail, and forgery, would do much to make the real character of such transactions generally understood. It has just been most vigorously proclaimed by the Supreme Court of the United States, on a full review of the authorities, that it is no answer to a demand for equitable relief, when the case warrants it, that the acts complained of are also crimes (*In re* Debs, 158 U. S. 564).

RECIPROCITY WITH CANADA.

The project of a treaty of reciprocity with Canada has met with a very cordial response from the Merchants' Association of Boston. Probably the manufacturing and commercial interests of the East generally will regard it with favor, and inasmuch as the Bering Sea question is involved in it, we may expect that the sealing interest on the Pacific Coast may be counted on the same side. Apart from these special interests, it may be assumed that the large class who favored the arbitration treaty as a means of insuring peace between the two great English-speaking nations will favor reciprocity with Canada as a lesser means of bringing about the same result. Nothing works more effectively for peace than trade. Anything which pro-

duces closer commercial intercourse diminishes the chances of war. Hence we may expect the anti-Jingo sentiment of the country to favor the proposed treaty except so far as personal and private interests are thought to be unfavorably affected by it.

It is perhaps worth while to glance at the old treaty of reciprocity negotiated by Secretary Marcy on the part of the United States and Lord Elgin on the part of Great Britain. This instrument was ratified by the Senate and confirmed by both houses of Congress in 1854, and remained in force till 1866. It provided first for the enjoyment of the in-shore fisheries of Canada and the maritime provinces and islands by the fishermen of the United States and the use of the land (except private property) for curing fish and drying nets; also for similar rights to Canadian fishermen on our coast north of the 36th parallel of latitude—shell-fish being excepted in both cases. Next it was mutually agreed that the products of the soil, the forests, mines, and fisheries, including lumber and manufactured tobacco, should be admitted free of duty. The third proviso granted to American citizens the same right of navigation of the St. Lawrence River and canals as was enjoyed by British subjects, and to Canadians equivalent rights on Lake Michigan. This did not grant the right to participate in the coastwise trade. The treaty was to continue ten years, and until twelve months after either party should give notice of its desire to terminate it. The ten years expired while the civil war was raging in the United States. During its progress the Confederate leaders had used Canada more or less as a base of operations against the Union, and thus created a feeling of irritation which led to the denunciation of the treaty by us as soon as the time came around. The commercial effects of the treaty were never made a cause of complaint in either country. Not a syllable of complaint was ever heard from the agricultural interests of the United States from first to last.

The only objection that has been raised to the new treaty up to the present time comes from the Department of Agriculture, from which we hear that the growers of barley do not want to have their "protection" cut off or lessened by the admission of Canadian barley. This, of course, raises the question whether the consumers of barley have any rights that Congress ought to respect. The brewing interest is much larger, measured by dollars and cents and by the number of hands employed, than the barley-growing interest, and, as it is pretty well organized, it will probably take care of itself in the controversy over the treaty. If it does not, it can blame nobody but itself. No doubt the lumber barons will be up in arms; perhaps the coal barons also, although they may have more to gain than to lose by the mutual abolition of duties on coal. Perhaps wool will be left out of the arrangement, although the Canadian product is not much grown in the United States. All these details we shall hear from in due time. The main fact in the case is that the McKinley Administration is in favor of a treaty looking to a relaxation of trade restrictions on our northern border.

The Dingley tariff contains provisions for treaties of reciprocity limited to five years' duration, but it does not follow that treaties cannot be negotiated outside of those limitations. Congress has the same power now that it had before. The President and two-thirds of the Senate can make such treaties as they choose. If a treaty involves a change of customs duties or the appropriation of money, then precedent requires that the House shall join in passing an act to carry it into effect. At all events, such was the case in the Marcy-Elgin treaty and in the Hawaiian reciprocity treaty of 1875. So far as this goes, it is safe to say that any treaty which can command the support of two-thirds of the Senate can generally count upon a majority of the House also. There is no reason, therefore, to expect any serious opposition from the House if the project is acceptable to the President and Senate.

It is to be hoped upon all accounts that the plan may be successfully carried through. Not only will the sealing question and the Eastern fishery question be settled by it, but the market which we now enjoy in Canada for our own surplus products, and which is threatened by the new Canadian tariff, will be saved. Canada has learned the trick of maximum and minimum tariffs and she proposes to put it into execution. The effect of it will be to give preferential rates of 25 per cent. to British, and perhaps German and Belgian, goods before the end of the present year. It is certainly worth our while to prevent this, and the terms offered by Canada in exchange are as low as we could decently ask.

A TWO-SIDED STATESMAN.

There is no episode in Tennyson's Life more interesting than that which describes his intercourse with Gladstone. They first met in 1837, by Tennyson's calling on Gladstone, as a school friend of Arthur Hallam. From that time they saw as much of each other as Gladstone's busy political life would permit. They corresponded frequently. Gladstone reviewed some of Tennyson's poems when they appeared, and offered him a baronetcy long before the peerage came. They made a voyage together in 1883 to Scotland and Norway, during which Tennyson's biographer says, "Both men were as jovial together as boys out for a holiday, but they took good care to keep off the quagmire of politics." Only on two occasions, however, did Tennyson dissent from Gladstone about politics; one was when Gladstone extended the suffrage, and the other was when he brought in his Irish Home-Rule bill. But this never caused the slightest interruption in their friendship. During the latter period, Tennyson wrote to a friend, "I love Gladstone, but I hate his policy." They agreed and sympathized about poetry and art and religion. There was no more brilliant talk in England than that which took place between them on all these subjects. In 1889 Tennyson wrote to him that "it will be a lasting pleasure to you to know that the people of England are not ungrateful for all you have done for them in days that are no more." After Gladstone's first great defeat in 1874, he wrote to him, "Even if you rested now, your name would be read in one of the fairest pages of English history." In fact, during the fifty-five years of their acquaintance, their friendship was intimate, tender, and unbroken; and with Tennyson, who lived on the loftiest moral plane, friendship was a sacred thing, not to be shared with the unworthy.

During the past sixty years, too, no man lived in a fiercer light than Gladstone, or was in more frequent intercourse with all that was best and most distinguished in English politics and society, and especially (owing both to his place as a distributor of ecclesiastical patronage and his own theological tastes) with churchmen. He made many bishops, and he had many livings to bestow. Consequently all the biographies of distinguished men, from the publication of his first book, reviewed by Macaulay, down to 1890, in both political and religious life, abound with references to him, and their letters with judgments on him. Wilberforce, Newman, Church, Jowett, Manning, Lowe, Arnold, Tait, Russell, Palmerston, Magee, Ward, Peel, Darwin, Browning, in fact all the distinguished men of the "Victorian Age," make some mention of him in their correspondence. Many find fault with his policy, or depreciate his literature, but none ever fails to speak of his character with respect, and most of them speak with tenderness and admiration. They mention faults and foibles sometimes, but only as "spots on the sun." No other English public man has played a part so prominent in public life so long, and endured the criticism of three generations. Yet no record has ever "leaped to light" by which he could be shamed.

Outside the charmed circle of London society, properly so called, he has been equally beloved and admired. No other English public man has ever wielded the same influence over the masses. One blast upon his bugle-horn has really

been worth 10,000 men ever since he wrote the terrible letter from Naples in 1851 which smote the corrupt government of King Bomba like a thunderbolt, and really prepared the world for the Italian "risorgimento." His legislative measures surpassed in importance and beneficence everything attempted by any of his predecessors, even Pitt. Peel introduced free trade, but Gladstone framed the financial changes necessary to adapt the new system of taxation to the wants of the revenue. He restored the army to the nation by abolishing the sale of commissions (when the House of Lords blocked his bill) by the use of the royal warrant. He put an end to three hundred years of intolerance and injustice by disestablishing the Irish Church. It was his clarion voice which led to the uprising that secured their independence to Bulgaria, Servia, and Rumania, and delivered Bosnia and Herzegovina from the Moslem yoke, by preventing Disraeli from completely linking England with the Turk in 1877. As long as his vigor lasted, there was nobody in England who could stay the torrent of popular enthusiasm which burst forth whenever he touched the rock. In the course of sixty years, he changed his opinions several times, about the Church, about the franchise, about the Crimean War, about Ireland, but it was not till the home-rule period that he was accused of want of sincerity, and of interested motives. In short, he has stood, and stands to-day, before the masses in England, as the greatest English statesman since Cromwell, as the most remarkable combination of constructive capacity with debating powers the House of Commons has ever had.

We go over these things because we find, side by side with a fame of this sort, during the last ten years, in fact, ever since 1874, a completely different view of him among what are called the "upper classes" in England—that is, among persons connected with the army, among most of the rural clergy, among the whole sporting class, among persons who figure in fashionable society, as well as among those who are trying to figure in it, and among nearly all English living or sojourning in foreign countries. Nothing more surprises an American who has got his ideas of Gladstone from the newspapers and from literature, when he goes to a foreign watering-place, than to hear Gladstone always mentioned with derision, or contempt, or positive hatred, and to find this low opinion of him supported by attacks on his character, especially stories of gross immorality. Apparently refined women, often of middle age, will grow white with rage in speaking of him, and wish they could hear of his being hanged or dead. They will tell you with minuteness, as a notorious fact, of his being in the pay of the Jesuits, of his having long been secretly a Roman Catholic in good standing, of his having given large orders for things for which he could not pay, of his having left his wife on his way home from a dinner party, for a disreputable purpose. One of the best illustrative stories of this kind is of an old lady's having screamed with terror at a funeral, on hearing that Mr. Gladstone was coming, and having "hoped he would not make a disturbance." In fact, no ruffianly demagogue of any age has ever been depicted in darker colors than Mr. Gladstone in what is called English "society." It is very rarely that one can get from one of these vituperators a statement of what Gladstone has done to merit this obloquy. One lady, on being pressed on this point, about 1889, exclaimed, after some hesitation, "Look at the state of affairs in Afghanistan."

The class which started this view is probably a small one, mainly aristocratic and sporting, and connected with the army, but it has its representatives in every country house. Its hostility to Gladstone began with the abolition of purchase in the army, which, owing to the way it was done, as well as to its disregard of "vested rights," excited intense animosity. This feeling was further increased by his settlement of the *Alabama* question by arbitration, and by his refusal to keep fighting the Boers after Majuba Hill, by his opposition to Disraeli's Afghan war, and by his failure to rescue Gordon. These things made him accursed at every mess-table, and made him an "unspeakable one" to all the sisters, the cousins, and the aunts. After this came Irish home rule, in which he had, besides bearing the blame of an attempt to "dismember the Empire," to meet the dislike of the Celtic Irish which even the most enlightened English feel, and which the Irish Unionists helped to aggravate. Once it became the thing in "society" to hate Gladstone and abuse him, the work was done with a very large proportion of the well-to-do class. When one takes English society proper, and then takes, also, all who want to get into it, or be thought in it, we get the bulk of the people who give dinners and balls. The fierce hostility of the English travelling class whom one meets on the Continent in summer, and falls in with at such places as Pau and Florence in winter, is undoubtedly due, in a large number of cases at least, to the desire of people whose position at home is uncertain or unknown, to give the impression that they feel with the world of fashion, and, therefore, are probably part of it. And then we must not forget the influence of the Primrose League. For years in every "Habitation" the atrocities of Gladstone were the principal topic of conversation, and wishes for his untimely death the best mode of showing hostility to "atheism and anarchy."

The whole phenomenon would be one of the most melancholy in English history if it were not for Mr. Gladstone's splendid indifference to it all. We cannot recall anything approaching the proud and silent, not contempt, but disregard, with which he has treated it. He has over and over been insulted in large public assemblies; he has seen his name reviled in speeches and articles in terms which would hardly have been used about a criminal; he has heard himself ridiculed by men who, in a world of pure justice, would be employed in cleaning his boots, and yet we are not aware that he has ever taken the smallest notice of it. His silence has been almost majestic. No such illustration, we feel sure, is to be found in history of Wotton's picture of the man

> "Who hath his life from humors freed,
> Whose conscience is his strong retreat,
> Whose state can neither flatterers feed
> Nor ruin make accusers great."

THE DEDICATION OF THE YERKES OBSERVATORY.

AMHERST, November 8, 1897.

The installation of a huge telescope affords fitting occasion for recalling the state of astronomy before such instruments had been invented, for the progress of this science, more than any other, has always been closely associated with the development and application of mechanical processes and skill. Earlier than the seventeenth century the size of the planets could not be measured, none of their satellites except our moon were known, the phases of Mercury and Venus were merely conjectured, and accurate positions of sun, moon, and planets among the stars, and of the stars among themselves, were impossible—all because there were no telescopes. More than a half-century elapsed after the invention of the telescope before Picard combined it with a graduated circle in such a way that the measurement of angles was greatly improved. Then arose the necessity for accurate time; but, although Galileo had learned the principles governing the pendulum, astronomy had to wait for the mechanical genius of Huygens before a satisfactory clock was invented, about 1657. Nearly all the large reflecting telescopes ever built were constructed by astronomers who possessed also great facility in practical mechanics; and the rapid and significant advances in nearly all departments of astronomy during the last half-century would not have been possible except through the skill and patience of glass-makers, opticians, and instrument-builders, whose work has reached almost the limit of perfection.

Before 1860, if we except the meagre evidence from meteoric masses of stone and iron, some of which had actually been seen to fall, it is proper to say that our ignorance of the physical constitution of other worlds than ours was simply complete. The principles of spectrum analysis as formulated by Kirchhoff led the way to a knowledge of the elements composing every heavenly

body, no matter what its distance, provided only it is giving out light intense enough to reach our eyes. But since Newton, no necessary step had been taken along this road until the way to this signal discovery was paved by the deftness of Wollaston, who showed that light could not be analyzed unless first passed through a very narrow slit; and of Fraunhofer, the eminent German optician, who first mapped dark lines in the spectrum of the sun. So, too, in our own day, the power of telescope and spectroscope has been vastly extended by the optical skill and mechanical dexterity of the Clarks, Rowland, Hastings, and Brashear, all Americans.

The development of astronomy in America exhibits three distinct and epochal stages, the first a purely practical one, an inheritance from the mother country, embodying the application of astronomical methods to the settling of disputed boundaries. Mason and Dixon's line, run in 1763-67, is the most conspicuous instance. Rittenhouse had observed the transit of Venus in 1769, and Williams of Harvard the total eclipse of the sun in 1780, but no observatory was established for nearly a half-century to come. A second period opened during the first third of the present century with the building of a private observatory by Bond at Dorchester, and the inauguration of astronomical research for its own sake by the youthful and gifted Mason at Yale in 1835. The material resources of many institutions were greatly enhanced during this period, because of two extraordinary astronomical events—one the great comet of 1843, probably the greatest comet of all past time, and the other the discovery of the planet Neptune. The American Ephemeris and Nautical Almanac was founded, the National Observatory at Washington was built, and many institutions of learning were similarly equipped. In the main they have been devoted to research in exact astronomy, involving the application of mathematics to that science; and here it is that most excellent work has been accomplished—among a score of others, by Gilliss and Yarnall as trained observers, by Hubbard and Walker as expert calculators, and Hill and Newcomb as theoretical astronomers of the first order.

Nearly coincident with the civil war came the invention of a new instrument of research, the spectroscope, whose application to the problems of the universe and its constitution has changed the whole aspect of astronomical achievement, and opened a third era, unparalleled in scientific history. Especially prominent are the investigations of Young and Langley upon the sun, of Hough and Lowell upon the planets, of Brooks and Barnard upon comets, and of Draper and Pickering upon the stars. Vast has been the amplification of astronomy during the ensuing third of a century. Human interest has been enlisted more and more, because of the certain discovery that thousands upon thousands of the stars are duplicates of our own sun, and that some at least of our neighbor planets seem to be passing through cosmic stages similar to those which the earth itself experiences.

With all this widening of the astronomical horizon is impressed upon the investigator a consciousness that problems are arising faster than he can solve them. Great, then, is his joy when a new observatory is established, entering the astronomical fraternity equipped with splendid instruments, and manned with a corps of astronomers and physicists whose very names are guarantee of effective service.

Greatest of all events in this third era of American astronomy was the dedication last month of the Yerkes Observatory of the University of Chicago. Prof. Hale, its able director, arranged a programme without precedent, covering nearly an entire week, calling upon his fellow-astronomers for assistance in its execution. First there was a series of morning conferences on astronomical topics extending through four days, and all the better that they were felt to be less formal than association meetings. The most important discovery related was that of oxygen in the sun, its existence being proved beyond question by the research of Prof. Karl Runge of Hanover, who came to the dedication as an especial delegate of the German Government. France was represented by M. Henri Deslandres of Paris. Foreign institutions in other countries sent gratulatory cablegrams.

Prof. Hale did well to organize the conferences with an abundance of papers on purely physical topics; among them Hull of Colby talking on electric radiation, Crew of Evanston on the source of the characteristic spectrum of the metallic arc, and Humphreys of Charlottesville on wave-length as influenced by pressure. In astronomy, Comstock of Madison reported on his investigations of a possible lunar atmosphere; Hedrick of Georgetown exhibited plates taken with the photo-chronograph for doing away with personality in transit observations; Wadsworth, astrophysicist of the new Observatory, described a photographic meridian circle, and Poor of Johns Hopkins a new form of mirror for the reflecting telescope. The conferences, admirably planned and capitally executed, formed perhaps the most enjoyable feature of dedication week; they were, indeed, a veritable "love feast" of physics and astronomy. Afternoons were devoted to inspection of the splendid equipment of the great Observatory in every detail; and many novel demonstrations of exceeding interest were displayed, among them Mr. Brashear's optical surfaces and methods of testing them, and the grinding of a five-foot mirror actually in progress. Every one connected with the Observatory staff was assigned some part in the programme for edifying the scientific visitors; and unfavorable skies alone defeated evening exhibitions of the performance of the forty-inch telescope upon a selected list of test objects, by Profs. Burnham and Barnard.

From twenty-six eligible sites under consideration by the University, Williams Bay, on the shore of Lake Geneva, in the State of Wisconsin, was finally selected; and a lovely spot it is. Astronomically, too, all conditions appear most favorable for that region, and the activities of the new institution can hardly suffer because carried on at a distance of seventy-five miles from the huge city and the parent University. Special trains conveyed the Trustees, members of the congregation, and official guests of the University from Chicago to Williams Bay, under the especial guidance of President Harper, whose gracious vigor made him the ideal master of ceremonies. Some eight hundred in all availed themselves of this unique occasion, and the deft handling of so large a convocation displayed an executive capacity which few astronomers possess.

Under the great dome, nearly a hundred feet in diameter, all were gathered for the specific ceremony of dedication. Prof. Keeler of Allegheny delivered a comprehensive address on the "new astronomy"—more technically astrophysics—and its relations to other physical sciences, especially emphasizing the necessity for farther spectroscopic research upon sun and stars, which the new Observatory has ample equipment for prosecuting. Next came the culmination of the day's doings, when Mr. Yerkes stepped forward to express his complete satisfaction with these tangible evidences of five years' toil, and to hand over to the Board of Trustees the deeds of the entire property, practically all of which had been acquired at his charges. No benefactor of learning ever received, or could wish to receive, a warmer or more heartfelt and wholly spontaneous tribute than did Mr. Yerkes at that crowning moment. A unique situation it was—hundreds of people gathered under the sheltering arches of the vast dome, and beneath the piercing lens of the world's greatest telescope, all gratulant to the man whose well-directed munificence had provided the growing University with unsurpassed facilities for advancing knowledge of other worlds than ours. By force of sheer contrast one was minded of the famous event of 1840, when Sir William Herschel's huge telescope, no longer serviceable, was dismantled with formal ceremonies conducted by all the Herschels, "within the tube itself assembled."*

With impressive dignity President Harper then accepted this magnificent gift, on behalf of his faculty and the astronomic staff, outlining at the same time the history of its development, from the inception on October 2, 1892, when the doors of the University had been opened but three days. The policy of the new department, too, was distinctly set forth, the Observatory being closed to the general public, in order that the precious moments of the able scientific corps may not be frittered in unappreciated explanations to the merely curious. With this the dedication of the Observatory might have been expected to conclude, had not the lavish provision of Prof. Hale and the kindly hospitality of Mr. Yerkes and Dr. Harper contrived otherwise. Yet another day was given to inspection of the buildings of the University in Chicago itself, in particular of the Ryerson Physical Laboratory, where Prof. Michelson exhibited many novel effects in optics of his own devising; to a luncheon given by President and Mrs. Harper at their residence; to an able and entertaining address at the Kent Theatre by Prof. Newcomb, on the "Aspects of Modern Astronomy"; and, last of all, to a banquet by Mr. Yerkes in honor of the scientific visitors.

Prof. Newcomb's address was of that general character to be understanded of all, and he made telling allusions to the members of the Yerkes Observatory staff and their distinguishing astronomical achievements. One brief citation must suffice here:

"The most striking feature of the celebration may be the large amount of effort which it shows to be devoted to the cultivation of a field quite outside the ordinary range of human interest. A little more than two centuries ago, Huygens prefaced an account of his discoveries on the planet Saturn with the

*"We mustered fourteen," wrote Sir John to Sir William Hamilton, "but it would easily have held fourteen more."

remark that many, even among the learned, might think he had been devoting to things too distant to interest mankind an amount of study which would better have been devoted to subjects of more immediate concern. It must be admitted that this fear has not deterred succeeding astronomers from pursuing their studies. The enthusiastic students whom we see around us are only a detachment from an army of investigators who, in many parts of the world, are seeking to explore the mysteries of creation. . . . Neither the measurement of the earth, the making of maps, nor the aid of the navigator is the main object which the astronomers of to-day have in view. If they do not quite share the sentiment of that eminent mathematician who is said to have thanked God that his science was one which could not be prostituted to any useful purpose, they still know well that to keep utilitarian objects in view would only handicap them in their work. Consequently, they never ask in what way their science is going to benefit mankind. As the great captain of industry is moved by the love of wealth and the politician by the love of power, so the astronomer is moved by the love of knowledge for its own sake, and not for the sake of its application. He is proud to know that his science has been worth more to mankind than it has cost."

Prof. Newcomb then sketched the history of astronomy in America in outline, and rounded out his admirable address with pertinent suggestions which the administration of the Observatory can hardly fail to regard in securing that eminent success everywhere expected of it.

The complimentary banquet tendered by Mr. Yerkes concluded the ceremonial of a week prognostic of inestimable scientific good. Prof. Pickering spoke to the toast on the work of observatories, Prof. Harkness responded for the Government, Prof. Comstock for neighboring observatories, and Prof. Hale for the staff of the newly inaugurated institution. To the memory of Alvan Clark, whose masterpiece, the great 40-inch object glass, was borne to its resting-place in the telescope tube only a few weeks before his death, was drunk a toast proposed by President Harper, all standing in impressive silence. Mr. Yerkes announced again his expectation concerning the future of the Observatory and its work; depreeating personal jealousies, evincing a welcome breadth of view highly acceptable to the astronomers, and justifying the belief that, in the midst of the vast and energetic community which has especial pride in this distinguishing possession, future needs of the Observatory are not to remain unsatisfied.

DAVID P. TODD.

GAGNIÈRE'S DUCHESS OF BURGUNDY.

PARIS, November 4, 1897.

After Saint-Simon, after Dangeau, it seems as if there were not much more to say about the life of the Duchess of Burgundy at Versailles. This young princess, who died in the prime of her youth, who had conquered the heart of Louis XIV. by her grace and amiability, has, however, always been a favorite subject for those who study French history. The modern historical method has revived many subjects, by research and the publication of original documents; and the discovery of even a few letters of a famous historical character appears important. We are now in possession of many such documents on the family, the infancy, the youth of Marie Adélaïde of Savoy, on her marriage, on her life in France, and finally on her death.

The Countess Della Rocca published in 1864 the inedited 'Correspondence of the Duchess of Burgundy and of the Queen of Spain.' M. Gagnière has recently completed the work of the Countess, who published chiefly the letters of the Queen of Spain and neglected those of her sister, the Duchess. His volume contains 122 letters—one hundred written by Marie Adélaïde to her grandmother, Madame Royale (born Jeanne Baptiste de Nemours), thirteen written to her father, Victor Amadeus II., Duke of Savoy, one to her brother, the Prince of Piedmont, eight to her mother, Anne d'Orléans; the only remaining letters of a voluminous correspondence which has for ever disappeared. M. Gagnière has further used the diplomatic correspondence of the Ambassadors of Venice from 1696 to 1712, and has found in it details on the life of the Duchess of Burgundy at Versailles, given by men who were, above all, interested in telling the truth. He also found in Venice a relation of the marriage of the Duchess at Paris and of the festivities which followed the marriage, and a relation of the malady and death of the Dauphin.

Marie Jeanne Baptiste of Nemours was the daughter of Charles Amadeus of Savoy-Nemours, the chief of a branch of the House of Savoy which had long been established in France. She left Versailles to marry her cousin Charles Emanuel II. of Savoy. The union was not a happy one. The Prince neglected his wife, leading a very dissolute life; he died in 1675, leaving a son, Victor Amadeus, who may be considered as the true founder of the dynasty of Savoy. Madame Royale was a woman of strong will, and when Victor Amadeus came of age, he found it difficult to assume his independence. Louis XIV. chose a wife for him, Anne Marie d'Orléans, a handsome girl of fifteen years, daughter of Monsieur and of Henrietta of England (daughter of Charles I.), who had been brought up by the second wife of Monsieur, Charlotte Elizabeth of Bavaria, famous for her correspondence, which has made us so well acquainted with Versailles and with the Court of Louis XIV. When Annie Marie d'Orléans left France, she kept up for many years an active correspondence with the Palatine, as her mother-in-law is generally called, but this correspondence has been unfortunately destroyed or lost.

Anne d'Orléans had two children, but, as they were not boys, Victor Amadeus abandoned his wife and became entangled in a fatal liaison with Madame de Verrue. In 1692, after a war between France and Piedmont, one of the articles of peace stipulated a marriage between Marie Adélaïde of Savoy and the Duke of Burgundy, eldest son of the Dauphin. The Countess de Verrue, who had really been no better than a spy while she was the recognized mistress of the Duke, had to leave Piedmont; she had borne two natural children to the Duke, but he became reconciled with his wife, who bore him in 1697, to his great joy, a son, Victor Amadeus Philip, Prince of Piedmont. In 1701 Anne d'Orléans had another son, Charles Emanuel, the only one who lived and reigned.

The young Princess of Savoy had a very difficult part to play at the court of Louis XIV. The King of France considered the Duke of Savoy as a sort of vassal, and wished to assign him a part in all the complications of European politics. The Duchess of Burgundy had to win the favor of the all-powerful Madame de Maintenon. "The Duchess du Lude," she writes to her grandmother, "is come back to me, which fills me with joy, and it is quite true that Madame de Maintenon sees me as often as possible. I think I can assure you without flattering myself that these two ladies love me. . . . I do all you order me as to Madame de Maintenon. I have much friendship for her and trust in all her advice." People had expected to see in the young Princess a semi-savage *Savoyard* (the word Savoyard is still used among the French as the equivalent of a boor); they were agreeably surprised to find her a clever, pretty, and amiable person. The Duchess very soon became mistress of the heart of the King and of Madame de Maintenon. "Those who love me as you do, my dear grandmamma, have often reason to rejoice at all the kindness of the King towards me, as he gives me marks of it every day."

Barcelona, besieged by Vendôme by land and by Admiral d'Estrées, capitulated on August 8, 1697, after a glorous defence by the Spaniards. "I have had great joy in the taking of Barcelona, my dear grandmamma, for I am a good Frenchwoman [*bonne Française*], and I feel everything that can give pleasure to the King, to whom I am as attached as you can wish." I have often marvelled at the rapidity with which princesses married out of their country can change their patriotism. In reality Marie Adélaïde merely meant to stand well with the King, and she always remained a Savoyard at heart. The winter season of 1698 was very brilliant at Fontainebleau and at Versailles; the young Princess was its queen. The King would have her in his rooms every night. "I have a good friend," she wrote, "in Madame de Maintenon, and it will not be her fault if I am not perfectly happy." The Duke of Burgundy, who was shy and timid, conceived for her a passion which ended only with his life. Marie Adélaïde became a sort of idol in the Court; her time was so much occupied with amusements that she had little left for her correspondence; her letters to her grandmother become more and more formal and brief as time goes on.

In 1702 the Duke of Burgundy left for the army in Flanders. The King took great precautions to prevent the Prince from communicating at Cambrai with his former preceptor, Fénelon, who had fallen from grace, but the young Prince succeeded in seeing him for a moment, and embraced him with much emotion. Fénelon had intended to make of him a model King, and had discussed with him great plans of reform. The correspondence of Marie Adélaïde gives us no details on the campaign in which the Duke of Burgundy played a very subordinate part. In 1703 the rupture between France and Savoy became definitive, and till 1713 the two countries remained bitterly hostile to each other. The part of the Duchess of Burgundy became very difficult; in her letters to her family she speaks only (and in very laconic terms) of the French victories, never of the French defeats; she was too prudent to expose herself to the anger of Louis XIV. and of Madame de Maintenon. Speaking of the battle of Höchstädt, gained September 20, 1703, by the Elector of Bavaria over the Imperialists, she says: "We have another reason to rejoice, my dear grandmother, in the battle which the Elector of Bavaria has gained over

Count Styrum. I do not doubt that you already have the details of it, and I will say no more." This was not very compromising.

On the 25th of June, 1704, she had her first son, the Duke of Brittany; the King and Madame de Maintenon were with her all the time. The child died in convulsions on the 12th of April; the Princess was overwhelmed with sorrow. She had soon other troubles; the siege of Turin, the flight of her family to Genoa, the dangers which her father incurred with Prince Eugène in their struggle against her uncle, the Duke d'Orléans, kept her in a constant state of anxiety. "We all need great courage," she says, "to bear such violent pains as we have suffered for some time." Her father became very ill at Embrun during a march on Toulon, and was abandoned by his own generals. The Duchess had a second Duke of Brittany, on the 8th of January, 1706, as frail as the first, and destined not to live.

The Duke of Burgundy was in Flanders with Vendôme, who did all he could to destroy him in the King's estimation, in the interest of the King's bastards. He had to be the witness of great military misfortunes and to assume great responsibilities without having any real powers. Vendôme went so far as to accuse the King's grandson of cowardice. The Duke of Burgundy bore everything with Christian fortitude. The unfortunate Duchess had to take up his defence. She was herself accused by the friends of Vendôme of having spoken ill of various members of the royal family, and was obliged to beg Mme. de Maintenon to protect her against them. There are some curious letters on these delicate subjects in a very rare volume published in 1822 by Firmin-Didot: 'Lettres de Louis XIV. à Madame de Maintenon imprimées pour MM. les Bibliophiles Français.' In one of the letters in this volume, written by the Duke of Burgundy from the camp of Lovendeghem August 27, 1703, to Mme. de Maintenon, he says: "It will be for you, Madame, when I see you, to enlighten me further, that I may take proper precautions lest the Duchess of Burgundy fall into infinitely dangerous snares. . . . Her mind is very deficient in what is called *esprit de femme*. She has a solid intellect, much good sense, an excellent and very noble heart; but you know her better than I do, and the portrait is useless." You can read in these lines the great affection which the Duke entertained for his wife. The influence of Mme. de Maintenon is very perceptible in the letters which the Duchess writes in the years 1708, 1709; her style is better, the expression of her ideas becomes more elegant. Mme. de Maintenon was an admirable letter-writer, and she was the real teacher of the Savoyard Princess. The Duchess, in those troubled years, had but one desire, peace; she grieved to have France and her country at war. Her husband had not revealed himself a great general. Her health became very delicate; she had another child in 1710, the Duke d'Anjou, who became later Louis XV.

The Duchess died February 13, 1712, after a seven-days' illness. The Duke could not be with her in her last moments; he had taken his wife's illness and died himself on February 18. Their son, the Duke of Brittany, followed them a few days afterwards to Saint-Denis. The Duke d'Anjou escaped only because his governess, the Duchess de Ventadour, refused to have him cared for by the doctors. People spoke of poison, and went so far as to accuse the Duke d'Orléans; it is well known now that the Dauphin, his wife, and their child were the victims of a virulent disease. The best proof of the innocence of the Duke d'Orléans is the care which he took as Regent of the young Louis XV.

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LONDON, October, 1897.

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PLOWDEN, Sir Edmund. Grant to him from Charles I of Plowden or Long Island, N. America, or province of New Albion; his appointment as governor and Earl Palatine; opinions in favour of his claim to be thereby a peer of Ireland; 1634-1648, A. 247.
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Account of some proceedings of the Dutch on the coast; June, 1667, A. 195. 102.
Answers by F. Morison to certain questions respecting the rebellion of N. Bacon, A. 185. 256. Particulars to be considered in the dispatch of Sir J. Berry to Virginia; 3 Oct. 1676, *ib.* 259. Instructions for Sir J. Berry on being sent against the rebels; 15-20 Nov. 1676 (*copies*), A. 214. 106, 107. ——for Capt. Ashby on being sent with land forces; 20 Nov. (*copy*), *ib.* 108. Declaration of N. Bacon and the people of Virginia against the governor, Sir W. Berkeley; 1676, A. 180. 306. 185. 257.
Orders for arming the militia against some pirates; 1700, C. 933. 8. Depositions, etc., respecting a French pirate captured in Lynhaven Bay; 1700, A. 271. 39-48. Letters respecting the same ship, with proceedings in the Admiralty of Virginia for its condemnation; (*copies*), A. 272. 89-96.
Account of the emigration to Virginia of French Protestant refugees in 1701; with proceedings thereupon in the Council. A. 271. 9-38. Petition from a colony of French refugees to the governor, F. Nicholson; (*copy*), C. 933, 172.
Memorial from the clergy to the bp. of London in behalf of gov. Nicholson against rev. — Blair; 1703, C. 933. 40.
Ecclesiastical affairs in the colony; 1721, B. 376. 260.
Note on the produce of Virginia, A. 271. 47. Brief notes of advice for traders, B. 465. 146.
URMSTON, John. Bond that he will go as chaplain to Virginia; 25 June, 1722, B. 376. 286.
USHER, John, lieut. gov. of New Hampshire: *v.* Partridge, Richard. Vaughan, Major Will.
Petition to the King; 1719, C. 128. 22.
USHER, John. Nominated by Soc. Prop. Gosp. to be a missionary to St. George's parish in S. Carolina; 1723, B. 376. 305.
WEAVER, Thomas, collector in the prov. of New York. Instructions for him as agent in Engl. for New York; *c.* 1698, A. 272. 26. Letters to J. Champante on affairs of N. York; June, 1701-2, A. 272. 149, 159. Articles of complaint against him, *ib.* 286.
WEST, Bellingham. Log-books of three voyages to Virginia; 1698-1701, C. 872.
WETWANG, John, capt. of H. M. S. *Newcastle*. Instructions for him on going with a convoy to Newfoundland; 15 June, 1674 (*copy*), A. 214. 79. Instructions respecting his bringing home the English forces from Flanders; 24 Dec. 1678 (*copy*), *ib.* 143b. Signature; 1678, A. 181. 368.
WILSON, William. Letter to gov. Nicholson of Virginia; 1700, C. 933. 10.
WINTHROP, John. Petition to Charles II for a renewal of the patent of the colony of Connecticut, A. 175. 109. 176. 13.
WYE, Rev. William, Charleston, Carolina. Sentence of suspension by the bp. of London; 10 Nov. 1718 (*draft*), B. 376. 148. Notice of him in Virginia; 1721, *ib.* 260,
YALE, Elihu, pres. of the council of E. India Comp. at Fort St. George. Abstract of charges exhibited against him; 1690-1, A. 302. 157.
YARDLEY, Francis, Linne-Haven, Virginia. Letter to John Farrar; 8 May, 1654 (*copy*), A. 14. 84.
YOUNG, Capt. John. Letter to Col. John Scott; Boston, N. E., 12 June, 1663, A. 175. 116.

Correspondence.

THE RUSSIAN CENSORSHIP.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Referring to Mr. G. Dock's letter (*Nation*, No. 1686, p. 318), I am able to give very positive evidence. A high official

of the Russian Censorship told me some time ago that M. Leroy-Beaulieu's 'L'Empire des Tsars' was indeed prohibited in Russia; the entire works of Renan and of Zola share the same fate. But, he added, no respectable person or student who appeals to our office for permission to purchase such works meets with refusal. The case is, in fact, quite analogous to that of the works prohibited by the Catholic Church: any Roman Catholic who, pursuing serious aims, wishes to read Renan's 'Vie de Jésus,' is sure to get the necessary authorization from his spiritual guides. It is a fact of daily experience.—Truly yours,

SALOMON REINACH.

CHÂTEAU DE ST. GERMAIN-EN-LAYE,
October 30, 1897.

Notes.

Dr. Isidore Singer purposes editing in twelve quarto volumes, with the "collaboration of more than two hundred of the most illustrious Jewish and Christian scholars," an 'Encyclopædia of the History and Mental Evolution of the Jewish Race.' There will be about 2,000 illustrations. Dr. Singer may be addressed at No. 7-11 New Chambers Street, New York.

One of the early abolitionists (as a Covenanter, an abolitionist *ex officio*), the Rev. N. R. Johnston, is about to publish his reminiscences, under the title 'Looking Back from the Sunset Land; or, People Worth Knowing.' It will make a volume of several hundred pages, with illustrations. Mr. Johnston's address is No. 1024 East Thirtieth Street, Oakland, California.

The New Amsterdam Book Co. announces 'The New Fiction, and Other Essays on Literary Subjects,' by H. D. Traill.

Thomas Whittaker will add to his "Theological Educator" series 'The Ritschlian Theology and the Evangelical Faith,' by Prof. James Orr.

New Mexico has several sorts of landscapes and many sorts of people. 'For the Love of Tonita, and Other Tales of the Mesas,' by Charles Fleming Embree (Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.), well enough depicts one landscape-type—the one which soonest impresses the visitor by rail; but his stories are hardly racy of the soil. His local characters are other people moving among the mesas. New Mexican Mexicans, cowboys, "holdups," French exiles, and "tenderfeet" do not in life all talk off the same cylinder; and the author's medium for their speech is not New Mexican of any complexion. The Mexican girl, in whose little world such class distinctions are absolutely unknown, does not break her heart over a "taint" of Indian blood. Such cowboys and stage-robbers as are Mr. Embree's would be, amid New Mexico, strangers in a strange land. His characters are not uninteresting, but they would do just as well anywhere else—and, in many lands, better.

While it is well known to all students of modern mathematics that the ancient problems of squaring the circle, duplicating the cube, and trisecting any angle admit of no solution by elementary geometry, the great mass of teachers either are unaware of this fact, or are unfamiliar with the nature of the proof. It was on this account that Prof. Klein of Göttingen gave a series of lectures upon the subject, in 1894, which appeared the following year under the title 'Vorträge über ausgewählte Fragen der Elementargeometrie.' So immediate was the recognition of the value of this little work that it appeared in French last year, and soon after in Italian. It is gratifying to learn that its appearance in English is the result of its appreciation in America. The translation ('Famous Problems in Elementary Geometry'), by Profs. Beman and Smith (Boston: Ginn & Co.), is felicitous, and in general appearance the book is decidedly superior to the German, French, and Italian editions. Certainly no teacher of geometry can afford to be without this treatise, which has attracted such universal attention since the publication of the German edition.

The Selden Society sends out vol. ii. of 'Select Pleas in the Court of Admiralty,' edited by Mr. Marsden, and dealing with the years 1547-1602, a period highly important both to the jurisdiction of the court and to many doctrines of English law. The materials here contained for the history of the law of insurance, bottomry, prize, contraband, neutral rights, salvage, wreck, conflict of laws, carriers, and commercial law generally, are novel and interesting. The question of May *vs.* Burdett, in 1846, "Is a monkey a dangerous animal?" was before the Admiralty Court in 1642 (lxxxii.). The traditional phrase "act of God" appears in these records as "so pleased God" or "the hand of God" (lxxxi.). In the fourteenth century the common-law courts had no jurisdiction to redress a tort committed abroad or a breach of a charter party made abroad (xliii.). The history of the harsh old doctrine that wrecked goods were divested from their owner is here traced (xxxix.). There was a time when the right to contract with a salvor for his reward was disputed by officials greedy of fees (xxxvii.). The important part taken by Italians, Dutch, and other foreigners in teaching the methods and legal ideas of modern commerce to the then relatively unenlightened English is illustrated by the frequency of foreign names in the commercial litigation. The history of the rule of division of loss (a specialty of Mr. Marsden's) is given on p. lxxxiii. The giving to ships such names as *Jesus, The Saviour, Holy Ghost, Angel Gabriel, Blessing of God, Virgin Mary* suggests something of the different attitude towards religion which then prevailed. What with the sidelights upon the Armada, the Guelphs and the Ghibellines, Hawkins the sea-fighter, Drake, Walsingham, and others, the pages have an interest for every student of history.

The Hallowell Co. of Philadelphia has issued a compact volume of 270 pages prepared by Major H. C. Groome, Adjutant-General of the First Brigade of the Pennsylvania National Guard, which has been officially recommended for the guidance of the troops of that State. Without claim to originality, the author has so ably condensed the numerous existing works on military organization, discipline, topography, sketching, the care of the health, firing, signalling, etc., etc., as to make his volume a veritable Baedeker to the duties of the citizen soldier, of value to militiamen in every State because of its comprehensiveness and reliability.

The attention of those seeking a more intimate acquaintance with seventeenth-century France should be called to a sumptuous volume in small folio by Émile Bourgeois of the École Normale Supérieure: 'Le Grand Siècle: Louis XIV. Les Arts; Les Idées' (Paris: Hachette). The text is in the main taken from the second half of Voltaire's 'Siècle de Louis XIV.' (beginning in chap. xxv., p. 283, Garnier's edition), supplemented by extracts from Saint-Simon, Mme. de Sévigné, La Bruyère, and others. But the value of the book consists more especially in the exquisite illustrations, six to seven hundred in number, derived from many public and private sources. They represent men and women, buildings and gardens, interiors, specimens of furniture, articles of luxury and utility, costumes, scenes from life, etc., and furnish in their ensemble a genuine tableau of the age.

We have to record the testimony of a distinguished and experienced specialist for nervous diseases as unequivocally in favor of the higher education for women. Dr. Otto Dornblüth, in 'Die Geistigen Fähigkeiten der Frau' (Rostock: Werther), partly invalidates the contrary opinions of certain university professors cited in 'Die Akademische Frau,' which we noticed a year ago. While contributing little that is new to the question—which, it seems, will not be allowed to rest till the battle is won in Germany as well as here—he disposes of several objections with such calm assurance and impartiality that the very tone of the treatise, coming from such a source, seems to augur well for the future.

Angelo Mosso's 'Fisiologia dell' Uomo sulle Alpi' (Milan: Treves) is an interesting series of studies made on Monte Rosa, showing the effects of high altitudes on the muscles, respiration, the action of the heart, the circulation of the blood, the brain, the nervous system, respiration, digestion, and the bodily organs and functions generally. The work is well written and profusely illustrated.

Paolo Luotto's elaborate work, entitled 'Il Vero Savonarola ed il Savonarolo di L. Pastor' (Florence: Le Monnier), is a thorough exposure of the ignorance and prejudice shown by L. Pastor in his account of the character and career of the Florentine reformer in the third volume of his 'Storia dei Papi dalla Fine del Medio Evo.' The vindication is admirable in spirit and most convincing in its allegations of fact. The author is evidently animated, not by the love of controversy, but by a sincere regard for historical truth and a strong sense of justice.

After a full year's delay comes the second of the costly fascicules of the 'Codice Diplomatico Dantesco,' prepared by Biagi and Passerini, under the auspices of the Italian Dante Society. The third, fourth, and fifth fascicules are in press. All four are taken up with the reproduction, both in print and by photograph, of the portions of the Florentine records that concern Dante's share in politics. It is interesting to notice that, of these ten documents, eight have come to light within the last twenty years, and two have been quite recently discovered by the editors—both in a volume of the records which previous investigators had searched, and one on the very page on which a previous find had been made.

We have received from the British Museum an excerpt from its General Catalogue embracing its Shaksperiana — 'Catalogue of Printed Books: Shakespeare (William).' It is a small folio of 232 columns on half as many pages, and the catchword throughout is Shakespeare, with references to the re-

spective authors and editors. This, apart from the entire Catalogue, would impede research more than it does if it were not for a table of contents for the classification, and an index to the several plays. Even so, it is not quite clear why, under Concordances and Dictionaries, the entry should be, "*See* BARTLETT (J.), A New and Complete Concordance," etc., while the same author's 'Phrase-book' is entered without the preliminary reference, a full column below, among works equally amenable to author-entry. The appendix consists of Biography, Bibliography, Criticism, Bacon Controversy, Collier Controversy, Ireland Forgeries, Pictorial Illustrations, Anniversary and Centenary Celebrations, Miscellaneous. We are not informed to what an extent this separate publication from the General Catalogue has been or is proposed to be carried, but the utility of the scheme is obvious, and every library should desire to procure these brochures as an addition to its resources.

Of like character with their Ian Maclaren Calendar is Dodd, Mead & Co.'s Shakspere Calendar for 1898, compiled by two ladies and well illustrated by a third. The general appearance is elegant.

To his numerous calendars for the present season R. H. Russell, New York, adds in four sheets one containing as many cartoons by Frederic Remington—drawings from that Western and Southwestern field which he has so conspicuously made his own. These mounted Indians, in civilized and savage attire, seem to us among the best of the products of this artist's prolific pencil.

The first number of *Literature*, bearing in this country the imprint of the Harpers, does not offend by thundering in the index—unless the clatter of the hoofs of the steeds in Mr. Kipling's poem, "White Horses," be taken for thunder. Apart from this poem, and Mr. Birrell's not very striking paper on criticism, this initial number has no showy bid to make for public favor. All the better and more promising for that, will be the verdict of the sensible, who will see in the book-notices an earnest of sober work and a fulfilment of the pledges made in behalf of the new weekly. One slight awkwardness in the taking over of the English sheets appears on p. 26, where it is stated that the advertising pages number 32—the real number in the American edition being 9.

In the *American Historical Review* for October a good theme, "The Development of the Love of Romantic Scenery in America," is rather inconclusively treated by Mary E. Woolley. Nevertheless, her diligent search in journals and books of travel during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries in particular will probably deter other investigators from going over the same barren field. Suggestive, rather than authoritative, is the paper by George H. Haynes on "The Causes of Know-nothing Success in Massachusetts." As a panic movement, Know-nothingism must be set beside the silver craze, and even beside protectionism (with its more selfish admixture). In Massachusetts it broke up the old political order, to which the Whigs had given a respectability almost aristocratic, at a moment when the Whig party was disappearing for want of something which is better than respectability—courage and independent principle. On the main and already absorbing national question of slavery, the Know-nothings had no advantage in these qualities over the Whigs; and that "two-handed engine at the door" had only to smite once to put an end to both of them. The *Review* contains also a posthumous chapter on the Prussian campaign of 1758, by the late Prof. Herbert L. Tuttle, and a decisive review of the legend of the invention of the cotton gin, prefatory to some interesting correspondence on the subject between Eli Whitney, his family, and associates.

In the last two issues of the *Boletin de la Sociedad Geográfica de Lima* (vol. vi, trimestre 4, and vol. vii, trimestre 1), the publication of the transactions of this vigorous young society is brought up to June, 1897. The President, Dr. Luis Carranza, reviews the work accomplished during the year 1896, which has been very important. Committees appointed to study the effect of high altitudes upon the human organism have been investigating the respiration, chest measurements, condition of the blood, etc., of indigenes and others, and will report within the year. Señor Balta has undertaken geological investigations in Carabaya, the centre of recent activity in gold-mining, with the result so far that he has discovered graptolites and other fossils indicative of Lower Silurian, and possibly Cambrian, age, pushing the geological history of Peru farther back than was previously known or expected. The institution of Geographical Centres, or branches of the main body in Lima, is a new feature, which is apparently yielding excellent results. Centres have been established in Piura, Tarma, Cuzco, and Arequipa (Dr. Bailey, Director of the Harvard Observatory at that point, being its chairman), and another is contemplated at Puno, which will naturally contribute observations on the geography, climatology, and archæology of Lake Titicaca. The intellectual stimulus of these centres is said to be very great, and already a number of valuable papers have been thus called forth, which are reproduced in the Bulletins.

The ethnological and linguistic section of the Society has been peculiarly active, among the papers in the two last numbers of the *Boletin* being "The Root *Chi* in Various American Languages," by Dr. Pablo Patrón; "Vocabulary of the Campas Tribes," by D. Eulogio Delgado; "Characters of the American Languages and of the Keshua in Particular," by Dr. Leonardo Villar; and "The Sumu Indians of Nicaragua," by Courtenay DeKalb. The continuation of Raimondi's Itinerary should be noted, as also a valuable account from all points of view of the Province of Huánuco, by a well-informed writer who conceals his identity. It is regrettable that the Society has lost its Government subsidy of 2,400 *soles* a year, which will considerably restrict its opportunities for usefulness, for a time at least.

The public mind in Germany has been intensely excited by the unusual number of railroad accidents that have occurred during the past summer in different parts of the Empire. According to official statistics, there were in the month of July alone 226 accidents, resulting in the death of 60 and the more or less severe injury of 154 persons. This would give an average of one accident to 110 miles of track. This deplorable state of things is due to an inopportune spirit of economy, which leads the administration to employ common workmen as brakemen, and stokers as engineers, because they are cheaper. That this parsimony is wholly unnecessary is evident from the fact that the railroads turn into the treasury a yearly surplus of more than 400,000,000 marks. It is also true that no expense is spared in order to insure the safety of royal and imperial trains, and this circumstance adds to the popular indignation.

The recent first appearance of a comedy by the Norwegian dramatist Gunnar Heiberg, best known as the author of "King Midas," was, according to Christiania papers, accompanied by disorders of the most violent kind. The play is entitled "Folkeraadet [The People's Council or Parliament]," and is a keen satire on modern parliamentary methods in Norway. Tin horns were freely used by the indignant supporters of legislative government "as she is practised," and the author's appearance on the stage was greeted with an enthusiasm that would have been more flattering had its motives been less mixed. As a work of literature, "The People's Council" is reported as being disappointing, not approaching in force of characterization the earlier drama.

The American publishers of Gadow's 'In Northern Spain,' reviewed in our last issue, are, as we should have noted, the Macmillan Co.

—For the second time, Mr. Thomas Bailey Aldrich has the distinction of a uniform edition of his Writings—now called "The Riverside Edition," and in eight volumes, of which two are of verse (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). In form and workmanship they should satisfy any genuine literary ambition, and, so far as the poetry is concerned, it includes all that Mr. Aldrich wishes to be associated with his name, plus the customary pieces in which the public's judgment has overruled the maker's, and which cannot well be withdrawn. Such a fate is almost inevitable even for those who, as Mr. Aldrich says in one of his quatrains, with a personal application if not intent, strive that "the diamond with its own rich dust Be cut and polished." Mr. Aldrich being, as his two portraits from recent photographs by Cox show him to be, still well preserved, it cannot be thought that we have here a definitive assembling of his literary productions. But were it so, the mere bulk of these would place him first in the line of succession to Emerson, Lowell, and Holmes, to say nothing of Longfellow and Whittier, whose prose was disproportionate to their verse. The muse, whether of Bret Harte or of Mr. Howells, is too attenuated to admit them to the contest for the American laureateship, while Mr. Aldrich's nearer rivals either shine in verse alone or have not aggregated so large a prose output. Whatever opinion may be held as to the true heir apparent of the worthies named, and as to the measure of the gulf between him and them, no one can peruse Mr. Aldrich's poems without being struck with the fact that he belongs to a new generation, with scarcely a feather's weight of the moral burden of the bards of the forties. The initiated may read this to a nicety in the "Monody on the Death of Wendell Phillips," and in the "Shaw Memorial Ode" with which the second volume concludes; pure artifice, we are tempted to say. It is not without significance that, but for Bret Harte and his Heathen Chinee, not a single one of the poets now nearest the front in years and in the quality of their work figures in the final edition (1891) of Bartlett's 'Familiar Quotations.'

—A sumptuous large quarto (Edward Arnold), by Mr. Albert Hartshorne, Fellow of the Society of Antiquaries, deals with a neglected subject, 'Old English Glasses.' Not content with giving the first account of glass drinking-vessels in England from early times to the end of the eighteenth century, Mr. Hartshorne also sketches, by way of introduction, the vicissitudes of the making of glasses on the Continent—a topic not hitherto dealt with in English. The documentary evidence on which this work is based fills many pertinent footnotes, and occupies a most ample appendix, while the actual glasses figured require 366 cuts, showing their subjects usually at one-third of the original size, and 67 full-sized plates in lithography. Of the beauty of these last, which are veritable facsimiles of the originals, too much can hardly be said. It is possible, Mr. Hartshorne thinks, that Roman glass was actually made in Britain, but this is more problematical than the equally disputed production there of rude glass vessels in Anglo-Saxon times. Several specimens found since 1851 are figured, and it is made out that they can hardly have been imported. Still, no artistically beautiful glasses were made in England, apparently, until the sixteenth century. Three post-Roman glasses which are pictured class themselves as Merovingian, and were made probably on the upper Rhine. Later on, the choice glasses were Oriental or Venetian, and finally Flemish. A beautiful Oriental cup known as the "Luck of Edenhall," is figured, and the striking legend connected with its name is given by our author.

—The renaissance of glass-making in England, brought about by workmen from Venice, whose sojourn lasted from 1549 to 1551, was the beginning of better things. Verzelini came a little later, and then gentlemen glassmakers from Normandy and Lorraine, but the real creator of English glass-making was Vice-Admiral Sir Robert Mansell, who embarked capital in glass-making, employed able men like James Howell in his enterprise, and made various technical improvements. When Mansell died it was becoming impossible to ignore English glass-making, and no Frenchman could longer maintain that the English drank "out of their boots." In his ninth chapter, Mr. Hartshorne examines the household inventories of Lord William Howard, Dorothy Dame Shirley, and many others. So curious and startling are the glimpses which he thus gains into the privacies of seventeenth-century life that he more than justifies, even for the untechnical reader, his minute antiquarian study of glasses. The eighteenth century remains. Here documents are few and insignificant, but the actual number and variety of glasses is enormous. One of the master strokes in the work is the clear and convincing classification of eighteenth-century glasses. Mr. Hartshorne, in establishing these sixteen classes, has made a very solid contribution to the scientific study of his topic. Still, the untechnical reader will be more competent to appreciate the chapter on Jacobite glasses. This chapter is full of the most curious and entertaining matter, and cannot fail to delight all who care for picturesque and eccentric historical details.

—It is now more than fifty years since Antoine Frédéric Ozanam published his examination of the philosophy of Dante, viewed in its connections with scholastic philosophy in general. The success of the book, 'Dante et la Philosophie catholique au 13me siècle,' as it is called, was immediate, and several French editions of it appeared. It was further soon translated into Italian and into German. Ozanam's position as a protagonist of romantic Neo-Catholicism gave it a wide public; and his really broad and deep scholarship gave it authority even among those very remote from his religious views. It became at once the recognized source of information in regard to Dante's philosophy and theology; and its genuine value is proved by the fact that, in spite of the remarkable activity of Dante students in the past two generations, no one has succeeded in superseding it. Many details of Dante's intellectual obligations both to the ancients and to his scholastic predecessors have been cleared up of late years, but the general results obtained by Ozanam have remained unshaken. And it may still be said that every serious student of the poet must keep Ozanam constantly in his hands. This being so, it is remarkable that in England and America, both countries whose higher life in our century has been profoundly affected by the study of Dante, no translation of Ozanam's work should have appeared. Even if students proper found the French form better suited to their wants, one would suppose that the widespread popular study of the 'Divine Comedy' would have caused the need of such a book to be felt and supplied. Indeed, treatises far inferior in every way have met with a considerable sale. The fact remains, however, that until now the English student of Dante who reads French with difficulty or not at all, has had to do without this aid. It is a real service, then, that Mrs. Lucia D. Pychowska has done for the diffusion of a sound knowledge of the poet in her version from the French of this valuable book (New York: The Cathedral Library Association). Obviously engaged with a labor of love, she has made a translation which is at once readable and generally faithful to the original. Some perplexity in the rendering of the subtleties of scholastic terminology we have observed here and there, but little that is really misleading to the reader. Our only serious regret is that careless proof-reading of the notes has left a good many references inexact.

—*Science* reprints the concluding portion of the address on "Improvident Civilization" which was given at Detroit by the Vice-President of the Social and Economic Science Section of the American Association for the Advancement of Science. In this it is urged that the time is ripe for at least making a beginning towards obviating that extremely improvident feature of existing civilization—the diversity of languages that exists between the great nations of the world. The amount of labor that is entailed in all matters of commerce and of learning by this diversity is only too obviously a thing to be deplored; the interesting point is that, from the action taken by the above-named body at the close of the address, it is considered by a respectable number of learned men that there is a possibility of diminishing it, without waiting for the time when one nation shall have swallowed up all others by way of conquest. The plan proposed is that the important countries should fix upon some one language to be used as an alternate language; that the study of this language (together with the native language of the country) should be made compulsory in schools, and that all documents for interlingual use, such as passports, navigation charts, and astronomical codes, postage stamps, money orders, letters of credit, coins, tables of metric systems, and various other things, should be inscribed in both media. This would form a beginning which might be expected to lead to important consequences. The work of the world is becoming daily more and more international and interlingual; for scientific purposes no less than for commerce the urgent need for a common code of communication is sure to be more and more strongly felt; and once the chosen language were fixed upon, it could be trusted to make rapid strides towards adoption.

—If the Germans had already shown so much feeling for international solidarity (or for the plain dictates of good sense) as to be willing to give up their black-letter text, more might be hoped from them in the way of adopting a secondary language other than their own. But it is well known that Bismarck, at the time when his word was law, pronounced forcibly against a change which was already making much headway, on account of his desire to foster an enthusiasm for everything of a national character. It was only the scientific people who were able to hold out against this strong pressure, and it is chiefly scientific books that are to-day printed in Germany in Roman text. The scientific people, with their overwhelming accumulation of printed matter, and with the interest which they already take in the promotion of uniformity in classification and nomenclature, must be depended upon to start this most revolutionary reform, if it is to be started at all.

THE MYCENÆAN AGE.

The Mycenæan Age: A Study of the Monuments and Culture of pre-Homeric Greece. By Dr. Chrestos Tsountas and Prof. J. Irving Manatt. With an introduction by Dr. Dörpfeld. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1897. Pp. xxxi, 417. $6.

Of the two authors of this book, Professor Manatt of Brown University is known as a most enthusiastic student of all that pertains to Greece, and his four years' residence in that country as United States Consul during Mr. Harrison's Administration gave him excellent opportunities which were well used for acquiring familiarity with the objects of which the book treats. His style is facile and picturesque. To Tsountas, however, belongs the lion's share of the credit for the learning of the work. Of all men he is best qualified to write of the Mycenæan Age. Not only is he an erudite scholar, but for ten years he has conducted in person the most important excavations having to do with prehistoric civilization in Greece. His name has come to stand by the side of those of Schliemann and Dörpfeld, and many look upon him as already designated to succeed Kabbadias as Ephor-General of Antiquities for the Kingdom of Greece.

The basis of this work is Tsountas's Μυκῆναι καὶ Μυκηναῖος Πολιτισμός (Mycenæ and Mycenæan Civilization), published in 1893, which, being written in modern Greek, was sealed not only to the general reader but also to many archæologists, while its plan was unsatisfactory, having been

modified in the course of its composition. This book was translated into English by Dr. Newhall, and then revised, rearranged, and in part rewritten by Dr. Manatt, with large amplifications and supplements, to which the original author contributed. The rearrangement and new division of topics has been well done, and the improvement in the book is great, but of course the reader cannot tell how much of the new material was furnished by Tsountas, except as he is informed that Tsountas wrote the new chapter on Mycenæan writing, and his colaborer that on the Mycenæan World and Homer. The uncertainty of source is increased since the Greek author is sometimes referred to by name, while at other times he speaks of his discoveries with the editorial "we," in which the American author is not included. The new illustrations are many, important, and good, although the "half-tone" figures of Mycenæan gems are unsatisfactory, and in some of the plans the lettering is indistinct. One or two of Chipiez's restorations might well have been added.

Classical scholars, archæologists, and all educated readers will welcome this clear and readable account of what is now known of the early civilization of Greece. During the last quarter of a century, excavations have brought to light a great mass of facts with regard to the life of the people in Greece, the Greek islands, and the northwestern corner of Asia Minor, near the close of the second millennium before Christ, but hitherto no satisfactory and comprehensive statement of these facts has been made in English. To the cosmopolitan Schliemann we owe the foundations for the "science of the spade"; but for his work at Hissarlik and Mycenæ, the Germans might not have excavated the site of Olympia, nor the Americans that of the Argive Heræum, nor would the French now be digging at Delphi. Schliemann, however, was himself far from scientific in his early work, although, urged by unbounded enthusiasm and guided by like confidence in the Homeric poems, his efforts were crowned with success. At first, naturally enough, he did not appreciate better than others the nature and difficulty of his task, and thought to settle the question of the site of Homeric Troy by scratching the ground for a few days with the mattocks of a half-dozen laborers, without carts or barrows, on the hill where twenty years later he had three tram-roads to carry off the dirt dug by his men. Thus his reports of his excavations, though published with most praiseworthy promptness, were not exact and clear until he secured the assistance of Dörpfeld for the work at Tiryns and later for Troy. The endeavor to obtain from Schliemann's first three books a clear idea of what had been done and found (except in the way of treasure and vases) at Hissarlik, was a maddening task, and these books have now no value for the general reader, and only historical interest for the archæologist.

With all his success Schliemann sometimes blundered, and his opinions erred; he destroyed important structures at Hissarlik because they seemed to be in the way of his finding Homeric Troy; he was not thorough in his examination of the mound raised over the ashes of the Greek warriors at Marathon, and supposed that he had proved it not to be what it really was; he would have abandoned the excavation of the pit-graves in the circular enclosure at Mycenæ in which the great treasures of Mycenæan wealth were found (Tsountas says in a note in his original work), if it had not been for the urgency of the Greek Ephor; he believed to the day of his death that the Homeric Troy was the second stratum from the virgin soil at Hissarlik, while Dörpfeld found, after only a little additional and independent work, that the sixth layer presented unmistakable indications of a civilization akin to that at Mycenæ, and hence was the city for which Schliemann had looked for more than a score of years.

In 1889 Dr. Schuchhardt made an excellent book, with many plates and cuts, on Schliemann's excavations, which was well translated into English by Miss Sellers two years later; but while to some extent Schuchhardt illustrated Schliemann's discoveries by comparisons from other fields, his book was far from being a systematic presentation of what was known about the civilization of the Mycenæan age, but rather, as its title declared to be its aim, discussed successively Schliemann's different excavations. In 1892 Prof. Percy Gardner of Oxford published a book entitled 'New Chapters in Greek History,' valuable and suggestive, but intended only "to give a rough outline" of the "historical results of recent excavations in Greece and Asia Minor." He wrote on Phrygia and Troas, Mycenæ and the Islands, the palace at Tiryns, recent discoveries and the Homeric poems, ancient Cyprus, Naucratis and the Greeks in Egypt, etc., but did not undertake to paint a picture of the life in prehistoric Greece. The discussion of Hissarlik as the site of Homeric Troy lay then of course still under the influence of the view that the second or burned city was the Homeric Troy, and the author naturally found great difficulty in connecting the remains of (perhaps) 2000 B. C. with the much later and more highly developed civilization of Mycenæ. He thought the kings of Mycenæ might have been of Phrygian extraction, but even then "Agamemnon would be as truly Greek as George III. was English." With good reason he supposed the Dorian invasion of Peloponnesus (about 1100 B. C.) to have been a slow process instead of a sudden incursion.

During the five years since Gardner's 'New Chapters' appeared, continued discussions and excavations have done much toward the solution of vexed problems. After the exposition in 'The Mycenæan Age,' few will doubt that the civilization here set forth is that of Greeks, and that its art was native, and, though under the influence of the art of Egypt and the East, not dominated by these. That the people who bore this civilization had wealth and power in Bœotia, Attica, Argolis, Sparta, the Greek islands, Crete, and near the Hellespont in Asia Minor, is certain. That Mycenæ seems to be the centre of this civilization agrees well with the saying of Homer that Agamemnon was "king over many islands and all Argos." The life depicted in the Homeric poems appears to be somewhat later than that indicated by the monuments of the Mycenæan age, as one would expect from the poems themselves, where the poet never claims to have seen the great struggle before Troy and knows that he lives in a degenerate age; but the difference is not so great as some have maintained who assume a sudden lapse into barbarism on the downfall of the prosperity of Mycenæ.

Curiously enough, while only a few years ago critics were impugning Homer's veracity, saying that he could not have seen products of an art so developed as he describes, now they say that he must be of a much later age, since the objects found at Mycenæ and Vaphio are so elaborate and artistic. Dr. Dörpfeld is understood to hold that the story of the monuments agrees well with that of Homer. Doubtless much remains to be learned from Troy, for which scholars are eagerly awaiting Dörpfeld's great work, and still more from Crete, where, under the Turkish Government, systematic explorations and excavations have been so difficult as to be impracticable. Recently, as our readers know, Crete has furnished specimens of the earliest style of writing on Greek soil, and the latest work on Greek mythology finds indications of strong Cretan influence in the cults of most Greek States. According to the old Greeks themselves, this island of Minos was one of the very earliest seats of Greek civilization, and scholars may well hope that investigations there will be as fruitful as those at Troy, Mycenæ, Tiryns, Orchomenos, and Vaphio have proved.

To the general reader the chief value of this book, of course, lies in its clear exposition of facts with regard to the landmarks of the Mycenæan world, the fortress-city, the palace, the private house and domestic life, the dwellings of the dead, dress and personal adornment, arms and war, some phases of Mycenæan art, the islands as mediators in art, writing in Mycenæan Greece, religion, the problem of Mycenæan chronology, the problem of the Mycenæan race, and the Mycenæan world and Homer. To the archæologist the ingenious views of Tsountas in explanation of these facts are full of interest, although often mere theories. He holds that the shaft-graves belong to an early race of Greeks called Danaans, akin to the Minyan founders of Orchomenos, who came from the north, where they had dwelt on piles, like the inhabitants of the Swiss lake cities, and established themselves first at Tiryns in the midst of a marsh, and then on the Larissa of Argos and at Mycenæ. Later, another race of Achæan Greeks came from a colder region, where they had been accustomed to underground dwellings, and, advancing toward the south, met the Danaans at Mycenæ, overcame them, and fortified that citadel still more strongly. To these Achæans belong the "beehive" tombs and chamber-graves, since they made the dwellings of their dead as like as possible to those of the living. One of the strongest supports of this hypothesis, however, is removed by Dörpfeld's explanation of the ruins of the private houses found at Mycenæ, of which the tall foundations without opening were compared by Tsountas to the supports of the lake-dwellings; and another argument, which recognizes in the great corridors and chambers of the citadel of Tiryns "a reminiscence of the primitive palisade earth-work such as is found in the *terramare* of Italy," is inconsistent with a passage on page 23, where these chambers are compared with similar structures in Carthage and the authors "assume that Phœnician and Lycian alike, in Africa and in Argolis, are employing a construction borrowed from an earlier Asiatic race." Another statement introduced on the same

page (334) is probably wrong. There the American editor says that the Homeric "heroes never go fishing but once, and then only in the last pinch of famine." In fact, the men of Menelaus fish in the fourth book of the 'Odyssey' as well as the followers of Odysseus in the twelfth book, and the Homeric expression hardly justifies the common belief that the heroes would eat fish only "in the last pinch of famine," while the poet is certainly familiar with fishing not merely with net and with hook (with sinkers, and horn to prevent the fish from biting off the line), but also with fish-spear, although the heroes may not have cared particularly to "suck of the abundance of the seas and of the treasures that are hid in the sands." And, on the other hand, the absence of fish-bones from the remains of Mycenæ does not prove that the inhabitants of those ruined houses never ate fish; the bones of a shad or even of a cod are not so imperishable as oyster-shells.

Dörpfeld's introduction contains in its eleven pages, with much commendation, the clear statement of six points in which he differs from the Greek author. The translation from Tsountas's work is accurate. Twice (pp. 189, 201) "probably" stands for "possibly" (ἴσως). On p. 56, at the bottom, 37 should be read for 27; 1890 for 1895, near the top of p. 61; XX for XI on p. 299. Zara, Mideia, Pronoia, and St. Elias of the text correspond to Szara, Midea, Pronia, and Elias of the map. Kampos (pp. 8, 160) is in Messenia, not Laconia—at least, according to the ancient bounds. "Peisander" (p. 148) is for "Periander." The proof-reader has allowed to stand "*provénance*" (*sic*), as well as "*provenance*," "provenance," and "provenience"; and εὐκνημίδες (for ἐυκνήμιδες) twice. If the transfer is required of the Greek technical terms *parastades* and *tholos* for *door-posts* and *dome*, these and *dromos* should have been explained when first used.

A critic is not expected to complain of the cost of a book for which he has not paid money, but he may express the regret that a book of such general interest and importance to classical scholars should be listed unnecessarily at so high a price as six dollars. This price cannot be due to the illustrations, for the plates and cuts are not so numerous as in the similar work of Schuchhardt, and, with half-a-dozen exceptions, they are no better. A good index is provided, which the original edition wholly lacked.

GARDINER'S GUNPOWDER PLOT.

What Gunpowder Plot Was. By S. R. Gardiner, D.C.L., LL.D. Longmans, Green & Co. 1897.

Mr. Gardiner's latest contribution to our knowledge of the Stuart period has a somewhat unusual character. It combines the excitement of a detective story with the broadest outlines of national policy. Father John Gerard, S.J., published not long ago a doughty attack on the received version of the Powder Plot. The substance of his book had been presented to popular audiences in London, and, with the aid of lantern illustrations, had attracted considerable attention. Indeed, the *Edinburgh Review* thought it worth while to refute him. Mr. Gardiner now comes forward armed cap-à-pie to conclude the controversy in defence of the story which is told to children in the elementary schools. Keeping strictly to his text and dismissing all extraneous matter, he contrives in four chapters to sift the testimony so far as it relates to the active conspirators. Two chapters more interpret the episode in the light of James's attitude towards Roman Catholics. The difference between the two adversaries is, that while Father Gerard is content with casting doubt and with adumbrating a solution incapable of proof, Mr. Gardiner defends a distinct thesis. The one assures us that "the history commonly received is certainly untrue," and broadly hints that Salisbury either devised or fomented the plot for his own advantage. The other sets out by saying: "Of course there must be some ragged ends to the story—some details which must be left in doubt; but I shall ask my readers to watch narrowly whether the traditional story meets with any obstacles inconsistent with its substantial truth." One cannot complain that the defendant is less clear-cut and decided than the plaintiff is. Whatever else may be said of the two books, it is certain that Mr. Gardiner has no passages so weak as those in which Father Gerard, by innuendo and the hearsay of later generations, seeks to implicate Salisbury.

A proper examination of this recent literature on the Gunpowder Plot would involve a comparative view of the two writings just named and of the *Edinburgh Review* article. At the very least, Father Gerard and Mr. Gardiner are inseparable. Gauden and Milton, 'Eikon Basilike' and 'Eikonoklastes' are not more bound up together. Though we find ourselves unable to enter upon the subject in its entirety, we shall keep sight of the fact that dialectical interest is its keynote. Prima facie, Father Gerard's discovery seems to be a mare's nest, and the motto of his Society hardly promises pure historical criticism. On the board of commissioners were men hostile to Salisbury and inclined to lenient treatment of the recusants—men of honor withal. The evidence was good enough for them, and they were doubtless in possession of much information which has since been lost. With this feeling at the outset, we are soon confirmed in our suspicion that the special pleader is at work by the manner in which evidence is treated. Bishop Talbot, Osborne, Goodman, Father Grene, and Lord Cobham are among the witnesses subpœnaed to damage Cecil's reputation. Then, as if their separation from the event were not fatally damaging to their testimony, the second Earl of Salisbury is made to say, on the authority of an anonymous writer in Fulman's Collection, that "the plot was his father's contrivance." Mr. Gardiner is the last man to let pass such looseness of treatment even in a minor matter. When it comes to a polemical occasion, he is quite right to keep his eye on his adversary's manner of using the sources. However, instead of getting vexed, he merely shows surprise. "It seems strange to find a writer so regardless of what is, in these days, considered the first canon of historical inquiry, that evidence worth having must be almost entirely the evidence of contemporaries who are in a position to know something about that which they assert."

The reviewer in the *Edinburgh* is appeased when he has picked Father Gerard's objections to pieces. Mr. Gardiner is much more particular. He uses the analogy of a key in the wards of an intricate lock. If one theory fails try another. After the last has been tried in vain it will be time, and then only, to exclaim with a hopeless air, "What *was* the Gunpowder Plot?" Mr. Gardiner's first key is the accepted version, and he finds that no other is required. He puts Fawkes into the witness-box, follows him through his various depositions, and, having arranged the facts thus obtained, proceeds to the later documentary evidence. His conclusions at this stage are that the Government's knowledge was at the outset extremely slight; that Fawkes was gradually forced by cross-examination and torture to tell a more coherent story; that he bears true witness to the mine and cellar; that Winter's deposition is authentic; and that the exchange of Keyes's name for Winter's in the report of Fawkes's examination on the 17th "was at least the erasure of a false statement and the substitution of a true one."

Father Gerard is much concerned by the topographical difficulties that hinder one's belief in the ancient tale of Gunpowder Plot. Mr. Gardiner devotes a chapter to these and to the contention that the bulk of powder reported is incredible. He grants that Whynniard's house, of which Percy leased a part, has been erroneously located when placed to the southwest of the House of Lords; but, with the aid of the Crace collection of plans, he finds a house which "alone combines the conditions of being close to the House of Lords and having a door and window looking towards the river." Connected with this house was a piece of waste land mentioned in a deed of 1600. It was fairly large, and ran down to the river. When, therefore, Father Gerard objects that mining operations could not possibly have been carried on with secrecy in a district so populous as Westminster, Mr. Gardiner replies: "Nobody who had not business with Percy himself or with his neighbor on the south would be likely to approach Percy's door. As far as that side of the house was concerned it would be difficult to find a more secluded dwelling." Mr. Gardiner undoubtedly follows the safest course in meeting topographical objections by antiquarian research. Still, a single obvious consideration would have satisfied most people. Thousands upon thousands of curious visitors must have gone to Westminster in the months immediately following the discovery of the plot. Negative evidence must be used with caution, but some one would have noticed and talked had there been a discrepancy plain to the eye. One cannot now reconstruct the whole precinct of St. Stephen's, but clearly Father Gerard is too clever by half. The powder difficulty is quickly dismissed. Father Gerard assigns 400 pounds to the barrel instead of the 100 pounds then usual. This is a thrust of the *Edinburgh Review* which Mr. Gardiner considers final.

Closely allied to Father Gerard's theory that Salisbury promoted the plot to draw in Jesuits is the question of discovery. Was Monteagle's letter the first warning or was it invented for theatrical purposes? Father Gerard, on the watch as he is for traitors, fastens on Percy and Catesby—Percy, who in his opinion was a bigamist, and Catesby, who gave false reports to Sir Everard Digby and said false things about Garnet. This is to upset the accepted view that the secret escaped through Tresham's hint to his brother-in-law and to forge a long chain of treachery. The case against Percy consists

of Goodman's report that Sir Francis Moore, "going homeward from York House to the Middle Temple at two [in the morning], several times met Mr. Percy, coming out of that great statesman's house, and wondered what his business should be there." The case against Catesby is too flimsy to deserve repetition. Mr. Gardiner's unfaltering opinion is that word came to Monteagle through Tresham, and that the letter which gave the Government its first hint of impending danger was prepared with Monteagle's previous knowledge. Else why should he, when on the point of sitting down to supper, have handed it to one of his gentlemen with a direction to read it aloud? Tresham had been brought into the plot at the eleventh hour for the sake of his influence and wealth. The theory is as old as Jardine that, shrinking in the end from wholesale slaughter, he helped to contrive Monteagle's Hoxton visit and the dramatic reading of the letter. Mr. Gardiner acquits Salisbury from the charge of connivance, on the ground that he would have acted stupidly in giving the plotters a chance to escape:

"Salisbury's object, according to Father Gerard's hypothesis, was to gain credit by springing upon the King and the world a partly or totally imaginary plot. If he was to do this, he must have some evidence to bring which would convince the world that the affair was not a mere imposture; and yet it is to be imagined that he contrives a scheme which threatens to leave him in possession of an obscure letter, and the knowledge that every one of the plotters was safely beyond the sea."

Fawkes and his band disbelieved in discovery because the cellar was not searched, and remained to be caught instead of effecting an easy escape.

Having disposed of matters arising from Sir Thomas Knyvet's raid on the cellar, Mr. Gardiner takes a higher flight. The men concerned in this desperate attempt were far from being bravoes or blackguards by profession. They were of good estate, brave, and devoted to a cause. Why, then, were they willing to sacrifice life on such a colossal scale? The answer is, that they were driven to a corner by the enforcement of the recusancy laws, and believed that James had broken pledges made when he was a candidate for the crown. From the charges brought against him, Salisbury's part in the proceedings against Catholics is traced with great care, and Mr. Gardiner's concluding chapters show that, his policy having been accepted and partially carried out, he was above the need of ingratiating himself with the King at the time the plot came to light. We must pass rapidly over what is the most striking feature of the case, both historically and in view of the present dispute—the responsibility, to wit, of Garnet, Greenway, and other spiritual advisers for this scheme to exterminate King and Lords. What Father Gerard can put on Salisbury's shoulders may, with plausibility, appear to be taken off the shoulders of Henry Garnet. But as Salisbury is not very heavily burdened, neither, in our opinion, is Garnet very appreciably relieved.

We should like to supplement this epitome of Mr. Gardiner's main arguments against Father Gerard by a short paragraph of general comment. The Gunpowder Plot may once have resembled "London column," which,

"pointing at the skies,
Like a tall bully, lifts the head and lies."

That is no longer the case. Every one whose judgment is worth attention knows that the mass of Roman Catholics are as free from its stigma as from connection with the fire or the mythical conspiracy of Titus Oates. Father Gerard need not exculpate them, and exculpation, we are fain to believe, is his main end. In the background lurk two critical questions. What were the teachings of the Jesuit order in the matter of assassination, wholesale or retail, and what was the motive of the Government in persecuting Catholics? Both of these questions Father Gerard leaves aside, but both are of enough consequence to justify him in continuing the discussion past the point where he has dropped it. His explicit tenets would be of considerably more interest than are his indirect shafts. For the present we heartily commend Mr. Gardiner's action in noticing this attack upon a hitherto accepted verdict of history. Like the fallacies of the circle-squarer or of the man who maintains the earth's flatness, Father Gerard's sophisms can be dealt with if taken seriatim. Mr. Gardiner has been at considerable pains to prove to his readers a conclusion which must have been clear to himself when he read Father Gerard's book. Moreover, he has handled the weapons of controversy with perfect skill and courtesy. We shall not attempt to deny Father Gerard's deftness of sword-play. In this respect he equals the Oxford defenders of 'Phalaris.' But his assault on Gunpowder Plot belongs to the large class of historical paradoxes—clever and ingenious, yet suggesting a famous comment on French cookery. The French, says Thackeray, make so many excellent dishes from the top of a nettle, it is a pity they haven't a little good butcher's meat.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.

'Toinette, and Other Stories,' by Barbara Yechton (Whittaker), is a series of tract-like tales about some young seamstresses, shop-girls, and restaurant waiters who belonged to a girls' friendly society. Without offence to such societies, we must lament that an honest philanthropic enthusiasm is not the only qualification needed by a story-writer, and sometimes actually hinders success. The present book will suit only an embryonic literary taste, and for information we should prefer an annual report.

The heroine of a girls' book by Frances Courtenay Baylor, 'Miss Nina Barrow' (The Century Company), unites in her own small person all the faults imputed to the most exaggerated of American children; consequently, the feeling she awakens in a well-regulated family of fourteen or fifteen English cousins whom she visits at their country home is, naturally, one of amazement and horror. Her indignation at their plain fare and simple clothing meets their wonder at her smartness and utterly rude manners with comic effect. The picture of English family life is of real interest, and one hopes it may be typical. The improvement wrought in a most unpromising infant phenomenon by a more tonic treatment than she had received from her weakly indulgent grandmother, is not entirely surprising, for we are said to be an adaptable people. Perhaps it is a mistake to class this among children's books. At least, we find a very positive lesson for parents lurking behind the child's story.

'The Adventures of Mabel,' by Rafford Pyke (Dodd, Mead & Co.), inspires a degree of respect by its beautiful type and paper, and by its simply expressed pictures, for which three values have sufficed; but when one comes to read the story, indifference or disapproval arises. Some will stop at indifference when they find positive merit lacking, and think us over-critical to object to a childish heroine who, thanks to a fairy gift, tames a fierce wolf in the forest and a wildly unmanageable horse, who takes the lead in a piece of defective work, and copes single-handed with a monstrous giant of the old-fashioned child-devouring kind; and, in consequence of these and like actions, often hears her grandmother say, "You are a very wonderful little girl"—a judgment she accepts without disclaimer. Such incidents, to be sure, may be told in a harmless burlesque way, but unless better guarded than in this instance nothing would be more likely to foster conceit.

The Century Company send out this year 'A New Baby World,' composed, like its predecessors of former editions, of selections from *St. Nicholas*, chosen by Mrs. Mary Mapes Dodge. Many of the pieces are new to Baby World, but some of the old favorites will be welcomed again.

The 'Fairy Tales from the Far North,' translated from Asbjörnsen's Norwegian by H. Braekstad (Armstrongs), suffers by a close comparison with the translations from the same author by the late Sir George Dasent, which he called 'Tales from the Fjeld.' It is small blame to say that the English of the present translations does not equal that of the earlier volume, for that stood above rival in racy vigor. But having already in English a translation of these tales that left nothing to be desired, what possible call is there for H. Braekstad or anybody else to give the same thing over again in even slightly inferior form? Of course the selections in these two volumes are not identical, but a cursory examination shows that fourteen of the forty tales in the present book appeared also in 'Tales from the Fjeld,' and, as the stories often have changed names, possibly more of them are concealed behind such a mask.

Mr. Andrew Lang adds this year to his fairy rainbow a 'Pink Fairy Book' (Longmans & Co.). The supply of this delightful lore is plainly inexhaustible to one who holds the key to its treasury, and in this volume, still, "the world is all before us where to choose." Japan and Africa, Sweden, Denmark, and Italy—with who knows how many other far regions?—all have some wonder story in reserve for the lucky English child.

Many a bit of information is given about the ways of insects and small beasts and birds in Clara Dillingham Pierson's 'Among the Meadow People' (E. P. Dutton & Co.)—given, too, with the sugar coating of imagination which is thought needful to make anything like a fact go down with the youngest readers. It is with some surprise that we hear of a butterfly's visiting, in one and the same day, a daisy, a cardinal flower, and a violet. Still, after watching violets bloom throughout the past season from May to the very edge of November, it might be rash to find fault with the above combination, although it is not a usual one in this part of the country. The book, however, deals rather with animal than with vegetable life, and will be a pleasant addition to a young child's library.

'The Plant Baby and its Friends' (Silver, Burdett & Co.) is designed by its author, Kate Louise Brown, as a first reader in botany for primary scholars. Numerous drawings in the text illustrate botanical distinctions, and many of the hard words needed for exact description are insinuatingly introduced.

Miss Wilkins's excellent prose is good enough for most of us, and we think few will prefer the versified form which she adopts in 'Once upon a Time' (Lothrop). She seems to feel a little apologetic about it herself, and makes her appeal "to the sweet charity of little folk." Some of the verses are graceful, however, and pictures abound; among them none is more attractive than the

"Dear little model lassie,
Who was seen, but never heard."

'Adventures in Toyland,' by Edith King Hall (Scribners), is a group of stories told by a doll to a little girl, about the doings of dolls and toys in the seclusion of private life, when children are out of the way. Their adventures seem almost too tame to be worth chronicling, but they at least furnish an excuse for some odd-looking pictures which are doubtless expected to provide fully half the amusement.

Wild and grotesque fancies throng the pages of 'The Flame Flower, and Other Stories,' written and illustrated by J. F. Sullivan (J. B. Lippincott Co.). This exhaustless supply of puns and oddities will feast the childish imagination, but we should rather expect the youngsters to resent the frequent sly winks at their elders and the references which they cannot understand. The pictures are numerous and decidedly interesting. They show forth better than words many surprising wonders of natural (?) history like the omnibustard, the porcupineapple, etc.

'Here They Are,' a companion book by the same author, published by Longmans, Green & Co., offers a most unpromising exterior. A great bogie which suggests nothing so much as the famous "bandersnatch—the jaws that bite, the claws that catch," seems to stand guard over the volume and threaten rather than entice the approaching child. But, being old and brave, we venture inside the cover to find, as in 'The Flame Flower,' excellent, though rather frightful, pictures, and stories full of quaint conceits which inevitably suggest our old friend "Alice" and her Wonderland, but which have enough vigor and originality of their own to avoid the reproach of imitation. An amusing figure is that of the pirate's prim little mother, aged ninety-three, who innocently makes tea on deck beneath the black flag, and goes below whenever an engagement is on, being told by her thoughtful son that rain threatens. Another real acquisition is "The Blue Thing with White Dots"—a creature who begins life as a nondescript animal, and the only one who lacks a mate, in a child's Noah's Ark; whose youth is saddened by ignorance of his name, in quest of which he wanders far and long till finally he is discovered by one of his early human friends as an object of worship among a savage tribe.

'The Missing Prince,' by G. E. Farrow (Dodd, Mead & Co.), needs little comment. It is just such another book as the same author wrote last year—full of dreary nonsense without a spark of genuine fun. Its poor quality makes ridiculous the author's complacent preface in which he speaks of receiving "many nice letters" about his former book, and asks his young friends to write and tell him what kind of a story they would like him to write next but one—the very next being already in hand. This is demand and supply with a vengeance.

'Singing Verses for Children' (Macmillan) is a holiday collection of eighteen songs, the words by Lydia A. Coonley, pictures by Alice K. Tyler, music by Eleanor Smith, Jessie J. Gaynor, F. W. Root, and F. H. Atkinson, jr. Musically the best of the songs are Mr. Root's, and of the whole collection it may be said that the three arts combine in about equal proportion in giving the book such merit as it possesses.

Last year the Scribners issued a 'Field-De Koven Song Book,' and its favorable reception has encouraged them to produce another book on similar lines, 'The Stevenson Song Book,' a musical setting of Robert Louis Stevenson's charming 'Child's Garden of Verses,' in which the great novelist revealed himself as one thoroughly in sympathy with the child nature. Twenty of the poems have been provided with music, by De Koven, Stanford, Gilchrist, Homer N. Bartlett, Hawley, Foote, and Chadwick. These songs are hardly on a level with Stevenson's verses, none of them being specially original; but they are popular in character, and those who enjoy the average operetta—which means a great many—will like them.

'Three Operettas,' by H. C. Bunner, the music by Oscar Weil (Harpers), is another volume for young folks in which the poetry is superior to the music, though that serves its purpose well enough. Although two of these operettas are in two acts, and one in three, they are all very short, and amateur performers with their audiences will find them quite amusing. The names of the operettas give an idea of their nature—"The Three Little Kittens of the Land of Pie," "The Seven Old Ladies of Lavender Town," and "Bobby Shaftoe." The scenes are laid in various places, but the time is always "once upon a time." There are not a few sly touches of humor that cannot fail to please children beyond their teens.

The Boston Browning Society Papers. The Macmillan Company. 1897.

In this massive volume the eleven-year-old Boston Browning Society offers to the world for the first time a series of essays intended to represent one of its "many modes of activity." In their preface the editors strike the defiant note of those whose efforts have hitherto been misunderstood. They claim that these papers will

"demonstrate to the most sceptical of those who in the past have failed to perceive the significance of the literary movement which the Society represents, and, therefore, have failed to appreciate the value and permanency of its results, that the literary criticism pursued by the Society has been broad in scope as well as impartial and scholarly in quality."

We fear that there are hardened critics whom even these essays, penned as they are by "men and women who have attained eminence as specialists in philosophy, theology, and literature," will leave cold. Among the worshippers of true poetry and true romance are those who think that there are certain characteristics (and those the most essential) in the work of every great poet which can only be cheapened by the most careful explanations that the "sound and broad culture" of Boston can furnish. There will ever be those who would rather read their "Childe Roland" with a thrill of the mysterious than search out its lessons under the guidance of the exponents of ethical culture. They will complain, with a certain modern critic who lamented that the London Browning Society had explained his divinity away, that "where one had hoped that Browning was a mystic, the Society has sought to show that he was merely inarticulate. Where one had fancied that he had something to conceal, the Society has proved that he had but little to reveal." To the vast majority, however, which craves to have every subtlety digested into words by the literary critic, these essays will afford ample sustenance. The æsthetic critic, nowadays, needs more than ever to remind us of the "long-standing feud" between Poetry and Philosophy, which Plato hardened his heart to maintain. The efforts of the Boston Browning Society seem aimed to prove that in Browning these old enemies have kissed again with tears. For the Society, as for Lessing, the catharsis—the soul's purification by a work of art through the emotions of pity and terror—must be moral, not æsthetic. "Qu'est-ce que cela prouve?" asked a spectator, after the performance of "Athalie." For the Society, every poem of Browning illustrates a rule of conduct and bewails the lack of harmony between that rule and the actions of the individual soul. Rarely are we allowed to forget the "moral culture" that we ought to carry away from a reading of the poems. "The Greek words for beautiful and ugly have secondary meanings of honorable and base," remarks one essayist; "that is to say, ethics is assumed to be a branch of æsthetics—an idea quite contrary to our New England bringing up" (p. 393). ". . . I think that both Homer and Browning believed that poetry should be didactic" (p. 396). Seldom, indeed, do we meet the purely æsthetic point of view in these papers, though more than one title takes the name of Art in vain.

One distinction, too often neglected, we should like to see maintained. The words "Philosopher" and "Philosophy" strike the eye on every page. But from your true philosopher who, judging undisturbed, decides that the freedom of the will is an illusion, that good and evil are merely relative terms, that there can be no data for the belief in the permanence of the ego after death, it is a far cry to Browning the moralist and the Browning Society pointing the moral. "To-day we look at the moral side of a question and neglect the others," says the author of "Browning's Art in Monologue." "Nothing is of any account except as it helps me to be, except as it develops my soul. The world talks in such fashion to-day to those who would gain its ear. Its favorites are . . . poets who preach, like Wordsworth; . . . a leader of our time must be a teacher of morals." This is the keynote of nearly all the essays. So we have sixteen pages of lessons drawn from "Caliban on Setebos," closing in this strain:

"We Calibanise when we transcribe into the character of God our own defects, and attribute to Him qualities inconsistent with either wisdom, justice, or love. We Calibanise when we impose our intellectual limitations upon the universe; . . . and when we imagine that the universe is run

chiefly in our personal interest or in hostility to us, how much we must resemble the creature who takes his own capricious likes and dislikes for samples of the Cosmos!" (p. 83).

Is this "literary criticism," or is it the peroration of a sermon? The sense of the chaotic which invades a reader of these essays is, we think, mainly due to this constant interfusion of Art and Ethics.

"Broad scope" is claimed for these papers in the preface. No one who reads the one entitled "Homer and Browning" will accuse its author of narrowness of stride. An essay that aims at an "intelligent comparison" of Homer and Browning would tax a colossus. It is, in a sense, true that "Homer's 'Iliad' and Browning's 'Ring and the Book' are both founded on certain infelicities of married life" (p. 391), but the parallel of Helen of Troy and Pompilia is one that the world should be willing and even anxious to let die, along with the striking antithesis, "Homer is often eloquent. . . . Browning seldom aims at eloquence." It is in this essay (p. 389) that we are told that

"the probable date of Homer, who, for the purposes of this paper, I assume was a real person, may be stated roughly as 1200 B. C. . . . His works afford the only clue to his character; and from them we can but infer that he was quite unlike the consumptive-looking individual represented by the bust that bears his name. Like Browning, he evidently was a man of the world, keen-sighted and robust, with a wide experience of life in all its phases."

This is to lapse into "careless habits of accuracy" with a vengeance.

Several of these essays treat of the influence of the classics on Browning, and quote the well-known lines from "Old Pictures in Florence" as a proof of his "repudiation, once and for ever, of the Pagan ideal":

"To-day's brief passion limits their range;
It seethes with the morrow for us, and more.
They are perfect—how else? they shall never change:
We are faulty—why not? we have time in store.
. . . . . .
They stand for our copy, and once invested
With all they can teach we shall see them abolished."

It is true that in Browning's literary life there was a long Gothic period when he was possessed by the vague, which is ever repulsive to the true Hellenic temperament. Too rarely in that period do we recover the calm beauty of "Pauline" of the early days:

"They came to me in my first dawn of life.
. . . . . .
I tell you, naught has ever been so clear
As the place, the time, the fashion of those lives:
I had not seen a work of lofty art,
Nor woman's beauty, nor sweet Nature's face,
Yet, I say, never morn broke clear as those
On the dim clustered isles in the blue seas,
On deep groves and white temples and wet caves;
And nothing ever will surprise me now—
Who stood before the naked Swift-footed,
Who bound my forehead with Proserpine's hair."

But in later life, when the fever was gone, there was a renaissance of classical influence shown in his translations of Aeschylus and Euripides which may stand for Browning's palinode. Still, we are far from agreement with the author of "Balaustion's Opinion of Euripides," who contends that "Browning's transcript is not a misrepresentation of the Greek dramatist" (p. 430). We fail to see how one who is acquainted with the "Alcestis" can object to Mr. Verrall's statement that "Balaustion's Adventure" is a "thorough-going recomposition of the subject." Balaustion is, in fact, like Jowett's Plato, *très belle, mais peu fidèle*. The obvious danger that besets the members of such a society is lest their conviction of Browning's supremacy should run away with their critical sense—a danger that has not always been avoided in these papers. Even idolatry of Browning is seldom as headlong as that of the essayist who (p. 285) gives the epithet "bewitching" to the line—

"Like a late moon, of use to nobody";

and calls it "a passage of flawless and satisfying beauty."

But the Boston Browning Society's Muse, like Hesiod's, can speak the real truth when she will, and incautious admiration is by no means the rule in the present case. The volume certainly does credit to the industry of the Society. "Whether it's worth while goin' through so much to learn so little," as Mr. Weller said of matrimony, is a matter of taste.

The Story of the Cowboy. By E. Hough. D. Appleton & Co.

In the well-aimed "Story of the West" series we have had already two worthy volumes—'The Story of the Indian,' by Mr. Grinnell, and 'The Story of the Mine,' by Mr. Shinn. It would be considerable praise to say that the third book in the line fully merited its place; but it would be too little to say of Mr. Hough's rather unexpected work, which is thoroughly competent and illuminative—an uncommon study of a type so strange that we are not yet used to looking upon it soberly.

The cowboy has a story, and it was worth telling. Probably no other figure in American development has been so misconstrued. Every Eastern imagination knows this Western person—this picturesque, irresponsible, galloping, sixshootering dime-novel-on-horseback. Thousands of sensational or superficial pages and scores of "wild shows" have framed him as settled a convention as Uncle Sam—and with about as much accuracy. Among all who have fattened at his expense there has seemed to be no disposition to show him as he really is—a hard-working, honest, expert, unflinching man, whose technical education required at least the length of a college "course"—and as inevitably must be the man who has accomplished so much. It was only with the beginning of serious work by Mr. Roosevelt and other men who have known the real West and were competent to tell of it, that we began to get reasonable glimpses.

Yet no one has illuminated the subject as Mr. Hough does. With an almost unimpeachable knowledge of detail, he has unusual faculty for telling in large. In so long a story he sometimes suggests repetitions; but his style is peculiarly apt to his theme. It is of the very temper of his field—clear, forceful, contained; sure-footed and bridle-wise as his own "cow-pony." It nowhere runs away with him, but, with so steady a hand on the rein, frequently comes to an effective eloquence. For further confirmation of how the cowboy does *not* talk, act, or think, one may read Mr. Lewis's contemporaneous 'Wolfville' and be amused; to discover what this long-rider does feel, how little he says of it, and in what fashion he says it, it is useful to read Mr. Hough and be informed.

Mr. Hough draws a figure which is not only true but convincing. Satisfactory to the expert, the cowboy becomes intelligible at last to the layman. Suddenly he stands human. He is no longer a freak but a product—a product and a factor. Instead of a theatrical "property," he is a hard (and generally sober) fact in history and economics. He can gallop, and at times does; but he rides through life at a trot. If sometimes dramatic, it is because his existence is generically so severely practical. When we understand the average of this curious type, there ceases to be mystery in the fact that he tamed for sedentary colonization an area larger than that which still includes two-thirds of the population of the United States.

Mr. Hough traces this specific American type back to its germ in the Spanish-American vaquero, who was as picturesque, as expert, and as typical, but less a factor in large economies, because ungrowing. Here the chain is weakest. There is steady gain in the smithing as the author passes, link by link, to the first Saxon pupils of the Mexican cattle-compeller—the Texan squatters—and thenceforward. The unprophetic beginnings and the foreseeing development of "the Long Trail" take hold upon real romance. In another land it would have been sung by troubadours; here, for a thousand to whom "cowboy" is a household simulacrum, there are perhaps fifty who ever heard of this strangest highway in history. But Mr. Hough brings up the rear. He celebrates the Trail, not only with truth, but in a prose which has many large elements of the epic, and is furthest from what ordinarily passes for "poetic style."

Detail is easy to patience, yet no one has so accurately detailed the life and circumstance of the Western cattle-man. Successful generalization is another thing; and no one has nearly so well exhibited the broad significance of this serious, dogged, shrewd struggle with Nature which made, and *was*, the cow-man. It is not necessary to agree with the author as to the kinship of beef-eating and freedom; but he proves the relation of the "cow-country" to the winning of the West. Behind—and enabled by—the cowboy, farms and fences have crept, and a thoroughfare to the Pacific; and, following, have exterminated him. He was not all good, he was not half bad—just a man, shaped by the frontier; rude but fairly heroic. Like the less misjudged trappers and hunters and scouts, the Boones and Carsons and Godeys, he served larger horizons by doing his own narrow duties to the best that was in him or could grow there. Mr. Hough has done a service in drawing at scale this direct, unique product and factor of one typical stage of our development—typical though brief. It was a service to prove the dignity of this one type, which is but another form of every type that met and beat the wilderness in behalf of civilization.

It is particularly aggravating to find in a book of this character such persistent cacographies. *Grama* is conscientiously misspelled "gramma" throughout; *hacendado* is "haciendado" here, with "chaparéjos" for *chaparrejos*. Wholly inexcusable is "broncho," "the Spanish word for wild." No cowboy ever called his horse "Bronch"; it is always "Bronk." Bronco is a Spanish word, invariable in Spanish and in scholarly English; but there are proofreaders who seem to fancy that the word is Greek, and that the vaquero entitled his horse after some "bronchial" infirmity.

Histoire de la Langue et de la Littérature Française. Tome III. Paris: Armand Colin.

The third volume of this important work

does much more than fulfil the promise of the first two, partly, no doubt, because of the greater intrinsic interest of the period discussed, but still more from the spirit in which the collaborators have understood their respective tasks. An admirable introductory sketch by the editor (Prof. Petit de Julleville) sets forth the principles of the Revival of Letters, and insists on the fundamental differences in aim and desire between the strictly religious reformers and their worldly-minded, scholarly contemporaries of the Renaissance. The writer also shows clearly, with the help of carefully selected quotations, that between the Middle Ages and the Revival of Secular Learning the solution of continuity was by no means so complete as conventional opinion would heretofore have had us believe. M. Marty-Laveaux's treatment of Rabelais in the succeeding chapter disposes, skilfully and without over-display of erudition, not only of the gossip frequently connected with the satirist's life, but of the several wire-drawn hypotheses which vainly attempt to explain the obscurer parts of his work; while the critic's independent conclusions force into salient relief the main traits of Rabelais's nature as well as the really important part of his literary and philosophical labors. One might wish, however, that the late Eugène Noël's charming, if not learned, book had been granted a place in the bibliography.

As is but just, the poetry of the sixteenth century occupies many pages in the volume. No general estimate of the Pléïade, to our knowledge, presents so complete and judicial a view of the movement as that of M. Pellissier, which should be read with care by all students of French literature who have been led to take their opinions from the hackneyed, but superficial, verses of Malherbe and Boileau. Nor is there any paradox in maintaining with M. Pellissier that Ronsard and his school were filled with the "classic" spirit of which the following century saw the complete development, and that the Romanticists of 1830, in claiming literary descent from the Pléïade, failed to understand this vital characteristic of its complex tendencies. M. Rigal, in the sixth chapter, has no difficulty in giving attractiveness to the account of the transition from religious to secular plays, but he wisely refrains from enlisting his readers in defence of the high artistic merit of either. His concluding sentence, on the Pastoral Drama, might without rashness be extended to most of the works examined: "Il ne lui manquait que d'avoir produit des œuvres de talent, ou, plus simplement, des œuvres qui méritassent d'être lues."

Among theologians, Calvin and St. François de Sales hold the foremost places. While disclaiming any intention of touching on disputed points of purely theological interest, the commentators (MM. Petit de Julleville and Rébelliau) have not hesitated to express candid opinions on the men themselves and the literary worth of their work. Followers of the one will probably not relish the characterization of him as the "Pope of the Reformation," hostile to the spirit of tolerance, and swollen with "égoïsme intellectuel"; while the faithful of another order may wince over a paragraph which dwells on the milk-and-water wordiness of St. Francis's sermons. Much the most interesting chapter is that devoted to the Moralists, in which Montaigne and Charron seem to us to have received the fairest of judgments from M. Paul Bonnefon, who takes the latter down from the pedestal on which Buckle placed him for English readers, and vindicates the character of the first of essayists from the too common charges of indifference and cowardice. The same critic's examination of the scientific literature of the sixteenth century, chiefly in the work of Palissy, Ambroise Paré, and Olivier de Serres, leaves little to be desired, save that, before quoting a famous aphorism, 'L'Art Poétique' might with advantage have been consulted. Boileau's verse runs—

"Ce *que l'on* conçoit bien s'énonce clairement,"

and not

"Ce *qui se* conçoit."

etc., for reasons of euphony sufficiently obvious.

To historians and writers of memoirs a somewhat scanty place is allowed in this volume, which summarizes the work of Sully in two pages. Fuller justice is done to Bodin, La Boétie, and the authors of the 'Satyre Ménippée'; this last work, by its patriotic and national spirit, no doubt compelling ampler recognition of its merits. The last and longest chapter contains M. Ferdinand Brunot's continuation of the historical development of the language during the same period. We do not know any work in French, generally accessible to the public, in which the details of the long struggle for supremacy between Latin and French are more carefully and interestingly worked out, or in which the subject is treated with equal fairness and lucidity. We would venture, however, to point out a Macaulayesque mannerism in the writer's too frequent use of the phrase "tout le monde sait."

As we have already insisted, the example given in this collaboration of French scholars and critics calls for imitation in English-speaking lands. What strikes one most forcibly in it is the careful avoidance of the polemical tone, the absence of faddish bias. It will be hard for any public or academic library to do without it.

Pompeji vor der Zerstörung: Reconstructionen der Tempel und ihrer Umgebung, entworfen und ausgeführt von C. Weichardt. Leipzig: K. F. Koehler; New York: Lemcke & Buecher. 1897.

This folio volume contains (apart from the text, which is printed in large, handsome type by Grumbach of Leipzig), twelve full-page or double-page plates, made (from water-colors) in photogravure by Bruckmann of Munich, and 150 process cuts of the finest sort, executed in the Royal Academy of Art in Leipzig. The merest glance at this triple product is enough to show that in artistic beauty it is not excelled, and hardly equalled, by any of the works which have ever been published about Pompeii. A more careful examination assures one that it is to be praised not only for its beauty. The author is professor in the Royal Academy of Art in Leipzig, and a painter in water-colors of real genius. He has lived in Italy for many years, and he knows his Pompeii through and through. His work is the result of study and painting on the spot, not of the theories and dreams of the archæologist in his study. His larger illustrations are real works of art, deserving admiration as such altogether aside from their archæological value as restorations of the ruins of Pompeii. They have none of the stiffness and frigidity that characterize all the restorations attempted in the standard works on the city which died that it might live for ever. The atmosphere of human life is all about them, and it is no wonder that Ernst Curtius, after studying the first plates, admitted "dass ihm hier zum ersten Mal Pompeji menschlich näher träte."

But Weichardt is not merely an artist. He is also a practical architect and a scholar possessed of a real knowledge and a true appreciation of the facts of ancient life. He is sufficiently familiar with the literature of his subject, ancient and modern, and he has a most intimate acquaintance with the contents of the wonderful Museum of Naples, so indispensable to every thorough student of Pompeiian and Roman antiquity. Most of his smaller pictures are from photographs of objects in the museum which he has used for the details in his large plates. Others are from photographs of the details of the ruins which he reconstructs. Of both kinds many are here published for the first time. There is not a second-hand cut in the whole book, and the student will not be repelled by the vain repetition of subjects familiar to him from his Overbeck, his Mau, or his harmless accessory Smith. It is true that Weichardt's work is done throughout from the standpoint of an architect, and yet his style is such as to make his book popular in the best sense of that term. Here and there are inserted chapters particularly technical, which, as he says, "laymen may skip."

The twelve large plates are devoted to the Forum Triangulare and its neighborhood, the Greek temple, and the temples of Apollo, Fortuna Augusta, Jupiter, Vespasian, Isis, and the Three Gods. Besides the chapters on these buildings, their details, and their surroundings, there are two introductory chapters on the history of Vesuvius and Pompeii, and another on ancient and modern excavations on this site. A final chapter contains a translation of Pliny's letters about the fatal eruption. Prof. Weichardt intends to publish a companion volume on the public buildings and private houses of Pompeii, provided the reception given to the present work warrants him in so doing. Everybody who sees this book will look eagerly to the fulfilment of his promise. His restorations are the work of a sane, practical mind, and generally it is only in small details that they call for hostile criticism. His most serious probable error seems to be his providing two of his temples with an uneven number of columns in front; yet he has much to say in defence of this peculiarity.

A Correspondence between John Sterling and Ralph Waldo Emerson. With a sketch of Sterling's Life by Edward Waldo Emerson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1897.

If Carlyle's 'Life of Sterling' is not read by many persons nowadays, as Mr. E. W. Emerson surmises in his prefatory note to this little volume, the more is the pity, for, except his 'Reminiscences,' it is the most tender piece of writing that he ever did, and touches religious matters in his most persuasive manner. Mr. Emerson resents the "Poor Sterling!" note in it, and there was no doubt too much of that, but, nevertheless, the book deserved a warmer commendation to his readers than Mr. Emerson has given it. His own sketch is brief but excellent, within the narrow

limits he prescribes for it. If it errs at all it is by overestimate of Sterling's gifts. Time has winnowed his harvest of prose and verse, as it has many another, and there is not much of it that is of the kind which men do not willingly let die. He appears to have been one of those whose personality is more than anything they do, and who mean more to their friends than we can justify from their writings. In Emerson's case this personal effect of Sterling was so strong that it did not require their knowledge of each other in the flesh. For a friendship so purely spiritual, theirs was very warm and intimate. But it is evident from Emerson's letters that he did not find Sterling so stimulating a correspondent as Carlyle. It is only when the shadow of death is resting upon Sterling that Emerson's writing to him attains his highest mark.

When we read, in Sterling's letters, of Cornelius as the greatest of modern painters, the note is one to give us pause, and there are many such. Thus, Tieck was the one man in Europe Sterling wished to see. His glimpses of Carlyle are interesting, but both he and Mr. Emerson, his editor, do injustice to his feeling for poetry. Sterling writes of him that he "in truth hates all poetry except for that element in it which is not poetic at all." For absolute disproof of this one has only to turn to the new Life of Tennyson and read the letter Carlyle sent to Tennyson on the appearance of the volumes of 1842. Sterling himself reviewed those volumes in the *Quarterly*, and so appreciatively that we do not like to find him saying here, "Tennyson does better [than others], but does little, and they say will hardly wake out of tobacco smoke into any sufficient activity." This would be comprehensible as written during Tennyson's long and almost absolute silence from 1833 to 1842, but, written less than two years after the splendid harvest gathered in the volumes of 1842, it seems at once ungrateful and absurd.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Prof. F. F. Selected Letters of Cicero. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.35.
Anstey, F. Baboo Hurry Bungsho Jabberjee, B.A. Appleton. $1.50.
Armstrong, Annie E. Mona St. Claire. F. Warne & Co. $1.50.
Armstrong, Eliza. The Teacup Club. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.25.
Atkinson, Philip. The Elements of Electric Lighting. 9th ed. D. Van Nostrand Co. $1.50.
Banks, L. A. An Oregon Boyhood. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Barber, Samuel. Trash: A Society Novel. New York: The Author. 25c.
Bardeen, C. W. Teaching as a Business. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. $1.
Barnes, James. Commodore Bainbridge: From the Gunroom to the Quarter-Deck. Appletons. $1.
Barton, W. E. A Hero in Homespun: A Tale of the Loyal South. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.50.
Benham, Charles. The Fourth Napoleon: A Romance. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Black, Alexander. A Capital Courtship. Scribners. $1.
Burr, Rev. E. F. Fabius the Roman; or, How the Church Became Militant. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.50.
Burton, Richard. Memorial Day, and Other Poems. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.25.
Butterworth, Hezekiah. True to His Home: A Tale of the Boyhood of Franklin. Appletons. $1.50.
Cable, G. W. Old Creole Days. Illustrated. Scribners. $6.
Carty, C. F. All about the Emerald Ring. G. W. Dillingham Co. 50c.
Chuquet, Arthur. La Jeunesse de Napoléon. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Cleary, Kate M. Like a Gallant Lady. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.25.
Craddock, Charles E. The Juggler. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Curtis, C. C. A Text-Book of General Botany. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.
D'Auréville, J. A. B. Of Dandyism, and of George Brummell. London: Dent; Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.50.
Douglas, Amanda M. Her Place in the World. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Fowler, Jessie A. A Manual of Mental Science for Teachers and Students. Fowler & Wells Co. $1.
Garrison, Wendell P. Parables for School and Home. Illustrated. Longmans. $1.25.
Gibson, C. D. The People of Dickens. Drawings. R. H. Russell. $5.
Gill, William. The King of the Street. G. W. Dillingham Co. 50c.
Grand, Sarah. The Beth Book. Appletons. $1.50.
Hutchinson, Rev. M. N. Marriage Customs in Many Lands. Appletons. $4.
Hyde, W. DeW. Practical Idealism. Macmillan. $1.50.
Ingalls, J. K. Reminiscences of an Octogenarian in the Fields of Industrial and Social Reform. New York: M. L. Holbrook & Co.
Inman, Col. H. L. The Old Santa Fé Trail. Macmillan.
Jacobs, W. W. The Skipper's Wooing. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.
Jenks, E. A. The Spinning Wheel at Rest. Poems. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
King, Capt. Charles. The General's Double. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Lang, Andrew. The Book of Dreams and Ghosts. New ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Lang, Andrew. Wordsworth. [Selections from the Poets.] Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Lillie, Mrs. Lucy C. A Girl's Ordeal. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co.
Lindsay, W. M. Handbook of Latin Inscriptions. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.25.
Maclaren, Ian. The Potter's Wheel. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Manly, Prof. J. M. Specimens of the Pre-Shaksperian Drama. Vol. I. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Mansfield, Richard. Blown Away: A Nonsensical Narrative. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.25.
Marble, Mrs. Annie R. Carlyle's Heroes and Hero-Worship. Macmillan. 80c.
McCaffery, M. J. A. The Worst Boy in the School. G. W. Dillingham Co. 75c.
Muir, H. D. Poems. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Munkittrick, R. K. The Slambangaree, and Other Stories. R. H. Russell. 75c.
Parker, F. W., and Helm, Nellie L. Uncle Robert's Geography. [Home Reading Books.] Appletons. 50c.
Peattie, Elia W. Pippins and Cheese. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.25.
Phillips, W. A. The War of Greek Independence. 1821 to 1833. Scribners. $1.50.
Phil May's "Graphic" Pictures. George Routledge & Sons.
Pinsent, Ellen F. Job Hildred, Artist and Carpenter. Edward Arnold. $1.25.
Poole, Louella C., and Jonsson, Andréa. Shakspere Calendar, 1898. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Pope, M.M. Up the Matterhorn in a Boat. Century Co. $1.25.
Posterity; or, Democracy, A.D. 2100. London: Williams & Norgate; New York: Putnams.
Riley, J. W. Neighborly Poems and Dialect Sketches. Scribners.
Setoun, Gabriel, George Malcolm. F. Warne & Co. $1.25.
Shirley, Penn. The Happy Six. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 75c.
Skeel, Adelaide. King Washington: A Romance of the Hudson Highlands. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Smith, F. H. Gondola Days. Illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Stephens, R. N. An Enemy to the King. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.
Tennyson, Alfred, Lord. The Princess. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 24c.
The Chatelaine. Buffalo: Peter Paul Book Co.
The Encyclopædia of Sport. Parts VII. and VIII. Putnams. Each $1.
Thoreau, H. D. Walden; or, Life in the Woods. 2 vols. Illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.
Thwaites, R. G. The Jesuit Relations. Vol. IX. Quebec, 1636. Cleveland: Burrows Bros.
Tyner, Saul. The Living Christ. Denver: Temple Publishing Co. $1.
Van Dyke, Henry. The First Christmas Tree. Illustrated. Scribners. $1.50.
Ver Beck, Frank, and Paine, A. B. The Dumpies. R. H. Russell.
Wallace, J. H. The Horse of America. New York: The Author.
Wait, Frona E. Yermah the Dorado. San Francisco: William Doxey.
Whitman, Walt. Leaves of Grass. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $2.
Wilson, Mrs. Lucy L. W. Nature Study in Elementary Schools. Macmillan. 90c.
Within Sound of Great Tom: Stories of Modern Oxford. London: Simpkin, Marshall, Hamilton, Kent & Co.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 25, 1897.

The Week.

The agreement between the seal experts, conferring at Washington, appears to have been reached by dovetailing their reports together, contradictory parts and all, and then putting their names, in a spirit of delightful harmony, to the resulting conglomerate. A casual application of the methods of the higher criticism will reveal the authorship of the several parts of the document. Thus we have the assertion that "pelagic sealing involves indiscriminate killing"; that is plainly an American expert. But the Canadian has his innings in the opposing statements that "the pelagic sealers respect the limitations of the law," and also that "pelagic sealing has of late fallen off in greater ratio than the herd has, thus producing a tendency towards equilibrium in numbers." So, throughout, an American contention is balanced by a Canadian contention, and all the experts heartily agree to everything. "The catch at sea contains a marked excess of females" (American). "The killing of males on land is the cause of this" (Canadian). It is all very funny, but, of course, it is "a great victory for the United States." The greatness of the victory is evident to the meanest understanding when one observes how this unanimous agreement of the experts riddles many of the statements made in Secretary Sherman's coatless dispatch. That precious document had much angry talk about the Canadian sealers violating the terms of the Paris award; the report says explicitly that the "limitations of the law" have been observed by the pelagic sealers. Mr. Sherman, or whoever wrote his dispatch for him, was certain that the herd would soon be exterminated unless the murderous Canadians were called off. Says the report: "The herd is not in danger of actual extermination so long as its haunts on land are protected and the protected zone is maintained." That is to say, if the American killing is properly guarded, the Canadian pelagic sealing will not exterminate the herd. These two admissions in the report which is such a tremendous victory for us, throw down Mr. Sherman's dispatch like a house of cards.

Sir Wilfrid Laurier must be a worse man than we take him to be if he is not affected by the reproaches levelled at him by the sorrowful American press. Everything had been made so easy for him to walk into Gen. Foster's seal trap. It had been hinted that Canada might fall back on her undoubted legal rights in the matter of pelagic sealing, but this was a suggestion positively shocking to our best newspapers. They refused to take so low a view of Canada. She would undoubtedly agree to stop pelagic sealing on the ground of kindness to animals. Sir Wilfrid was too tender-hearted a man to chaffer over questions of tariffs and alien laws when the chance was given him to save the lives of seal pups and "bachelors," so that we might slaughter them at our leisure. But despite all these blandishments, the Canadian Premier has gone home insisting on the monstrous proposition that if Canada is to make a concession to the United States, the United States must also make a concession to Canada. This unheard-of obstinacy and this undiplomatic proceeding on the part of Sir Wilfrid have at last stricken the scales from the eyes of the protectionist press, and it is now telling him some wholesome truths. It has its own ideas of a statesman who thinks good neighborhood and amicable trade arrangements of more value than many seals.

News comes from Boston that all the New England Senators are in favor of the annexation of Hawaii against the protests of the great bulk of the inhabitants, on the demand of a small minority of foreigners. No community on either side of the ocean has, within the century, turned its back so completely on the traditions of its own political and social life. The only parallel to it we can recall is the French occupation of Rome in 1849. When we remember that one of the fundamental principles of the Republican party, on which it fought and conquered, was the right of all men to be consulted concerning their form of government, and then remember that the "American" Lodge and the New England Hoar deliberately propose to deny this right to a large community which is much more intelligent than the Southern negroes were in 1866, we cannot help wondering what the founders would say if they heard these two worthies justifying their robbery and their amazing un-Americanism. "Sir," said Wendell Phillips on a famous occasion, of a Massachusetts Attorney-General, "for the sentiments he has uttered on soil consecrated by the prayers of the Puritans and the blood of the patriots, the earth should have yawned and swallowed him up." And we may say now that if the earth took a similar course with regard to the present New England Senators, it would only do its duty to those of its children who are striving for better things. A good "yawn" that would take in the whole Republican delegation, in fact, would not shock the moral sense of the western world.

If the scheme of Cuban autonomy has been correctly outlined in the dispatches from Madrid, it goes, in liberality, far beyond anything that ever before entered into the heart of a Spanish statesman to conceive. It is practically up to the measure of home rule that Canada enjoys. There is to be a Cuban Chamber, elected by popular vote, and a Cuban Senate, which shall together have power to vote the budget, and even to establish a Cuban tariff. Moreover, the Governor-General and his subordinates are to be responsible to the Cuban Chamber—which, of course, means, if it means anything, that they may be turned out of office by an adverse vote. Spain is to regain control of international affairs and of military and naval matters, and is to appoint the judges. There is also a clause, which may be intended for tricky interpretation, providing that all laws "of a national character" shall be kept within Spanish control. But, all allowances made, this project of autonomy is surprisingly generous. It is so much so, in fact, that it may well be doubted if the Government can induce the Cortes to vote it. It is precisely the kind of autonomy which the Conservatives, now in a great majority of the Cortes, have said over and over again that they would never grant. As for the Cubans, if they are simply battling for local control of local affairs, this large concession should satisfy them. If they are bent on absolute independence, the offer comes too late. But the main difficulty still lies in the Congress of the United States. What that body will do, probably both President McKinley and Prime Minister Sagasta would give something handsome to know. The only safe thing to prophesy is that it will do its best to make mischief.

The annual reports of the various cabinet officers are reaching an expectant, but not too eager, public. They all come very near the French critic's definition of "Paradise Lost," as an illustrious but perfectly insupportable poem. However, one thing is clear in the masses of dull verbiage, and that is that all the Secretaries want more money. Their benevolent plans for the people unfortunately require the people first to pay increased taxes. But this is a mere matter of detail, as is, of course, also the fact that the deficit is already above $44,000,000 for less than half the fiscal year. As the astute Foraker remarks, there is a good deal of borrowed money still in the Treasury, and we can issue more bonds if necessary. It would be a petty mind that should dwell on such grovelling considerations as money cost, when, as Secretary Wilson says, in a report sub-

mitted to Congress with the approval of his chief, "the people's President, now executing the laws of the republic and guiding its policies, sympathizes with those who toil in the field, the factory, the forest, and the mine." Sympathy is what we want, and we hope to hear no more cold-blooded talk about money to foot the bills.

The full returns of the Nebraska election are discouraging to Republicans who expected that "dollar wheat" and other evidences of "McKinley prosperity" were going to reclaim former members of the party who had strayed into Populism. Here is the comparison with the Presidential contest of last year:

	Rep.	Pop.	Pop. Plu'y.
1896	102,564	115,624	13,060
1897	90,222	103,302	13,080

The total vote fell below that in the national contest, as always happens in such a case, but the Populists held their ground, and the result shows no reason for the belief that the Republicans can recover the State in the more important congressional elections next year.

The decision of the organization committee of the Citizens' Union, that it "be continued as a permanent city organization for the furtherance of the declared principles and objects of the Union," undoubtedly accords with the desire of its members generally, and will be welcomed by all who believe in the ends which it was established to promote. The great misfortune of all reform movements in the past has been that they lapsed with the election which they had been hastily organized to influence, whereas the need of such a body is continuous, whatever the result of any particular election. The Union will have plenty to do at once, as Mr. Charles Stewart Smith pointed out last week, in watching the administration of the new city government, in confronting the danger of bad legislation at Albany, and in sustaining there those members of the Legislature who were elected with its support and who have approved its objects. Then, too, four judges are to be elected next year, and, as Mr. Smith well put it, "we don't want them elected, or even nominated, by the Croker-Platt combination." Beyond all this is the necessity of continuous education of the public mind until the time shall come when a non-partisan ticket will not merely get 148,000 votes, but will command the support of a clear majority.

What a wonderful thing popular government has become in our time is shown in no way more impressively than in the amount of attention, much of it serious, which is given to the utterances of Croker and Platt and even Quigg. The business that these men are engaged in is the most disreputable, because the most pernicious to the general welfare, known to man. They debauch the public life and the morals of an entire state. They destroy popular government and set up in its place a personal despotism founded upon blackmail. Yet they issue addresses and give interviews upon questions of public policy, for all the world as if they were the chosen rulers of the people and were really administering a constitutional form of government. As a community we have become so accustomed to this that few of us seem any longer to see anything absurd in an expressman from Owego, Tioga County, issuing from time to time so-called "statements" about the conduct of our municipal affairs, which are mainly given up to violent personal abuse of those of our citizens who have been endeavoring to secure honest government for the city. Why should he feel called upon to admonish us, and why should his views be published in full in the newspapers and solemnly discussed as contributions to the political thought of the time? What has become of the American sense of humor, to say nothing of American pride, that such performances are part of our regular political procedure? What other community on the face of the earth would not only stand Platt's impudence, but would remain calm and quiescent while Quigg's views are published and his speeches laid before it in full?

How does it happen that Tammany has $40,000 in its treasury to bestow in charity at the close of a campaign? This is the first thought which must arise in every intelligent mind at the news that, under Croker's lead, the organization has voted to contribute $20,000 to the relief of the sick and needy in Cuba and $20,000 more to the relief of the poor in this city. The treasury must have been well filled in order to contain a surplus like this after what was notoriously a very expensive canvass. Where did all this money come from? Tammany has been out of power for nearly three years, and the money could not, therefore, have been made out of the city administration. It had few men in office and could not have raised much of it by assessing their salaries. The sworn returns of the candidates for election show that they did not as a general thing make large payments in return for their nominations. It is doubtful if all of them together paid as much as $40,000. Who, then, were the contributors who filled the Tammany treasury to overflowing? Does anybody doubt who they were? They must have been the brewers and the corporations. No other sources of campaign contributions are so fruitful as to leave a surplus which permits of $40,000 gifts to charity after election.

This is the most portentous aspect of the case. If Croker were using money obtained through dishonest government for the purpose of blinding the poor and ignorant elements of the population to the evils which bad government brings upon them, the matter would be much less serious than it is. There is nothing new about that kind of corruption. Tweed imitated it from the Roman tyrants, and it failed with him, as it had with them, to avert destruction. But Croker is using money obtained in another way. His funds are supplied by the very elements of the population which should be the strongest supporters of honest and intelligent government. Not only have they furnished him with the means for carrying the election and thus getting possession of the city, but the generous way in which he empties his treasury shows that he has no doubt about the future. He is not yet in power, and his followers have been in great straits for several years, yet he can give away $40,000 without a particle of anxiety. Clearly enough, he and they feel assured that there is "plenty more where this came from." As an indication of what Tammany expects to make out of the government of the city during the next four years, this is not surprising; but as a light upon the nature of the forces which triumphed in the recent election, it is the most startling revelation yet made.

The Secretary of the Home Market Club of Boston made his report at the annual meeting on Wednesday week. The illuminating speech delivered by Dingley to the members a few days before seems to have had a filling effect upon the members, as the newspapers say that the meeting was thinly attended. The Secretary said that there had been a small but steady demand for protection literature throughout the year, and he had to record the fact that, notwithstanding the division in the ranks of the free-traders, due to a temporary issue of another kind, their reform clubs and free-trade leagues continue to "fulminate." Therefore, it is idle to expect "that the tariff agitators, who have been thrown down, will stay down." There is no way, he continues, to prevent their ultimate and perhaps speedy success but to combat them from day to day. That is what the Home Market Club exists for, and it intends to keep up the fight "until our colleges shall teach protection as fairly and fully as they teach free trade." That promises a very long battle, for did not the only protectionist professor in a Massachusetts college, Prof. Bowen of Harvard, declare in a public letter that the McKinley act was not protection, but robbery and confiscation, or words to that effect? Did not another protectionist professor, Robert Ellis Thompson, declare that the duties ought to be repealed on all articles controlled

by Trusts, or words to that effect? We apprehend that the Home Market Club has set itself a Sisyphean task, so far as the colleges are concerned.

The football season has practically closed, and the general result is that the known casualties of greater or less gravity which have occurred through the game in the various educational institutions of the country, may be numbered by the score. The unrevealed casualties have also been doubtless very numerous. They have made a deep impression on parents and teachers. Some colleges have prohibited the game altogether. One Legislature has made an attempt to legislate against it. Many fathers have forbidden their sons to play it. There is hardly a contest, apparently, which is not marked by "slugging"; this, when it knocks a man out, of course becomes visible, but there is evidently a great deal which the umpire does not see. There is at last a general agreement that football is not a game for boys. The persons who play it have to be lusty young men, it is admitted, able to bear hard knocks. This disposes of the old story of three years ago of the moral elevation there was in football, and its eminent fitness to form a part of general juvenile training. Education which requires great muscular vigor and sturdy vital parts, of course cannot be general. The advocates of the game as it is, therefore, *i. e.*, "handball," for purposes of moral training, have completely retired from the field. Three years ago they were very lively, and one of them even advised the revered Hinkey to assault one of his critics. All this has ceased. "Mum is now the word." The critics are allowed to rave, and the young men have agreed to keep casualties out of sight of the reporters as far as possible. The only argument now used is that it is great fun, and the young men like it, and the spectators enjoy it immensely, as indeed they do prize-fights.

Two college presidents have, it is true, raised their voices, not in its defence, but against attempts to stop it by legislation, State or collegiate. We have already commented on President Schurman's remarks. President Eliot of Harvard takes somewhat the same ground, and with an equally obvious fallacy in analogy. Baseball, boxing, fencing, rowing, and sailing, which he adduces as hazardous and attended with casualties, are none of them directly calculated to produce injuries. When injuries occur in them, they are the result of pure accident. No one in baseball tries to hit other players with the bat or ball. No amateur boxer boxes without gloves. Fencers fence with buttons on their foils. Rowing and sailing are undertaken for pure pleasure, not for "personal encounter." There is not one of these games, except boxing, in which women cannot and do not share. But when an injury occurs in "handball," it is a natural consequence of the game, which may fairly be looked for. When a big, heavy man falls on a small one with all his weight, or seizes his leg when he is running hard, or "slugs" him in the nose or under the ear, the disabling of the small man is a consequence which it is natural to expect. Nothing but the strength of his physique saves him. The enjoyment of the scene by the spectators does not affect the moral aspect of the case. They would enjoy still more a duel, or a hanging, or a pugilistic encounter. Most duels end without injury to the combatants, or with only slight injuries, but we abhor and prohibit them, because they *may* produce death, and it is no answer to us to say that deaths occur in boats and gymnasiums and on horseback. Walking in the streets has its dangers, but we have to walk in the streets. Our point is, that "handball," by being played, as it used to be, as football, may be as harmless as baseball, and would be a far finer spectacle, and that all games of which the infliction of bodily injuries is a natural, and not unusual, consequence, are brutalizing both to the spectators and to those engaged in them.

Russia quietly goes on wielding the bâton at the European concert. She has just put a veto on the neat little plan, which Germany was thought to favor, of having Turkey apply her indemnity money to building a navy—German shipbuilders to have the contracts. If there was any spare cash, the Russian Ambassador told the Sultan, Russia would prefer to see it devoted to liquidating her own claims against Turkey. In consequence of this remonstrance, the Turkish naval plans are put off "till spring." Most cruel of all, Russia has refused to assent to the choice of Col. Schaeffer as Governor of Crete. His appointment, it was given out in England, had been made with the consent of all the Powers, and the only question was if the Sultan could be made to acquiesce in it. But Russia must have had an afterthought; at any rate, she discovered that Col. Schaeffer was not an Orthodox Greek Christian, and to the appointment of anybody but an Orthodox Greek Christian Russia could never agree. The Cretans, it would seem, can stand massacring by Turks and bombarding by Occidental Christians, but when it comes to a Governor he must be a member of the Holy and Catholic Apostolic Orthodox Greek Church, or they will know the reason why. That it would be hard to find such a man who was not a Russian, or under Russian control, of course never occurred to the innocent Russian diplomats.

It is odd enough that it should be left to Austria, which has the smallest navy of any of the five great Powers, to show how to negotiate with the Sultan. A controversy about the maltreatment of an Austrian subject and Consul at Mersina, in Asia Minor, had lasted a few weeks, and was being conducted in the usual Turkish fashion, by postponements, fresh suggestions, and new proposals, when Austria suddenly brought it to a close by announcing that in case her demands were not complied with on a near day named, she would bombard the town. Her demands were complied with almost instantly. There is no more talk of any European war because Austria has brought the Sultan to reason, than if she had opened fire on a barbarian potentate in Africa. She had all the reason to believe that Turkey would resist, and that, if she persisted, the European nations would fall to cutting each other's throats, that Lord Salisbury had if he insisted on the evacuation of Crete. Yet she never hesitated for one moment. She, with her little navy of one first-class armored cruiser, has ventured to do what Great Britain has not ventured to do with her fifty-one first-class armored cruisers. The contrast can hardly fail to have its effect on the declining fortunes of the Tory party in England.

Germany's rough seizure of Chinese territory may be the first overt step in the treatment of the Chinese Empire just as if it were an African *Hinterland* —that is, as territory to be carved up among the Powers, the first come the best served. Signs have not been wanting that such a process was in contemplation. The thing has been done quietly and by negotiations. France has got her "sphere of influence" by way of Siam, England hers through Burmah, and Russia has doubtless surpassed them all in her concessions obtained in the Northeast. The bold William may have concluded that he would just step in, on the pretext of demanding an indemnity, and get his ports and adjoining territory without the formality of a treaty. He may also, not improbably, have shrewdly reckoned on the help this naval demonstration would give him in his project of getting the Reichstag to vote him the money for a big navy. The Germans have been averse to going in for an aggressive navy, Bismarck openly sneering at the scheme; but if territory has to be seized for the fatherland in every sea, why, the glory must be had even if it comes high. If Germany builds more war-ships, France, of course, will have to add to her fleet, and England to hers; so that Mr. Roosevelt will be compelled to double his naval estimates at once. It is hard on the taxpayers, but think how happy it is going to make the Krupps and the Cramps!

HAWAIIAN ANNEXATION.

The feature of the proposed annexation of Hawaii which ought to excite the most comment and the greatest repugnance, has received scarcely any attention, and among the advocates of annexation none at all. This is the fact that the American republic, based upon the doctrine that all governments derive their just powers from the consent of the governed, proposes to change the government of a distant country without asking the consent of the governed in any way whatever. Does this betoken a change in ourselves? So it would seem, for when we were negotiating for the acquisition of the Danish West Indies thirty years ago, the terms of the treaty provided expressly for its submission to a vote of the people of the islands, and such a vote was taken before the question of ratification was considered by the Senate of the United States. If we act differently now, the reason must be that some change has come over us in respect of the most fundamental principle of our institutions.

It is noteworthy also that while we have been going backward in this particular, other nations have been going forward. "There is a tendency in quite recent times," says Woolsey in his treatise on International Law, "to act in international arrangements upon the principle that the consent of the inhabitants of a ceded territory ought to be obtained." Instances are cited in the treatise. It was provided in the treaty of Prague in 1866 that the inhabitants of northern Schleswig should vote upon the question of forming a part of Prussia or joining Denmark. In 1860 the people of Sicily were allowed to vote by universal suffrage upon the question of joining the kingdom of Italy. When Nice and Savoy were annexed to France, the first article of the treaty provided that "this union shall be effectuated without constraining the will of the inhabitants." A vote was accordingly taken by universal suffrage upon the question of annexation to France, and it was decided in the affirmative. A vote was not taken in the case of the annexation of Alsace and Lorraine to Germany in 1871, because that territory was conquered by war. If it had been a peaceful transaction, it is quite inconceivable that the will of the inhabitants should not have been consulted.

It may be answered that all these are cases where the inhabitants are civilized and in some sense enlightened, and that the parallel does not hold good as to Hawaii. There are several answers to this kind of special pleading. One is, that these islands have been under the civilizing influences of the very limited class now trying to overthrow their government without their consent, for more than half a century. Therefore they cannot be put in the category of barbarians. We know, in fact, that they are not such. Another answer is, that a people must be very degraded indeed if they are not able to vote intelligently on the question whether they shall remain independent or be transferred to a distant and foreign Power. This is not a question of ability to read and write, or to understand a chapter of the Constitution or a verse of the Bible. It is much simpler, as well as more vital to the people concerned. A third answer is that the very reason why the question of annexation is not submitted to the inhabitants of Hawaii is that they would vote against it by an enormous majority. We are not now speaking of contract laborers from Asiatic countries, but of the native population and those of European and American descent who may be classed as intelligent and responsible inhabitants. An immense majority of these are known to be opposed to this transfer of their allegiance, and that is the reason why they are not consulted.

Another reason why we ought not to coerce these people in this way is, that it was by our act that they were put in a position where they could not help themselves. It was our Minister Stevens and our man-of-war and our guns that overthrew the Queen and put the present Government in power. The Queen has figured largely in our discussions of the question, and many well-meaning people have been deceived with the idea that we are delivering a people from monarchical tyranny and substituting republican government instead thereof, whereas we are doing the very opposite thing, if the first words of our Declaration of Independence are a true definition of republican institutions. But at the present time there is no question of restoring the Queen. If we were disposed to do equal and exact justice, we should allow the Hawaiians to vote on the question of having a Queen, if they want one, but that, we acknowledge, is now impracticable. It is not impracticable to allow them to vote on the question of annexation.

That Senator Morgan of Alabama should argue this question as though the people of Hawaii have no rights which white men are bound to respect, is not to be wondered at. He is an ex-slaveholder. He belongs to a class who are in office by virtue of suppressing the votes of the black men and also of such whites as do not vote their ticket. Free suffrage has been abolished in Alabama and in several other Southern States, and one of the most solemn questions that confront the American public today is how to purify the ballot and secure a fair count in those States. They began with cheating the negro. They have ended by cheating each other. It is easy, we say, to understand how men who believe in this system should ride rough-shod over the rights of the Hawaiians, how they should treat the question of annexation as though those rights were non-existent, and talk about England and Japan, and naval power in the Pacific, and every other conceivable thing except the foundation principle of free government. Being accustomed to trample upon it at home, they cannot be expected to see its virtues in the distant Pacific. But that the liberty-loving North, and especially the Republican party, which fought a four years' war to establish this principle, and contended for thirty years after the war to maintain it, should now join in trampling upon it, is something that would not have been believed by any former generation of Americans.

THE INFLUENCE OF THE PRESS.

A good deal of interest has been excited by the fact that although the larger and by far the better portion of the press was united, for the first time in the history of the city, on one side in a municipal election, that side was beaten badly, so far as numbers are concerned. Various inferences have been drawn from this, but the commonest one is that the influence of the press is overrated, that it really does not mould opinion, and that it constitutes, in political contests at least, what the French call a "quantité négligeable." Twenty-five years ago, certainly, any one forecasting the future of New York city politics would have ventured on two predictions—one that under no circumstances would you be able to unite the leading newspapers of both parties; second, that if you succeeded in doing so, their power would be irresistible. Well, they have been united, and their power has not been irresistible. Unscrupulous politicians may apparently disregard them.

This is a subject which, if treated at all by a newspaper, ought to be treated with entire frankness, and we mean to be frank about it. That the influence of the press has undergone great diminution in all parts of the country there is no denying. We hear the same story about it from every quarter. Nobody thinks of heeding, for instance, the country papers of New York. Most of them belong either to Platt or to some other boss. Everybody can tell what view they will take on any topic of the day without wading through their editorial articles. In fact, these articles are on important occasions supplied to the Republican papers by Platt himself, and many of these papers are subventioned by him. Their use is not to discuss politics, but to let the party know "what the old man wants." But it must be confessed that New York is worse off in this respect than most other States. In every other there are newspapers which make a fight, and often a successful fight, against the local boss. Chicago more nearly approaches our condi-

tion than any other city, though all cities, in some degree, resemble us. The united press of Chicago has, on two occasions, opposed the local Croker in vain. But, in spite of some brilliant exceptions, we think we may say without exaggeration that the rôle of the press in political discussion in America has so greatly diminished that, in some localities, the newspapers have ceased to have any part in it at all. What the press says does not count with political men as it used to count in the anti-slavery days, for instance, when no one knew where the Republican party stood or ought to stand without hearing from the New York *Tribune*.

When one comes to discuss the causes of this decline in influence, they seem patent enough. Fifteen years ago it was discovered by some clever speculators that there was a great deal of money to be made in journalism by newspapers of the type introduced by the late James Gordon Bennett, which made no pretence of earnestness, which printed everything that people would be likely to read, without regard to private feelings, or accuracy, or importance, and which, above all things, startled people, no matter how, by invention, by headlines, or pictures. Their success had a gradually growing effect on the older and more serious papers. It diffused through the whole newspaper world the idea that if you wished to increase your circulation you must do it, not by improving the quality of your matter, but by greater triviality, more personal gossip, more attention to the amusements of the community, less to its morals, or religion, or politics; more weddings, dances, lunches, engagements, more scandals, crimes, offences, and more queer things generally.

Every paper seemed to feel this in a greater or less degree. All "new features" were sure to be something childish or silly. At last there appeared on the scene journals containing nothing but a hodgepodge of pictures, sensations, lies, inventions, bogus interviews, ridicule of all the decencies and respectabilities of human existence, which in appearance and matter would seem intended simply for a lunatic asylum or a school of ill-taught boys. The notion that such papers are meant for sane adults would, in most countries, seem incredible. The most extraordinary part of the decline was the production of one paper which struck out the novel line of abusing and ridiculing everybody whom the community considered good or respectable, highly eulogizing the persons whom the community considered criminal or depraved, and treating most of the subjects which the community considered serious as good jokes, or fit subjects for ridicule. The success of this was very great for twenty-five years. The paper circulated among thousands of people passing for grave and decent, who enjoyed its paradoxes and its satire, and found its indifference to truth amusing; and the editor was invited to at least one college to lecture to the students on "journalism," and preserved until his death, among large numbers, a reputation for wit, scholarship, and general editorial "greatness." A generation grew up under his influence which naturally learned to doubt the value of everything but money, the sincerity of all reformers, the genuineness of all morality, and the utility of patriotism for anything but war.

The phenomena we are describing appeared most prominently in New York, but in some degree in every city. During the campaign of last year for sound money, the newspaper of largest circulation in New England expressed no opinion on one side or the other, but occupied itself during the canvass solely with crimes, scandals, sensations, pictures, and small gossip. That the press should, after fifteen years of this movement, after a generation had become accustomed to look to it mainly for fun and amusement, and hardly at all for conviction, or persuasion, or discussion, exert its old influence on opinion, is scarcely to be expected, and this old influence will not soon or easily be regained.

But it is a great mistake to suppose that, bad as things have been, the press in this city has achieved nothing. The vote for Low, brought about by a nomination made in a way unknown to this generation of Americans—that is, by the voluntary selection of some thousands of citizens—and supported in a canvass carried on by a few enthusiastic amateurs, men and women, could not have produced the result it did—the astonishing result, we may call it—without the agency of the press. For a few short months, we feel bound to say, the New York press was again its old self, talking seriously to men and women of the things which make for public peace and prosperity, in the accents which betokened a deep sense of the gravity of the occasion. Even the New York *World* used all its influence and its peculiar methods in behalf of the right cause; but here again the difficulty which newspapers have in rising "on stepping stones of their dead selves to higher things" was curiously illustrated. People are so used to seeing the display headlines and big pictures employed to attract attention to all sorts of follies, falsehoods, and trivialities, that they could hardly believe in the sincerity of an attempt to employ this same machinery on behalf of good government and good morals. Thousands who saw and liked the effective pictorial showing-up of Croker and Platt, must have felt very like an audience in the circus who, after listening a whole evening to the jests of the clown, suddenly see him assume the gown and bands and ask them to listen to a few remarks on life and death and judgment.

NAVAL REORGANIZATION.

If current report is correct, the deliberations of the Reorganization Board of the Navy Department are taking a turn which does not augur well for its projects. That so indefensible a scheme as that of amalgamating the engineers with the line should have received serious consideration, only shows how easily the best-informed men may be led astray by an argument having no solid foundation, if it only looks a little plausible. Such a measure as this would be the longest step we could take in a direction in which we have already gone too far—that of trying to make the line officer a jack-of-all-trades. A lieutenant in the navy, as his successive tours of shore duty come around, may be in succession an inspector of steel at the Carnegie works, a tester of the qualities of armor-plates, a superintendent of some branch of gun-manufacture, a professor of mathematics at the Naval Academy, a lecturer on naval matters at the War College, a meteorological investigator in the Hydrographic Office, and no one knows how many things else. It is not in human nature that one man should be able to do so many things well. The department has had some examples of this more instructive than flattering in connection with the inspection and testing of armor-plates; and it is not impossible that, if careful inquiry were made into other branches of the technical service of the navy, serious defects arising from the lack of omniscience on the part of officers would be brought to light.

Paradoxical as it may appear, the very excellence of the instruction given at the Naval Academy has been a factor in the evil. The curriculum is broader and more scientific than at West Point. The man who has learned many things is anxious to apply his knowledge as widely as possible. The obvious tendency of this education is to make naval officers desire the widest possible round of duties. Much of this duty is so important to the service and so well performed that it is a pleasure to call attention to it, while the utility of other portions is more or less doubtful. Of the best class is the work of the office of Naval Intelligence, which collects information from all sources that would prove invaluable in the event of a foreign war. The Naval Institute, not an official body at all, but an association among the officers themselves for mutual improvement, places their professional zeal in a very favorable light.

But there are other directions of naval activity in which the intelligent spectator will not find it easy to satisfy himself that the large expenditures result in any real good to the service. One of

these is the Hydrographic Office, of which the principal function appears to consist in the correction, reëngraving, and issue of British admiralty charts, and the collection of ocean meteorological observations. It also makes itself generally useful by establishing branch offices at the principal seaports where navigators can have their chronometers rated, their barometers tested. What all this costs, and whether it is really a profitable expenditure of the public money, no one outside the office itself can judge. Certainly to the critical observer the policy of the branch offices looks like paternalism—on a small scale, perhaps, yet in its most extravagant form.

The navy also runs what is supposed to be one of the finest astronomical observatories of the country, if not of the world, though astronomy is not included in the round of professions which the naval officer masters. It is not easy to see of what use the work of such an establishment can be to the naval service; and if current impressions are correct, it does scant credit to the service from a scientific point of view.

In the medley which has arisen from the necessity of finding suitable employment for the body of well-educated young men annually turned out by the Naval Academy, and adjusting their official positions and relations, we are losing sight of the prime objects and requisites of the service. Some thirty years ago one of our most distinguished admirals took the common-sense ground that the great object of the education of a line-officer was to teach him how to handle his ship and fight her guns. The efficiency of the line should be the main end in sight in every project of naval reform. The inefficiency of our system, under which an officer does not reach the lowest command rank till he is nearly fifty, and is about sixty before he can possibly become a rear-admiral, and the relative superiority of the English system under which a rigorous method of selection and exclusion leads to high command being given only to those best fitted for it, are so well understood in naval circles that no reiteration of the argument is necessary. Two years ago a strong movement, officially backed by the Navy Department, was initiated to devise a remedy. Of course, difficulties were met in arranging the details, though there appeared to be practical unanimity as to the general character of the measure to be adopted. But just as a satisfactory conclusion seemed to be approaching, the subject was dropped for reasons not known to the outside world, and a new question took its place.

The engineer corps of the navy is now recruited from the Naval Academy. In the first years of the course the instruction is the same for all cadets; it is only at the end of the third year that a separation is made of the cadets best qualified as engineers from those best qualified as officers of the line. The latter arm is naturally preferred by the active and ambitious cadet, for the obvious reason that it alone offers the glamour of the highest rank, responsible command, and possibilities of fame as the hero of a battle. To what extent the wishes of a cadet govern the action of the authorities in deciding to which arm he shall belong, we are unable to say, but it certainly would not be wise to ignore his tastes in one direction or the other. At the close of the course the technical education of the engineer is as thorough as that of the midshipmen, and he may fairly claim that a part, at least, of his subsequent duties are equally important with those of his comrade of the line, and require a higher grade of purely scientific ability. He has, therefore, for two years past, appeared before Congress and the department as a claimant for the same rank and authority as the other. This claim is enforced by the further one that the corps is not sufficient in number to man the new navy, and that its condition must be improved to attract the best men to it.

In the discussion of the questions thus raised, certain capital facts have been overlooked. The engineer corps has two quite distinct functions. One is to design engines, superintend their construction, devise the tests which they must undergo, and use the knowledge derived from such tests to make improvements. This function requires the highest grade of technical training and scientific ability, combined with long experience. The other function is to run the engine after it is built, know its qualities, and repair it when necessary. This requires no higher skill than that of the well-trained mechanic. The solution of the difficulty seems to us obvious. The distinction between the two functions of the corps should be recognized. The highest corps, the engineers proper, should be assimilated to the present corps of naval constructors. If it were considered best that the corps should have experience with the working of engines at sea, one member of it woul suffice for each important ship, instead of three, four, or five, as at present. The lower corps of engine-drivers coul then be organized without difficult, because its members would need no scientific education. The claim now made by the engineers that the functions of the engine-driver are of equal importance with those of the commanding officer of the ship, will not bear examination. Through all the heat of battle, or at a moment when the ship must be kept off the rocks by every possible device, the management of the engines is no harder than at any other time, while the fate of all on board may depend on the skill and cool judgment of the captain. All the engineer has to do is to attend to the signals and pull his levers accordingly; he need not even know that a battle is going on, or breakers raging in the neighborhood.

It is to be regretted that our naval authorities do not learn more from the experience of the merchant marine. The most skilful navigation is as necessary to the lines of ocean racers as it ever is to a war vessel. We all know to what perfection the make and running of the engines of these great liners have been brought, and how necessary this perfection is to commercial success. Yet the men who run these engines have no high theoretical training and would not think of designing an engine. Every one can see how extravagant it would look for a company to employ three or four educated and experienced designers of engines as engineers on every mail steamship. The application of this experience to the naval situation is obvious. The engineers afloat need not, for the most part, even be commissioned officers. A corps of warrant engineers, ranking next above that of the gunners, is all that is really required, and would be excellently adapted to satisfy all the requirements of the service. Practical experience in the mechanics of engine building would be the most important requisite, and this could be better acquired in engine works than at the Naval Academy.

POPULISM IN COLLEGES.

The Kansas State Agricultural College at Manhattan five years ago was the largest institution of its kind in the country, and stood in the front rank in point of merit, if it was not, indeed, entitled to be considered the best. It was visited by experts from all over the United States, and many of the younger colleges in the West were modelled after it in general course of study and adaptation to the preparation given in the public schools. Since 1879 it had been under the presidency of Mr. George T. Fairchild, who went to Kansas after fifteen years of experience in the similar institution maintained by Michigan, and who steadily added to the excellent reputation which he brought with him.

The college had a four years' course, leading to the degree of bachelor of science, this course being thoroughly disciplinary in matter and methods, but so combined with training of hands as to lead evidently into the industries. Agriculture and horticulture in all their bearing, naturally and properly, had chief place,but mechanics had grown to a rank only a little lower. Post-graduate courses were provided for the special preparation of teachers, investigators, and expert workmen. There were nearly 700 undergraduates and over 40 graduate students, several of the latter from university courses. Attendance was growing at the rate of 13 per cent. a

year, and 70 per cent. of the students came from the homes of the farmers, for whose especial benefit agricultural colleges were established. The officers of the college held highest places in the Association of American Colleges and Experiment Stations, and its graduates took the first rank as students in university courses at Ann Arbor, Chicago, and elsewhere, and as teachers and investigators all over the Union.

Such was the condition of the institution in 1892—thoroughly established, well officered, with a faculty of twenty-four teachers and sixteen assistants and minor officers, selected because of their special fitness for the positions, equipped with library, museums, laboratories, shops, and plantations inventoried at $415,000—prosperous and needing only to be left alone by the State Government after the regular appropriation in its behalf had been made by the Legislature. In the fall of 1892 the Populists carried the State, elected their candidate for Governor, and secured four of the seven regents; their representation was increased to six in 1894, and they continued to have a majority of the board until 1896, while two of their members did not retire until the spring of 1897, when the board was reorganized so as to give them a majority for the next four years.

Immediately after the victory of the People's party in 1892, ex-Congressman Kelley, who had left the Republican party when his term in the House expired the previous year, attacked the State institutions of learning through the press for neglecting entirely political economy in their courses of study, and on the strength of this he was appointed a regent of the Agricultural College. At the first meeting of the board he repeated his charge, although, as a matter of fact, a full term's work in political economy had always been required in the senior year, and he insisted that, in addition to this work, lectures should be introduced to continue through the course. Early in 1894 C. B. Hoffman, who had long been prominent in socialistic agitation, as well as for connection with the notorious community attempted at Topolobampo, Mexico, became a regent and an ardent supporter of Kelley in his plans for teaching "the new school of political economy." Between them they ordered, in place of the established Friday lectures by members of the faculty in rotation, the introduction of thirteen lectures on political economy to "treat of the subject consecutively, commencing with the primary concepts of the science," the resolution providing that "the principles maintained by the advocates of land nationalization, public control of public utilities, and the reform of the financial and monetary system shall be fairly stated and candidly examined, with a view of leading the student to grasp the principles involved in the science of production and distribution without bias or prejudice."

During the following summer the President and faculty were directed so to rearrange duties and positions as to fill the position of the professor of physics, who had been granted leave of absence, "and leave vacant instead some full chair which shall include political economy," this action taking the teaching of political economy from the duties of President Fairchild; and the committee on employees was authorized to open correspondence "for the purpose of securing a competent professor to fill the chair of political economy." Quite characteristically Hoffman, who undertook the correspondence, applied for advice to the editor of the Boston *Arena*, and, at his suggestion, Prof. T. E. Will, a Harvard graduate, who, after two years of experience in college work at Appleton, Wis., had lost his place, and was lecturing as opportunity offered in Boston upon social and economic questions, was engaged to teach political economy in the course, including the thirteen lectures already provided for. These lectures were socialistic in their nature, and the professor often made statements of doubtful authority—newspaper clippings, and the like—the basis of reasoning, though more often of innuendo.

In the spring of 1895 the regents directed the faculty to submit a plan for so changing the course of study as to "give not less than six terms' " study of economic sciences, including one term of history, one term of civics, and one term of psychology. The faculty protested that the course was already full, and that to crowd it with additional terms in these studies by excluding others or by electives would reduce its effectiveness for its prime purposes; and therefore urged a compromise by offering a course of five years, with electives in the last two. This plan, after some hesitation, was accepted by the board; but the movers of the resolution, and Prof. Will, were much disappointed, and held the older members of the faculty responsible for their failure.

After the Populist victory in the State election last fall, the leaders of the party made it plain that the Populization of the college would be carried still further. The Legislature passed a law which secured the Populists a majority of the regents for four years, the five new members thus appointed being Kelley, Hoffman, a local politician once associated with Hoffman in the Topolobampo scheme, the wife of ex-Gov. John P. St. John, and an ex-Congressman, all of whom afterwards admitted that they had been pledged beforehand to a reorganization of the institution. This soon followed. Although previous action of the board had fixed the salaries until September, 1897, and although not only precedent but printed regulations provided that employees, "after satisfactory trial, hold their places till resignation or removal for cause, with due notice on either side," a resolution was adopted defining the term "school year" used in one of the acts of the Legislature, and providing "that the term of employment of all present employees is hereby declared to expire on June 30, 1897," thus defrauding those who might be dismissed of the pay to which they were entitled for three months. President Fairchild promptly tendered his resignation, which Hoffman told him would have been asked for, not because he had failed as an efficient executive, but "because he differed from the board upon fundamental principles of distribution of wealth"; and later twelve of the twenty-four teachers and six of the sixteen subordinates were dismissed, among them most of the older members. The course of study has been rearranged by the introduction of additional required work in economic science, at the expense of mineralogy, zoölogy, physiology, psychology, and logic; while industrial training in agriculture and horticulture and all agricultural study after the second year are made optional—this in an agricultural college!

Such is a brief summary of the story told in the *American Journal of Sociology*, in a modest, yet self-respecting and straightforward way, by President Fairchild. Well may he conclude by saying, "I tremble for the future of State educational institutions."

THE PASSING OF NAPOLEON IN 1815.

LONDON, November, 1897.

Everything that relates to Napoleon appears to to have a fascination for the present generation. The press continues to print volumes of memoirs and what-not relating to the great soldier and his times. But, hitherto, the simple record of the log-books of the ships-of-war in which he was convoyed from Rochefort to England, and from England to St. Helena, has not been published, although diaries and journals and narratives relating more or less to these voyages have been made public. The subjoined extracts from the logs give such scant particulars as, in the matter-of-fact language of sailors, tell of the embarkations and debarkations of Napoleon.

In those days it was usual to have two logs on board a man-of-war, one kept by the Captain, the principal combatant officer, and the other by the Master, the chief navigating officer. As a matter of fact, it would appear that the Captain's log was really written up by a lieutenant. The main extracts, given below, are from the logs of the masters of the *Bellerophon* and the *Northumberland*. The Captain's log of the former ship has been extracted from, but the writer of these notes has not traced that of the *Northumberland*. Some short extracts have been added, below, from the log of the *Myrmidon*, a ship that sailed in company with the *Bellerophon* from Rochefort.

The fact that the British officers had taken on board the *Bellerophon* a conqueror before whom all Europe had paled, would

hardly be gathered from the plain, matter-of-fact entries in the Captain's log of the *Bellerophon*. That on the 15th of July says: "Rec^{d} on b^{d} Napoleon Buonaparte and suite for a passage to England." Then, on the 7th of August, it is recorded: "Fine pleasant w^{r}. Disch^{d} into H. M. S. *Northumberland*, for a Passage to St. Helena, Napoleon Buonaparte, Marshal Bertrand, Genls. Monthalon and Gorgou, Count Lascass, & their servants. Weighed & made sail, in c^{o} with Squadron." There was no sentiment in the matter. It was a mere matter of business with the officer whose duty it was to write up the Captain's log; he did not even trouble himself to learn the correct spelling of most of the names of the faithful followers of fallen greatness.

One cannot but wonder what was passing through the mind of Napoleon when, at 6 P. M. on the 14th of October, the island of St. Helena was sighted from the *Northumberland*. It will be seen that the landing did not take place until the 17th of that month. The only preface that appears to be necessary to the introduction of the following extracts is to remind readers that Captain Maitland of the *Bellerophon* had rejected Napoleon's first offer, which was to surrender, subject to the privilege of his being allowed to go to the United States. Unconditional surrender alone would Captain Maitland accept. The log was kept by Stephen P. Vale, Master:

July 13th, 1815. At single anchor off Rochelle. P. M. Observed the White Flag all along the Coast. Hoisted the White Flag at the Main and stood up for Rochelle. At 10 sent two boats to Row Guard during the night.

July 14th. At single anchor off Rochelle. A. M. Boats returned from Guard. At 5 answered a Flag of Truce from a French schooner. At 8.30 Truce returned to Isle d'Aix.
P. M. At 6.15 saw a Barge coming from the French Frigates. Answ^{d} a Flag of Truce from D^{o}. At 7.30 she came alongside with several French Officers. At 9.30 Truce Boat parted company. At 10.20 came alongside a Boat from Rochelle.
[Under this date the log of the *Myrmidon* notes: "P. M. A Boat with a Flag of Truce from Buonaparte went alongside *Bellerophon*."]

July 15th. At single anchor off Rochelle. A. M. Guard Boats returned. Observed a French Brig and schooner coming down with a Flag of Truce. Answ^{d} D^{o}. Sent boats to the brig. At 7 received by the same NAPOLEON BUONAPARTE, late Emperor of the French, and his suite. At 10.30 anchored H. M. S. *Superb*. Employed in getting luggage, &c., on board at Noon.
[Under this date, the Captain's log has the following laconic entry: "A. M. 7. Rec^{d} on b^{d} Napoleon Buonaparte and suite for a passage to England." The Log of the *Myrmidon*, in similar style, says: "Buonaparte and suite embarked on board the *Belleroph n*, for a passage to England."]
P. M. At 5.55 up Boat and parted Compy with the French Brig. At 7.40 up all Boats.

July 16th. At single anchor off Rochelle. A. M. At 10 the late Emperor Napoleon Buonaparte and the Capt^{n} went on board the Admiral.
P. M. At 12 40 manned the yards on the return [of] Buonaparte. In Boats, and up anchor. Hove to. Sent a boat to *Superb*. At 3.20 filled and made sail out at 4. *Myrmidon* in company.
[Under this date the log of the *Myrmidon* records: "Received 7 French Officers and 10 servants from *Bellerophon*, being part of Buonaparte's suite."]

July 20th. A. M. Saw a strange sail to the North-w^{d} at 7. Exchanged N^{o} with the *Swiftsure* at 8. Hove to. Had communication with *Swiftsure*. At 8.30 discharged Pilot into *Swiftsure* and made sail at Noon.

July 23d. Sunday. P. M. At 7 saw the Land on the W^{r} Bow, N. N. E. The Deadman. Off Shore 7 or 8 leagues.

July 24th. At single anchor in Torbay. A. M. At 6.30 sent two officers on shore with despatches. At 7 shortened sail and came to in 7 fms with the B. Bower in Tor Bay. Paignton Church S. W. & W. Sent a Boat for Water.

July 26th. A. M. Moderate Breezes and clear. At 4 weighed and made sail. At 8 squally. *Myrmidon* and *Slaney* and several other men-of-war in company. At 9 shewed our number to the Matros (?) tower.
P. M. Running along the Coast, and tacking occasionally for Plymouth. At 3.50 shorten'd sail and came to with the best B^{r} on the Sound. Moored ship a cable each way. Breakwater Light vessel.

July 27th. Boats rowing Guard round the ship.

July 28th. Boats rowing Guard round the Ship

July 31st. A. M. Lord Keith and an Officer with Despatches. [Sir Henry Bunbury—Captain's log.] Boats rowing a strict Guard round the ship.

August 2nd. Boats rowing Guard round the Ship.

August 3rd. Boats rowing Guard round the Ship.

August 4th. At 7 30 answered signal to unmoor. Unmoored accordingly, and hove short on the Bst Bower at 8. At 11.30 lowered sails and weighed and proceeded out of Plymouth Sound at Noon.

August 5th. A. M. Standing off and on shore, off the Bolt. P. M. Standing off and on the Land.

August 6th. A. M. At 9 exchanged N^{o} with H. M. Ship *Northumberland*. Joined D^{o}, and hove to, and had communication at noon.
P. M. At single anchor. Bury Head N. & E 3 miles. At 3, shortend sail and came with the best Bower to anchor in 19 f^{tms} Water, between the Berry Head and the Froward Point. Furled sails. In company with the Admiral, *Northumberland*, *Eurotus*, and several storeships.

August 7th. At single anchor between the Berry Head and the Froward Point. A. M. At 10, Admiral Sir Geo. Cockburn came on board. Employed in sending Buonaparte's luggage to the *Northumberland*. At 11, sent Buonaparte's servants to the *Northumberland*. P. M. Light Breezes and fine weather. At 2, Admiral Lord Keith left the ship with Napoleon Buonaparte, to go to the *Northumberland* to be by her conveyed to St. Helena.

Under this date (August 7th), the Captain's log says:

A. M. Boats employed in carrying the baggage of Napoleon Buonaparte & his Suite on board H. M. S. *Northumberland* 10.50 came on board L^{d} Keith and Sir George Cockburn.
P. M. Fine pleasant w^{r}. Disch^{d} into H. M. S. *Northumberland*, for a Passage to S^{t}. Helena, Napoleon Buonaparte, Marshal Bertrand, Genls Monthalon and Gorgou, Count Lascass, & their servants. Weighed & made sail in c^{o}. with Squadron.

The following extracts from the log of the *Superb* bear upon the transactions of July 15th and 16th, mentioned above:

July 15th. A. M. Running in for Basque Roads. *Bellerophon* with a Flag of Truce flying, in the Roads. At 11.20 shortened sail and came to. Found here H. M. S. *Bellerophon* and *Myrmidon*: the former having Napoleon Bonaparte on board.

July 16th. A. M. Manned ship, to receive Napoleon Bonaparte.

Extracts from the Master's (John Tucker) log-book of the *Northumberland:*

August 7th. A. M. At 11 General Buonaparte came on board from H. M. S. *Bellerophon* accompanied by Lord Keith and the following French Officers, viz^{t}, Count Bertrand, his wife, 3 children, a servant and her child, General de Montholon, his wife, 1 child, and a female servant. General Gourgoud, Count de Las Casas and his son, 9 servants, and a Surgeon.
P. M. At 7.45 weighed and made sail.

August 8th. P. M. Lying to, off the Eddystone Light.

August 9th. A. M. At 9, filled and came to the w^{r}. on the Starboard Tack, & made all possible sail: the following ships in c^{o}. *Havannah*, *Ceylon*, *Bucephalus*, *Zenobia*, *Zephyr*, *Ferret*, *Redpole*, *Icarus*.

From the 24th to the 26th (A. M.), the *Northumberland* was standing off and on, or lying-to, off Funchal. Other ships anchored in the bay.

August 24th. A. M. The Portuguese Consul [Governor?] came on board.

October 14th. P. M. 6, saw the Island of S^{t} Helena, bearing W. N. W. 13 Leagues. 6.45, Took in the studding Sails. 8, Took in Top Gallant Sails, hauled up the Foresail, hove to and double-reefed the Topsails. 9.30, Filled. 11, Hove to.

October 15th. A. M. Moderate breezes and cloudy W^{r}. 4. D^{o} Weather. Daylight, the extremes of S^{t} Helena Island. N. W. b. W. to West, off shore about 16 or 17 miles. 6.40, filled and stood in for the Island. 10.45, shortened sail and anchored abreast of James's Valley in nine fathoms. Moored ship with a whole cable each way. The Steeple of James's church bore S b E ¼ E, Landing Place S. E b E. Sugar Loaf Point E N E. Furled Sails. Found at anchor, H. M. Ships, *Havannah*, *Peruvian*, *Icarus*, *Zenobia*, *Ferret*, *Redpole*—*Lady Carrington*, extra Indiaman, *Theodosia*, merchantman and Company Schooner.
P. M. Moored at S^{t} Helena. Moderate and Cloudy W^{r}. Hoisted out the boat and Launch. The Fort saluted the Admiral. Returned D^{o} with the usual number of Guns. Sunset, in Boats. 9, Sent a Boat to row Guard.

October 16th. A. M. Moderate and Cloudy Weather. Daylight, Guard Boat returned. Employed about the requisite duty of the ship.
P. M. Moderate and fine.

October 17th. A. M. Light Breezes and Cloudy Weather.
P. M. Light winds and fine. Employed landing Artillery Stores. Landed General Buonaparte and Suite.

October 18th. A. M. Light Winds and Cloudy. Employed landing Artillery Stores, and the luggage of General Buonaparte.

October 23rd. P. M. Sent the Carpenter and his crew on shore, to build houses for the reception of General Buonaparte.

October 25th. Fresh Breezes and Cloudy, with frequent showers of rain. Sent a working party of 100 Seamen on shore, under the direction of a Lieutenant, to assist in building houses for the reception of Gen^{l} Buonaparte.

October 26th. Sent the working party on shore to carry plank from the Town to Longwood, for the purpose of building apartments for General Buonaparte.

October 27th, and several subsequent days—"Sent the working party on Shore," or to Longwood.

Correspondence.

INEFFECTUAL PROTECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: We have had in Boston a foreigner named Darwin, who has been explaining tides by theories "made in England." At one of his lectures he showed certain models of planetary forms on which, as he informed us, he had paid a duty of $5.25. This duty was, of course, intended to protect our scientific men from the ruinous competition of foreigners like Prof. Darwin, who is said to have something like a monopoly of knowledge of tides. But why should we stop at models and instruments? If ever we are to have a truly American tidal science, a tariff on lecturers ought to include these foreign intruders. If we can learn to make tin-plate, why not to lecture on tides?

JAMES HATTRICK LEE.

MILTON, MASS., November 17, 1897.

TRICKS IN FOOTBALL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A recent editorial in the *Evening Post* spoke of the number of "tricks" the football teams "play" on each other, which, being interpreted, too often means frauds perpetrated on the opposing team.

Last spring a Southern baseball team took a professional with them and won two victories. On their return they were promptly required to disband, and the faculty of their college sent their apologies to the faculties of the two institutions from which these fraudulent victories had been gained.

This fall I happened to know of another Southern college whose team smuggled an outsider into the train after they had left the home station. By this means they won a decided victory, and were full tilt to play that same outsider in a game with a second institution. This second fraud was prevented only because one of the faculty of the institution to which the travelling team belonged heard of the thing, and took quite a trip so as to join the team and prevent the repetition of the cheating. This team, too, was required to disband, and the faculty voted that its apologies be sent to the institution whose team was unfairly defeated.

The argument used to defend and justify such a procedure—used even by Christian students, I am sorry to say—is: "They all do it." But

> "The Ten Commandments will not budge,
> And stealing will continue stealing"—

even if it is a match game stolen from a team that would readily steal, too, if it could.

M. O. V. M.

THE SELDEN SOCIETY'S PROGRAMME.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have recently received from England the following full account of the plans of the Selden Society, which will, I hope, be of interest to those of your readers who care for its work in the publication of legal and historical sources:

The volume for 1898 is passing through the press. It will consist of Extracts from the Records of the Court of Requests edited by Mr. I. S. Leadam. Hitherto the Court of Requests has been little more than a name to historians and lawyers. They have known that a court bearing this title branched off from the King's Council, that it at one time affected to be "a poor man's court," that it administered "equity," and that finally it was suppressed as unconstitutional. It is not too much to say that Mr. Leadam has for the first time written the history of this court from its beginning under Henry VII. to its extinction under Elizabeth and James I., and thereby will make a substantial addition to our knowledge of the law of the sixteenth century. Many of the cases which come before this court are admirable illustrations of the social and economic state of England during the Tudor period. As the evidence given by witnesses is recorded at full length, the student of life and manners will not in this instance have to complain that the interesting facts are concealed from him by legal technicalities. The court was much resorted to by those who had complaints to make against their landlords, and we may see in its records many phases of those new agrarian movements which are distinctive of the transitional age that lies between mediæval and modern history. At the same time, the lawyer will find abundant points of interest in the endeavors of this court of "equity" to remedy some of the more obvious deficiencies of the old common law, and the constitutionalist will be able to study at large in Mr. Leadam's Introduction one of the first of those reactions against the Tudor system which herald the great revolution of the seventeenth century.

For 1899 a volume is being prepared by Mr. G. J. Turner which will contain copious extracts from the rolls of the Forest Courts. Every one knows that a complicated and severe Forest Law, fashioned in the interest of kings who were mighty hunters, lay heavy on mediæval England. But hitherto the workings of this code have been but insufficiently illustrated by authentic documents. It is hoped that Mr. Turner's book will add much to what is known about this important matter, and will incidentally throw new light on the history of the chase.

A volume of extracts from the records of the Exchequer of the Jews is also in contemplation. But the Council is minded to mark the year 1900 by a new experiment, namely, an endeavor to place in the hands of subscribers a portion of the Year Books. The admirable work done by Mr. Pike, in his edition of those Year Books of Edward III.'s reign which had not previously been printed, has brought into strong relief the innumerable faults of the old black letter editions. The Council have no intention of trespassing on the field that Mr. Pike is making his own, and for this among other reasons they are proposing to begin at the beginning; in other words, to begin with a new edition of the Year Books of Edward II. They have in contemplation a text based on the best manuscripts and accompanied by an English translation and by references to the plea rolls. It is proposed to entrust this work to Mr. F. W. Maitland and Mr. Turner. The plan which is at present in contemplation is that of issuing a volume of Year Books in every other year, *e. g.*, in 1900, 1902, and 1904, so that volumes of Year Books will alternate with volumes derived from other sources.

It is hoped that this new departure will meet with approval in America, where the value of the Year Books, even in their present condition, has long been well known and Mr. Pike's volumes of new Year Books have found a warm welcome. The success of the project will depend largely on the opinion that is entertained of it in America. Should it succeed in attracting subscribers, the Society may hereafter be able to accelerate the process of publication by issuing more than one volume in the year. And in this case Edward II.'s reign of twenty years might soon be traversed and another reign might be attacked. For the time being, want of funds compels the Society to proceed tentatively and with caution, and not to announce any programme that is too ambitious to be put in hand; but it is time that a beginning should be made, and that the nineteenth century should not pass away without an effort to set before English and American readers, in a creditable and intelligible form, some part of those ancient reports of decisions and discussions which have too long been disguised from modern readers by misprints and other blunders. The Year Books are by far the most distinctive monuments of "the common law"; indeed, they stand alone in the history of the Middle Ages, marking off "the common law" from all other systems, and the Selden Society would not be performing its duty if it did not try to redeem them from their present pitiful plight.

Yours very truly,

Richard W. Hale,

Secretary and Treasurer of the Selden Society for the United States.

Boston, November 13, 1897

Notes.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will be the American publishers of Mr. W. J. Stillman's latest collection of articles, 'The Old Rome and the New,' and promise the volume for December.

D. C. Heath & Co. have nearly ready an 'Elementary Scientific French Reader,' by Mme. P. Mariotte-Davies, Professor of French at Purdue University; and 'Voltaire's Prose,' representative selections by Profs. Cohn and Woodward of Columbia University.

Two historical novels are to be added to the host now pressing on the public attention, by Lamson, Wolffe & Co., Boston. They are 'Mademoiselle de Berny: A Story of Valley Forge,' by Pauline Bradford Mackie, and 'Vivian of Virginia,' by Hulbert Fuller.

Charles Scribner's Sons are on the point of issuing 'Audubon and his Journals,' by a granddaughter, Miss Marie R. Audubon, with annotations by Dr. Elliott Coues; 'The Workers: An Experiment in Reality—The East,' by Walter A. Wyckoff; a "Homestead" uniform edition of the complete verse and prose of James Whitcomb Riley; 'Lullaby-Land,' selections from Eugene Field's child-poems, with illustrations by Charles Robinson; 'Gloria Victis,' by J. A. Mitchell, editor of *Life*; and a 'History of Our Navy,' by John R. Spears.

E. P. Dutton & Co. have nearly ready 'In Garden, Orchard, and Spinney,' by Phil. Robinson.

'An Elementary Spanish Reader,' by Prof. M. M. Ramsay, is announced by Henry Holt & Co.

Thomas Whittaker will publish 'Lessons from Life, Animal and Human,' with an introduction by Dr. Hugh Macmillan.

Dodd, Mead & Co. will issue 'The Conquering Turk,' by G. W. Steevens, author of 'The Land of the Dollar,' and correspondent of the London *Daily Mail* in the late Greco-Turkish war; and a translation of 'Lumen,' Flammarion's new novel.

'A History of Greece for High Schools and Academies,' by George Willis Botsford of Harvard, is promised by Macmillan Co.

J. B. Lippincott Co. have in press 'Symphonies and their Meaning,' by Philip H. Goepp, and 'Men, Women, and Manners in Colonial Times,' by Sydney George Fisher.

'A History of Woman' is the title of a work, already far advanced in preparation, intended to be "a scientific study of her social, moral, and intellectual development." The author, Mr. George Willis Cooke, of East Lexington, Mass., feels the need of aid in advance subscriptions before undertaking publication of his three volumes of 500 pages, and a committee to further that end has been formed, with Mr. William Lloyd Garrison, No. 35 Federal Street, Boston, for treasurer. A subscription of $10 per annum for three years is solicited.

On the invitation of Lord Acton, general editor of the "Cambridge Modern History," now publishing in twelve volumes, Mr. Melville M. Bigelow of the Boston bar will write upon the period of American history from 1775 to 1789 on the Constitutional side.

Edward Arnold is about to bring out 'The British Mission to Menelik (1897),' by Count Gleichen; 'Benin,' Commander Bacon's account of the expedition to avenge the massacre of British negotiators at the "City of Blood"; and 'Rowing,' by R. C. Lehmann, the Harvard coach.

T. Fisher Unwin, London, announces 'Rapara; or, the Rights of the Individual in the State,' by Archibald Forsyth; 'Lives of the Great Italians,' by Frank Horridge; and a 'Life of William Harvey,' by D'Arcy Power, F.S.A.

Georg Reimer, Berlin, has in the press the ninth edition of Ernst Haeckel's 'Natürliche Schöpfungsgeschichte,' which, in revision, has had the benefit of his researches during the past thirty years, as will appear in the second part, particularly, and in the "tree" of organic evolution. The twenty

original plates of illustrations are increased to thirty.

Mr. John Fiske's 'Critical Period of American History' has an assured place in libraries popular and scholarly. Its worth lies in the presentation of an epoch, rather than in the author's opinions, some of which, like those on the worldly wisdom of the pro-slavery compromises of the Constitution, have, we observe, suffered no change in the revision to which Mr. Fiske alludes in the preface to the new and elegant illustrated edition just issued by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. It is the illustrations which really distinguish the reissue, and the same sensible course has been pursued as in the case of the work to which this is a sequel, Mr. Fiske's two-volume 'American Revolution.' In both, everything purely fanciful has been excluded, to make way for portraits, maps, authentic views, facsimiles of contemporary documents, maps, etc. Each picture is honored with a description of its source. The portraits naturally outnumber all the other modes of illustration, and are in the main excellent copies. There is a curious portrait of John Adams, whose Dutch origin is unmistakable; and one can as clearly read "drawn by a Frenchman" in St.-Mémin's fine profile of Jefferson, who might be taken for a Girondist. The binding of the volume is in accord with the admirable paper and presswork.

The same publishers have launched anew Thoreau's 'Walden,' in two volumes as heretofore, but adorned with a considerable number of pertinent photogravures—portraits of the hermit and his Concord friends, views of the Pond and its neighbor waters, of Concord, of Thoreau's and Emerson's homes, of the River and its meadows, etc., etc. Mr. Bradford Torrey's introduction is at once sane and sympathetic. This edition must find many admirers.

Finally, Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have revived Charles Dudley Warner's 'Being a Boy' (*temp.* 1830-1850, "before the use of lucifer matches"); a history, he explains, less autobiographical or biographical than typical. It is now fortified with well-chosen photographic illustrations of the phase and of the locality by Clifton Johnson, who gives us many a characteristic New England landscape and usage in remarkably unconscious *tableaux vivants*. The book commends itself particularly to those who are familiar with the Deerfield River valley in Massachusetts.

From Charles Scribner's Sons we have a truly luxurious edition of Mr. Cable's 'Old Creole Days,' with uncommonly clever and fitting illustrations by Albert Herter. Each of the seven short stories which display the properties available for the novelist's longer efforts, has a full-page design accorded it, as well as a headpiece and tailpiece and an ornamental initial letter. The text is a fine specimen of the work of the University Press, Cambridge. To our mind, the printer and illustrator have surpassed the binder, so far as relates to the decoration of the cover, which is not in harmony with the dignified interior.

Timely is the reappearance, in the Cameo Edition of the Messrs. Scribner, of the Rev. Henry Van Dyke's 'Poetry of Tennyson,' "a book of essays in vital criticism," which has shown the vitality of frequent revision, responsive to the fresh calls for it, in the eight years since it was first published. Mr. Van Dyke will not allow a third greatest poet after Milton and Shakspere except Tennyson. The same author's pleasant 'Little Rivers,' still flowing on, forms a companion volume to the foregoing.

Mr. Harry Fenn's graceful pencil we welcome again in the 'In Memoriam' for which it furnishes the pretext (Fords, Howard & Hulbert). The draught on the artist's ingenuity was heavy, involving headpieces, initials, and tailpieces for every canto, and some inequality there must needs be; but the best of these drawings are admirable, and the decorative sense is seldom at fault. Mr. Van Dyke furnishes an analytic introduction to the poem which can be read with profit. Spenser's 'Shepheard's Calendar' (Harpers) makes a square volume on whose ornamentation Mr. Walter Crane has exercised his talent in his familiar manner, in a constantly recurring border and in full-page symbolical designs for the monthly eclogues, that for October seeming to us the best. The type is a full black face, archaic in its suggestion. A glossary brings up the rear. This handsome edition is likely to meet with much favor. Mr. Clifton Johnson appears again as the clever illustrator by photography in the new edition of Jane Barlow's 'Irish Idylls' (Dodd, Mead & Co.). These thirty views of the Connemara boglands of western Ireland, their dwellings and inhabitants, were made on the spot for their present purpose, and are an unquestionable enhancement of the charming text. Their photographic origin is artfully veiled by the graver. The printing has been beautifully executed by the University Press, Cambridge. Rosie M. M. Pitman's pen-illustrations to 'Undine' (Macmillan) have the value of etchings, and combine grace and mysticism in a degree commensurate with the fable. One may see in them echoes of Blake and of Dürer, but as a whole they have a distinct individuality, and in the abundant figure-drawing are much less amateurish than women's work in this vein is apt to be. This remark however, is truer of the small-scale figures than of the larger, as is seen in No. 48. The symbolism is carefully explained in the list of illustrations.

We noticed in the spring the concluding part ii. of Gardner's 'Handbook of Greek Sculpture,' and Macmillan has now combined both parts in a single volume at a very reasonable price. The paging is continuous and there is a general index; but each part retains its index of sculptors. There are no fewer than 130 illustrations in this admirable work.

Prof. G. H. Palmer's 'Self-Cultivation in English' (T. Y. Crowell & Co.) is a little book of thirty pages, apparently first written as an address. It deals in a very general way with the art and habit of composition, and is studiously careful to avoid any but the simplest and most fundamental precepts. It will, however, open the eyes of tyros to the main principles on which success in writing rests, and even the experienced may read it with profit.

Lest any reader be puzzled to know how a treatise of three hundred-odd pages could be written on so seemingly specialized a subject as 'The Occasional Address,' it should be explained at once that Prof. Sears, in his recent volume under that title (G. P. Putnam's Sons), has construed the phrase in its exacter meaning, and has produced what is practically a text-book of general oratory, with emphasis on certain special forms, such as the Eulogy, the Commencement Oration, the Political Speech, "After-Dinner Remarks," and other speeches for occasions. The result of this attempt is an old-school treatise on rhetoric, respectable and even interestingly written in its kind, but far too much overweighted with rhetorical history and old-fashioned rhetorical classification to be of much practical assistance in "the production of the Occasional Address." The author is in error in stating (p. 80) that Sir Thomas Wilson's 'Arte of Rhetorique,' 1553, was "the first text-book of composition and criticism in our language." Essentially the same in kind and a quarter-century earlier in date is 'The Arte or Crafte of Rhethoryke,' by Leonard Cox, an excessively rare but very interesting document in the history both of English criticism and of the Humanism in England which centres around the names of Colet and Erasmus. It would be a pious contribution to English studies for some British or American scholar to edit and make accessible this little treatise.

In the three hundred pages of the attractively printed 'Story of an Irish Sept' (London: Dent & Co.) we have comparatively little about the Sept, and much concerning the history of Ireland and the manners and customs of its ancient inhabitants. The book is written in a kindly and sympathetic spirit. The student to whom special works of reference upon the subject are not available, will find it to contain much reliable information. The burthen of the author's message to his readers is the continuity of temperament in septs and peoples derived from long-continued environment. His narrative tends to confirm his theories. Out of a sad cloudland of strife, individuals of his sept and ancestry emerge upon the last fifty pages. One fought thirty duels, "and was never wounded," before he reached manhood. Another, a personal friend of Nelson, was tried for his life, having shot his man in a duel arising from a dispute concerning a dog-fight The last member mentioned perished on the Alps. The author has no belief in the capacity of his countrymen to work independent parliamentary institutions. He looks rather to a complete scheme of land purchase and minor reforms for the regeneration of that country whose past he has so carefully studied.

A new series of English versions of military works is begun by Capt. James of the British Army, under the name of the Wolseley Series (London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons). The first is 'With the Royal Headquarters in 1870-'71,' by Gen. von Verdy du Vernois, then chief of one of the sections of the Prussian General Staff, and since known as War Minister and in other important military positions in Germany. The basis of the book is the current memoranda and correspondence of the author at the time, given without change, in order to reproduce the feelings and judgments of the great Franco-Prussian campaign itself, but with such notes and comments as will enable the reader to make comparison with the later investigations. As a faithful exhibition of the life and work of Moltke's assistants in the field, the book has had a high place in Germany, and its translation will be most welcome to English and American readers.

'Under the Red Crescent' is the title of a very entertaining book narrating the adventures of Dr. Charles S. Ryan, a young Eng-

lish surgeon, with the Turkish army at Plevna and Erzerum in 1877-1878 (Scribners). The author's descriptions of the Turkish army, its officers, organization, and discipline, are valuable, and the pictures of life in the fortresses and camps are well done. The account of hospital work among the wounded at Plevna and in the epidemic typhus at Erzerum is gruesome enough, but it is relieved by amusing scenes and bits of adventure that prevent the general effect from being a depressing one. A broader interest attaches to the author's analysis of the qualities of the Turk as a soldier, seeing him at his best, under the stern rule of Osman Pasha, when his easy good nature and courage had few opportunities to fly off into the fanatical barbarism which is the other side of his nature. Dr. Ryan is an Australian who has been efficiently aided in the literary part of his work by Mr. John Sandes, an Oxford man. It looks almost like a joke of the binder that the ornament on the cover is not the crescent, but the waning moon.

In his 'Bases of Religious Relief' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) Prof. C. M. Tyler takes an abundantly hopeful view of the future of religion. He thinks that "the indications of a concordat between theology and anthropology are cheering," and that "both science and philosophy accept the divine law of development," and supports this position by a rapid survey both of the history of religion and its psychological genesis, and also of the metaphysical, ethical, and æsthetical grounds for religious belief. His treatment is laudably free from technicality, pedantry, and fanaticism, but he tends, perhaps unduly, towards a premature softening down of antitheses, and hardly gives himself space enough to do full justice to his subject. Still, one feels that a faith as confident as his can well afford to be liberal without ceasing to be strenuous, and that if, as we have recently been taught by Prof. James, in some matters "the thought becomes father to the fact, even as the wish is father to the thought," the vigor and buoyancy of Prof. Tyler's little book may well achieve its somewhat unpretentious purpose and promote the cause its author evidently has at heart.

Persons desirous of informing themselves on the Indian question from the standpoint of educated natives well affected to British rule, cannot do better than to purchase Romesh C. Dutt's 'England and India' (London: Chatto & Windus). Mr. Dutt, after twenty-five years of official service and the occupation of a seat in the Bengal Legislative Council, is well qualified to write, and he has done the world a service by the publication of this little book. Eschewing the recital of military operations, he traces the connection between the United Kingdom and India, and sketches the policies of the principal administrators. He points out what he conceives to be the failings and defects from which danger and disunion might arise. These he sums up as unsympathetic treatment; irresponsible government; oppressive taxation, mainly due to mistaken military policy; the drain of home (British) charges; centralization in rural administration; the exclusion, in the face of reiterated promises of impartial treatment, of qualified natives from the higher civil offices. These last he shows to be now held by 1,210 Europeans and 79 Indians. "The time is come when the rulers of India may bestow on the people of India a carefully guarded system of representation and a larger share in civil and military administration."

In accordance with our suggestion of a permanent value for the book-shelf possessed by 'Meyer's Historisch-Geographischer Kalender' for 1898, the New York publishers, Lemcke & Buechner, have transformed the pad into a substantial volume, bound in cloth; and as next year is the fiftieth anniversary of the establishment of the firm of B. Westermann & Co., to which Lemcke & Buechner have succeeded, this fact is stamped upon the covers for a golden jubilee souvenir. This innovation of binding we trust may find favor enough to make it customary, for a portion of the edition at least.

We learn that the *Osprey*, an illustrated monthly magazine of ornithology, hitherto published at Galesburg, Ill., by Walter Adams Johnson, in association with Dr. Elliott Coues, is about to be transferred to this city, where it will be issued in enlarged and otherwise modified form by the Doubleday & McClure Co. The *Osprey* began as an amateur periodical, but outgrew its class with its first volume, and now awaits further development in the larger field it has found. Colored plates will be a feature of the magazine under the new management, and we shall probably soon see whether Mr. Fuertes can paint birds as well as we know he can draw them.

The Nature Study Publishing Company of Chicago issue a monthly periodical called *Birds*, now in its second half-yearly volume, with a circulation, it is said, of some 50,000 copies. We have no reason to question these figures, phenomenal as they are in the literature of ornithology; certainly no periodical, and probably no book, on birds ever before found anything like such favor with the public. This is due to the plates, several of which appear in each number. They are executed by a secret process to which the name of "color photography" is applied, with somewhat startling results. There is room for the widest possible difference of opinion regarding the merits of this performance, but the public verdict is emphatical in its favor. If success be not open to criticism, we have only to say that the result in this case must be reckoned with, and the end is not yet. The accomplishment is all the more remarkable in that the text is anonymous, and no editor or contributor appears to be responsible. We understand that the articles are mostly written by Mr. C. C. Marble. In one series of them, birds are made to speak for themselves, autobiographically, and sign their own names, after the fashion of the now celebrated petition which Senator Hoar presented successfully to the Massachusetts Legislature. There is something very taking about this, especially with our young folks.

The bare announcement is made in *Science* that Prof. Forel, who has held the chair of psychiatry in the University of Zurich, and has been director of the State Asylum for the Insane, has resigned these positions on account of the attacks made upon him by the press for the part he has taken in combating the use of alcohol. It is difficult to understand how such thin-skinnedness can exist in a German professor, and further particulars in regard to this situation will be awaited with interest. It is plainly a blow to the cause of temperance in Europe, for Prof. Forel was the keenest of the half-dozen men who were urging movement in this direction. Meantime he has issued an addendum to his important paper on Consciousness, which was noticed in these columns a year ago.

As the first number on its programme for the current season, the Elizabethan Stage Society of London gave Shakspere's "Tempest" at the Mansion House on November 5 (repeated a few days later at Goldsmiths Hall) in the Elizabethan manner. The members of the society acquitted themselves creditably in their difficult task of presenting a Shaksperian play, partaking of the character of a masque, with severe attention to archæological verisimilitude. The costuming and the music (with the original instruments) were all that could be desired, while the "Egyptian Hall" in the Mansion House, in spite of its modern date, lent itself very readily to the illusion of a Jacobean private performance or masquing-hall. Yet, on the whole, the delivery of Shakspere's lines by amateurs, with or without scenery and modern stage effects, can be made no very distinguished success. Shakspere's plays, above all, and even so highly poetical a piece as the "Tempest," require to be *acted*. The non-Shaksperian drama is the proper field for such work, which, directed to purely archæological and educational aims, as is the work of this society, and as was the case with the revival of the "Epicœne" at Harvard, can be made of great interest and value, and may profitably be attempted by serious-minded amateurs and by the English departments in our universities, while waiting for our endowed theatre with a company of actors competent to revive our literary drama in the form for which it was designed. Later in the season the London society proposes to give the Viola plot from the "Coxcomb" by Beaumont and Fletcher (in the hall of the Inner Temple), Middleton's "Spanish Gypsy," Jonson's "Sad Shepherd," and Ford's "The Broken Heart."

Gustav Fock, Leipzig, and New York (P. O. box 2943), has purchased the scientific library of the late Prof. Victor Meyer of Heidelberg, which he wishes to sell *en bloc*, or less the set of Liebig's *Annalen* (1832-'96), which alone is valued at 1,700 marks. Eight thousand two hundred marks is asked for the library complete.

The movement to secure a part of Elmwood, the birthplace and life-long residence of James Russell Lowell, as a public memorial park, has, it appears, still need of a generous and widespread support. Of the $35,000 wanted, the sum of $19,000 only has been raised—in part provisionally. The house is as yet not purchasable, but in time may be expected to be added to the pine grove and other woodland immediately adjoining it. The amount now sought is what a sculptured monument to our great poet might cost; but the park is the first and fittest monument, and it would be a discredit to the American people to let the project die. Subscriptions may be sent to W. A. Bullard, First National Bank, Cambridge, Mass.

—The fourth volume of the 'Correspondence of Rufus King' (Putnams) brings to an end King's mission in England, and contains fully as much interesting material as the former volumes. On the signing of a convention for determining the vexed question of claims arising under the treaty of 1794, and in view of a growing strain in his re-

lations with the Administration, King sent in his resignation in August, 1802. Of the diplomatic representatives of the United States to European countries after the Revolution no one had so fortunate a service as King. Not only was he successful in winning the respect and confidence of the English Ministry, but his retention in office by Jefferson was a striking proof of his standing at home. It is true Jefferson had a purpose in keeping him at London, for a war with England was not improbable, and, had it become a fact, King as a Federalist would have borne the blame. On leaving his station, King could mention only two questions remaining undetermined between the two countries: impressments and the trade between the United States and the British West Indies, both insoluble at that time. What had been secured and settled by King would make a very long list and one very honorable to himself. He retired at an interesting juncture, for the peace of Amiens was to be broken and England again to make war upon France; and Monroe was in France to negotiate a transfer of Louisiana, for which King and Livingston had prepared the way, and to which the English Ministry were entirely favorable. As King's successor, Monroe had little standing in England, and welcomed the excuse offered by the Spanish negotiation to get out of the country. A sharper contrast can hardly be imagined than that between the diplomatic careers of Rufus King and James Monroe.

—Returning to the United States in 1803, King found his party in a minority and hopelessly divided. The disreputable intrigue to advance Burr, and the proposition to divide the Union, met with no favor with him; his attitude was one of decent reserve, yet of great influence. He took no active part in practical politics, but his character and experience made him a "seer," to be consulted and kept informed by the active workers. The letters to him from Pickering, Gore, and Tracy form the most valuable part of this volume, for they are the unreserved communications of men in the thick of the fight. With Jefferson and his plans King could have little sympathy, though his criticisms are in better taste and judgment than those of other Federalists, who often asserted that Jefferson could appoint only rascals to office, and the greater the rascal the more deserving was he considered as a candidate for trust. The death of Hamilton naturally receives some notice, for King was later held in part responsible for the duel. Writing in 1802, Troup describes Hamilton's law practice: "I have at length succeeded in making him somewhat mercenary. I have known him latterly to dun his clients for money. . . . These indications of regard to property give me hopes that we shall not be obliged to raise a subscription to pay for his funeral expenses." Yet this was exactly what was done, for Hamilton died deeply in debt. The letters abound in personal interest, while presenting a clear, if somewhat partisan, account of the public measures of the time. Franklin, Hamilton, Randolph, Chase, and Jefferson are exhibited as well as Monroe's scheme of colonizing troublesome blacks, the purchase of Louisiana, and Miranda's expedition. We again note some very careless proof-reading. The sentence from Gallatin's letter (at top of page 555) is made meaningless by printing *note* for *risk*, and *present* for *prescribe*. The percentage sign on page 195 is clearly wrong, and the duty on oil is given differently on pages 194 and 201. The Latin on page 319 is as bad as the French on page 556, and among other errors we note *exports* for *reports* (297), *prepaid* for *prepar'd* (452), and *one* for *our* (489).

—Between *foisty* and *Frankish*, Mr. Bradley's new instalment of the Oxford English Dictionary (Henry Frowde) comprises an exceptionally large number of obsolete words, of which one may regret losing *fosterland*, 'adopted country'; and *formity* (whence deformity); together with some notable present Americanisms. Such is the naming a child *for* a person (instead of after), but there is an English quotation of 1800; *forehanded*, but Jeremy Taylor used it; *forever* (the adverb written without a hyphen), but this goes back in England to 1678; *forward of; for rent*, 'to let'; *fork* (of a river); *forthputting*. Mr. Lowell is cited for this last convenient locution, and he made a literary use of *forthright*, which is a living word in England, but not in this country. The same may be said of *forwards* for *forward*, the English distinction being that *forwards* "expresses a definite direction viewed in contrast with other directions." The word *forth* has shed many of its uses, and Grey censured the word as obsolete in 1771. "Back and forth" has now taken refuge on this side of the Atlantic. "Like forty" is only our national application of a use of *forty* from Shakspere down to express indefinitely a large number. In pronunciation we Americans have completely anglicized the word *fracas* by sounding the *s*. With equal courage we have popularized Scriptural metaphor in making "the *footstool*" stand for the earth. In Mr. Lowell's "civlyzation doos git *forrid*" (rhyming with horrid), the Scotch *forrit* for *forward* is approached, by a nautical avenue, as we surmise; but skipper English could hardly be taken cognizance of in this Dictionary. We should have liked to meet with Emerson's "In an age of fops and toys" under *fop*, as we do with Longfellow's "*footprints* on the sands of time" in its proper place, whereas Shakspere's "Dance on the sands, and yet no *footing* seen" fails to be adduced in the sense of 'footprint.' And under *forgiveness* we miss FitzGerald's "Man's forgiveness give—and take."

—In word-formation there is observable a curious endeavor, which apparently broke out in the fifties, to frame a verb for *formula*. Westcott used *formulize* in 1851; R. Knox *formule* in 1852; *Frazer's Magazine* (in the same year) *formularize;* and Earl Carnarvon *formulate* in 1860. All but *formule* are flourishing, and give a redundant but not valueless synonymy. The old words for galley-slave, *forsado, forsar* (*forsary*), have quite gone out—as has in French *forsaire* (*forçaire*), being superseded by *forçat*. The Italian *forte-piano* we have changed about, preparatory to shortening the number of syllables in pianofort(e), and finally dropping the *forte* altogether. Of *forte* (point of excellence) Mr. Bradley remarks: "As in many other adoptions of French adjectives used as substantives, the feminine form has been ignorantly substituted for the masculine; compare *locale, morale* (of an army), etc." This is, perhaps, too severe, for the mute *e* serves, at least (albeit to the displeasure of our phonetic reformers) to distinguish the new word to the eye from corresponding forms already found in English, and (in the case of the dissyllables) to fix the stress and pronunciation in harmony with the French. Euphony, too, certainly plays a part in our preference for the feminine form; *naïve*, or we mistake, has with us the upper hand of *naïf*, and is supported by *naïvely* and *naïveté*. *Foreword*, which has still but an archaic and affected sound, we owe to Sir G. W. Dasent, in 1842; in 1846 W. J. Thoms struck out *folk-lore*, which has come to stay. *Footlights* emerges first in Dickens, 1836-9, following upon the extensive use of gas; one may see these lights already depicted in Cruikshank's 'Sketch Book' (1834). In 1812, or the date of the 'Rejected Addresses,' they were "our long wax candles, with short cotton wicks." We have heretofore suggested that Erasmus gave currency to the word *anarchy*. It was in translating this scholar's 'Praise of Folly' that Chaloner, in 1549, happily fashioned *foolosopher* (μωρόσοφος). Mr. Bradley forbears to mark it obsolete, though he cites no occurrence of it this side of 1694.

—The widespread interest in Tennyson's biography has drawn attention to the coincidence which made 1809 the birth-year of many eminent men. A still more remarkable coincidence has not been referred to—so far as we are aware—and that is that for a century the years ending in 9 were most productive of celebrities. Thus, Samuel Johnson, the dictator in English literature during the eighteenth century, was born in 1709; 1719 had no great sons, but 1729 produced Edmund Burke, Lessing, Empress Catherine II., and Suvaroff, the most celebrated of Russian generals. In 1739 was born Laharpe, now merely a name, but for two generations at least an authority in French criticism and literature. 1749 saw the birth of Goethe, Mirabeau, Laplace, Charles James Fox, and Jenner, and 1759 gave light to Burns, Schiller, William Pitt, Danton, and William Wilberforce. 1769 deserves still more emphatically the title of *annus mirabilis*, since in it were born Napoleon and three of his most famous marshals, Ney, Lannes, and Soult; Wellington, Alexander von Humboldt and Cuvier, Castlereagh, and Sir Thomas Lawrence, the painter. 1779 can boast of men of the second class only, yet they are still men of distinction—Washington Allston, Francis Scott Key, the author of "The Star-Spangled Banner"; Joseph Story, Jomini, Lord Melbourne, the Queen's first prime minister; and Lord Campbell. 1789 seems to be sufficiently conspicuous as the initiator of the French Revolution, yet it produced Daguerre. 1799, more prolific, ushered in several men whose works have helped to give our own century renown—Balzac and Heine, Delacroix, Pushkin, the first of Russian poets; Thomas Hood, and Lord Derby. But 1809 outshines it, producing, among statesmen, Abraham Lincoln and Gladstone, Beust and Ricasoli and Robert C. Winthrop; among poets, Tennyson, Edward FitzGerald, Oliver Wendell Holmes, and Giuseppe Giusti; among musicians, Chopin and Mendelssohn, and, in solitary preëminence, Charles Darwin, whose name beyond all others gives our age its name. February 12, the day on which Lincoln and Darwin were born, might well be made an international holiday for all English-speaking peoples; history does not record another instance in which two such epoch-making men had the same birthday. 1819 also contributes a noteworthy group—

Queen Victoria, Prince Albert, George Eliot, John Ruskin, Lowell, Charles Kingsley, A. H. Clough; W. W. Story, the poet-sculptor; Struve, the Russian astronomer; Courbet, the French painter; Duke de Gramont, whose overweening Jingoism precipitated the Franco-Prussian war; Elias Howe, the perfecter of the sewing-machine, which has revolutionized the labor of millions of women; and W. T. G. Morton, who first publicly demonstrated the virtue of ether as an anæsthetic. Here is, indeed, a memorable list. It is not too much to say that the eight years 1709, 1729, 1749, 1759, 1769, 1799, 1809, and 1819, produced more celebrities of the first rank than were born in all the other 103 years of the eleven decades between 1709 and 1819. In old days, when the superstitious attributed a mystic significance to the number 9, some cabalist might have tried to explain this list by an appeal to the hidden principles of his lore. We see, of course, only coincidences, but coincidences sufficiently striking to deserve notice.

—"Mr. Justin Winsor," writes a correspondent in England, "was much esteemed in the Old Home. An American, first of all, he was one of those genuine Americans who recognize that, after all, Britain was the land of their forefathers. Mr. Winsor's solid knowledge of those branches of learning of which he was a student, caused him to be looked up to as an authority. On reading the admirable notice of him that appeared in the *Nation*, I have been surprised to find no mention of his preëminence in cartography. I have heard Mr. Coote of the British Museum, himself a front-rank expert, speak in the highest terms of Mr. Winsor's attainments in that branch of learning, when he unreservedly described the late Librarian of Harvard as 'the first cartographer in the New World.' They had never met, but knew one of the other by their work, and they had crossed swords in the press upon questions of cartography. Moreover, was not Mr. Winsor called in as an expert in cartography to advise the Cleveland Commissioners for defining 'the true divisional line' between Venezuela and British Guiana? With respect to that service, and the information thereby gained by him of the merits of the question, the following statement may give food for reflection to those insufficiently informed persons who vehemently denounced Great Britain as grabbing the territory of a weak South American Republic. When Mr. Winsor was over here in the summer, attending the International Conference of Librarians, after we had talked for some time of historical matters connected with the Venezuelan boundary question, he said, in substance, and in words like the following: 'Now that the matter has been handed over to a Court of Arbitration, I think I may say that in my opinion Great Britain has the stronger case up to the Schomburgk Line. Beyond the Schomburgk Line'—here he paused—'well, I think Venezuela has more to say.' "

RECENT BOOKS ON LITERARY STUDY AND THEORY.

Talks on the Study of Literature. By Arlo Bates. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Literary Art: A Handbook for its Study. By Harriet Noble. Terre Haute, Ind.: The Inland Publishing Co.

Style. By Walter Raleigh. Edward Arnold.

The Principles of Criticism: An Introduction to the Study of Literature. By W. Basil Worsfold. London: George Allen.

New Essays towards a Critical Method. By John Mackinnon Robertson. John Lane.

Whether or not it be true that we are falling into a stage of Neo-Alexandrianism in literary study as in literary production, it cannot be denied that the recently multiplying books on poetics and rhetoric bulk larger than ever before, in the comparative rarity of new and conspicuous masterpieces of a creative sort. A desperate effort is being made in many quarters to supply the loudly proclaimed want of a complete and methodic art and science of literary study and teaching—not as yet, it must be pronounced, with any very notable success. There are, of course, conservatives and sceptics who maintain that the thing is impossible; that there is no "science" of criticism at best, and that the art of teaching rests in the teacher, an incommunicable gift; or even that literature is not to be taught, being the breath and finer spirit of a knowledge caught up by each soul in the privacy and sanctity of the inner life, and not open to the contamination of the school-room and the publicity of examinations. And then there are two schools even among critics and expounders of literature: there are those who insist on form (whence the theory and æsthetics of literature in all their divergences) and those who insist on subject-matter and spirit (and, as literature concerns itself with the whole range of ideation, their discordancy, too, is endless). The rarity of the noteworthy successes in this field of study, as, say, in the 'Poetics' of Aristotle and the essay on Style of Herbert Spencer, while certainly marking out the innumerable failures more indubitably as failures, according to the view you take of the whole matter, may be said on the one hand to prove the practical impossibility of working the subject out, or on the other hand simply to make plain the necessity of calling the best wits to its solution. As it is, the question certainly drags, and, in spite of the multitude of counsellors, there is little progress.

As a slight contribution to the discussion, Prof. Arlo Bates has gathered up and put into print his lectures on the study of literature, delivered at the Lowell Institute in 1895. The book is in the essay style, written from the latitude of Boston, full of well-sorted talk, criticism, anecdotes, and advice for readers—most of it generally sound, but too often indefinite and inconclusive, after the convention of the essay style, and most of it, moreover, tolerably obvious. There is really no new point of view or new proposition in the entire volume. The humdrum patter about art is sufficiently recurrent, but when the author gets on the track of what promises to be an interesting idea, he has a distressing habit of giving up the chase before he has bagged his game. The discussion of the Sunday newspaper and the magazine habits, and of modern literature for children (pp. 163-5, 193-8), inculcates salutary doctrine. The book is enlivened with occasional critical *obiter dicta* on current literature, and we are made acquainted with Prof. Bates's personal bias of judgment, condemnatory of "In Memoriam" (as art), Ibsen, Zola, Tolstoi, and Maeterlinck, and with a tempered admiration for Dumas, Turgeneff, Sienkiewicz, Meredith, Hardy, Stevenson, and Kipling. The book follows the fashion of the day in depreciating (quite unduly) the historical study of literature. Several of the chapters are singularly empty of matter, and although in their original form of "talks" the contents of these lectures were doubtless useful and agreeable, we doubt if they are important enough for preservation in print.

Miss Noble's 'Handbook of Literary Art' is a well-meant attempt to digest and codify for the use of schools and of readers in general the matter bearing more strictly on literary study and theory contained in such authors as Genung, Gummere, Moulton, and others. Its scope is not unlike that of the recent volume by Crawshaw. We cannot deem either the plan or its execution commendable. If the study of literature in the schools is to bring young students but to this, there can be little profit in it. The rage of our day, it is true, is for abstractions about literature; but one may doubt whether it connotes a deeper feeling for the subject than that of the readers of past generations who browsed unguided in whole libraries. At any rate, literary theory should follow, not precede, the reading of masterpieces, although it may be fairly urged (as with the study of language) that a certain amount of the grammar must precede the reading of texts. If the emphasis of class-room study, especially in pre-collegiate grades, is to be laid upon skeletons and analyses and classifications aiming chiefly "to unravel the conscious mental performance of the artist" (p. 28), there is grave cause for fearing lest the formative and spiritual effects which have been promised from this study will be subordinated to methodology, which more appropriately may be acquired through other studies. The plan is well enough for students of a certain grade, although there would always be danger lest those subjected to it should come to imagine that, by virtue of the process, they must necessarily get at the heart of the matter. In spite of the pressure of the class-room in such a direction, it is necessary to plead against too much method and process in the reading of literature in the schools. The book in hand is marred by too much vague platitude about art (consisting mostly of weak dilutions from its sources), and by an amateurish and faulty style which cries aloud for the pencil of the theme-revisor. It is full of echoes of "the study-class" and the village-rhapsodist.

The little book on 'Style,' by an English professor, while chiefly an essay in phrase-making, and just a bit forced, is in cheering contrast to the heavy *morgue* of the volumes just described. It is significant among books on literary theory as an attempt at such fresh and creative work as we are accustomed to expect from French criticism alone. Although the mechanics of composition can, "style cannot be taught," says Prof. Raleigh. . . . "Divination is the only means of access to these mysteries." . . . "Criticism has been popularly opposed to creation, perhaps because the kind of creation that it attempts is rarely achieved, and so the world forgets that the main business of criticism, after all, is not to legislate, nor to classify, but to raise the dead." The essay as a whole is perhaps a sequence of topics and of paragraphs—mostly variations and improvisations on standard thematics, but fluent and sparkling

with suggestion—rather than anything definitely articulated. For this reason, it will hardly serve as an object-lesson in its kind, but it is none the less readable. As style in itself, it is somewhat too ejaculatory, too pertinaciously clever, and too sturdy in the pursuit of epigram—a touch-and-go style, apt and delicate in citation and illustration, eager for innuendo and implication, free and frolic in spirit, but, after all, self-conscious. Prof. Raleigh's master is Stevenson—the Stevenson of 'Virginibus Puerisque' and of 'Memories and Portraits'—and there are hints of Pater and Meredith. Good things in the book are numerous, as the pages on slang (pp. 27-32), on modern melodramaticism (pp. 81 ff.), and in the frequent epigrams. Still, as a composition, the essay lacks ganglion, centre, purpose, destination, and is a good deal in the air.

A more serious attempt at the philosophy of literature than any of the preceding is Mr. Worsfold's treatise on 'The Principles of Criticism.' The sub-title may be found a little misleading, for the book is too formal, too abstruse, and too argumentative to serve as an "Introduction to the Study of Literature" in any properly regulated plan of education. It resembles Miss Noble's 'Handbook' in presenting a digest of the substance of various authorities in critical theory, choosing, however, for this purpose first-hand rather than second-hand text-book authors. It is written, too, by a scholar and a thinker, although by one thoroughly an Englishman in his limitations, in spite of the appeal to Lessing and Cousin which is part of the author's plan. Its matter is not thoroughly digested, but produces (much of it) the effect of being thrown together. The book presents a combination of an analysis of the leading ideas in literary æsthetics of Aristotle (superfluous in view of the recent work of Mr. Butcher), Plato, Addison, Lessing, Cousin, Matthew Arnold, and others, together with a discursive discussion of current topics of related interest in the review style. The original "principles of criticism," which are the outcome of the last four chapters, are somewhat obscure and indecisive.

Mr. Worsfold waives the attempt of German metaphysics at a "transcendental" æsthetics, and defends "psychological" æsthetics as agreeing both with Greek experience and with sound philosophy. The truth of art and the truth of logic and nature are not the same. Art, as Bacon maintained, idealizes and submits the shows of things to the desires of the mind, while its peculiar faculty is the imagination, as Addison first demonstrated. Plato is nearer modern ideas than Aristotle, in that he emphasizes the test of truth rather than the test of form in art. Lessing is Aristotelian in concerning himself chiefly with form and with limitations of the arts. Cousin returns to the idealist or Platonic æsthetics; while Matthew Arnold has been most conspicuous among recent critics in subjecting poetry to the tests of imagination and of truth, or, in other words, of the application of moral ideas to the criticism of life. Further than this there are chapters devoted to the topics of Poetic Justice, of The Drama as a Composite Art, of The Novel as a Form of Literature, and of Authority in Literature and Art. The later chapters are full of a clever young man's confident modernity of view, while the preceding chapters are soundly historical in method. The most striking differentiæ of the plan of the book as a whole are the historical importance assigned to Addison and to Cousin, and the gaps resulting from neglecting the contributions of other modern writers who are quite as important. Addison is important in the history of applied criticism in England, but in æsthetic theory Mr. Worsfold hardly vindicates the large claims he makes for him. Although the term imagination is little used in critical discussion before his day, the essential idea of the faculty, under the terms "fancy" (phantasy) or "wit," is common enough with the Elizabethan writers, and is regarded by more than one of them as the ground-idea of the poetic faculty and function.

A critic of quite other views of the purpose of art than Mr. Worsfold, with his adherence to the Platonic doctrine of the importance of the ethical and the true in poetry, is the author of the 'New Essays towards a Critical Method,' who (theoretically) admits of no test in art but that of "workmanship." Mr. Robertson's earnestness, honesty, knowledge of his subject, and purely intellectual acuteness are as unmistakable as the general wrongness and perverse infelicity of his literary judgments. In these 'New Essays' he returns to the main subject of the 'Old' in a short introductory essay on the theory of criticism; the rest of the volume consists of an uncompromising and polemical vindication of Poe as man, as poet, as "fictionist," and generally as "reasoning power"; a harsh and hostile psychological analysis of Coleridge's character and performance; a completely censorious and misapprehensive rule-of-thumb critique on the poetry of Shelley; a study of Keats marked by extraordinary aberrations of judgment in detail; a couple of local (and temporal) papers on Burns, presenting matter perhaps salutary for Scotchmen when coming from a Scotch pen, but negligible for others; then, by way of surprise, an essay of headlong and disproportionate appreciation of Clough—as a novelist! and finally, in an appendix, the essay of most serious worth of all, being a study of the phenomena of accent, quantity, and feet in modern and (to some extent and historically) in ancient versification. All this may or may not constitute contributions "towards a critical method"; the residuum of feeling with most readers who close the book will be one of puzzlement at the visible vagaries in "method" which lead to the exaltation of Poe and Clough in the same breath with a laboriously reasoned denigration of the greater part of the work of Shelley and Coleridge, and much of the best of the work of Keats!

In critical theory Mr. Robertson believes, as Mr. Moulton believes, that criticism (practical criticism, not merely literary æsthetics) is or may be made a "science." Only that he wears his rue with a difference. Pure intellect and logic, not sensibility and appreciation, are to be the bulwarks of the new "systematic" criticism. The greater part of the author's introductory essay is taken up with an exposition of the views of the brilliant young French essayist, the lamented Hennequin; with these he finds himself in entire sympathy. The volume as a whole, indeed, may be described as an attempt to introduce into English practice something of the methods and spirit of one of the latest schools of French criticism. The attempt fails precisely because the author is altogether lacking in the fine French instinct in things literary, while he has sacrificed, or has never fairly possessed, the native English feeling for what is right and high in poetry. The critical ineptitudes which this volume affords make a melancholy list. The explanation of Poe's "Ulalume" (p. 89) is ingenuity at its last gasp; the comparison of Coleridge, Dryden, and Burke (p. 162) is quite impossible; the ineptitudes of the essay on Shelley we leave to the true Shelley worshippers to refute; some of the generalized comments on Keats are just, but the detailed judgments are often worthy of Prof. Wilkinson. Decidedly as yet the new method is giving a bad account of itself.

SLOANE'S NAPOLEON.

Life of Napoleon Bonaparte. By William Milligan Sloane, Ph.D., L.H.D., Professor of History in Princeton University. In four volumes. Illustrated. The Century Company. 1896-97.

There has seldom, if ever, been issued from any American publishing-house a more sumptuous work than Prof. Sloane's monumental history of Napoleon. No expense has been spared to produce four volumes more splendid in appearance than any ever before sent forth by the Century Company. All that the improved methods of reproduction can do has been done, and it may be said at once that any one desiring to make a gift, as a wedding or a birthday present, of a picture-book would find Prof. Sloane's volumes heartily appreciated, for they are fitted to adorn the drawing-room table, and the numerous illustrations will serve to while away many a tedious hour. There can be no doubt that this will be the principal use to which these volumes will be put, for they are too heavy to handle, and therefore too difficult to read, unless propped up on a special desk or managed with special appliances after the fashion of an ancient folio. Their price puts them out of the reach of the ordinary, every-day reader, as their cumbrousness makes them awkward for the scholar to manipulate.

When the first volume was published, a few remarks were made in these columns upon the character of the illustrations which form so conspicuous a part of this Life of Napoleon; but, now that the work is actually completed, it is perhaps as well to emphasize once more the point then made. Prof. Sloane, indeed, ought not to be held responsible for these illustrations, but the attention of the public ought to be clearly drawn to the fact that a large proportion of them, however admirable in themselves, are entirely without historic value. In the case of a confessed picture-book, the critic has to deal only with the pictures themselves and with the excellence or want of excellence of the reproductions. But this Life of Napoleon does not profess to be a mere picture-book; it professes to be a history. Prof. Sloane has spent much time and great labor upon it, and it is unfortunate for his reputation that the accompanying illustrations should detract from, instead of increasing, the serious attention one would naturally bestow upon it. Prof. Sloane must know, as well as any other historical scholar, that illustrations to an historical work are valuable only when re-

productions of contemporary pictures, or actual views of places described, or authentic portraits of men and women. Had he had his way, no doubt, his history of Napoleon would not have been disfigured from this point of view, or embellished from the publishers' point of view, with the numerous fanciful studies of Napoleon himself in situations of supposed interest, or with the imaginative battle-scenes of modern battle-painters. There is no particular fault to be found with the pictures themselves; many, indeed, have great artistic merit, and some, like Meissonier's "1814," may claim rank with the world's great pictures; but they have no place in a professed history written from original sources. The colored illustrations, which form the glory of the book, nearly all belong to the class of fancy pictures.

As regards the text, a difficulty meets the critic at once. It is not just to treat a scholar of Prof. Sloane's reputation as the compiler of another popular Life of Napoleon, and yet he gives no opportunity for judging the thoroughness of his work. He says: "It will be understood that the absence of references, notes, and discussions throughout the preceding pages is due to the publishers' plan, which, in deference to what seems to be the present taste of the reading public, excluded them as interfering with the course of the narrative" (vol. iv., p. 251). The publishers perhaps gauge correctly the taste of the picture-book-buying public, but Prof. Sloane must know that his work cannot be seriously considered as a contribution to history without these very "references, notes, and discussions" to which such slighting allusion is made. The list of historical sources which he appends is of trifling value when no information is given as to how those sources have been used. A mere collection of titles of good, bad, and indifferent books, of primary and secondary authorities, jumbled together without any attempt to classify or criticise them, is a poor guide to the reader who desires to find whence Prof. Sloane obtained his information, or desires to know whither he may go for further knowledge on any particular topic. The essential characteristic of modern historical work which expects to be taken seriously is the frequent citation and comparison of authorities in order that the reader may not have to depend upon the *ipse dixit* of the secondary writer, and may know how to test and estimate his diligence and his judgment. It is only the Abbotts and the Headleys who, in professedly popular books, can afford to omit all direct references to their sources. It is a known fact that Prof. Sloane has done much industrious work among primary authorities, and it is therefore the more aggravating that his present readers cannot specifically discover what new things he has found or what old mistakes he has corrected.

We shall venture on a few examples. The first passage to which a student of Napoleon's early career turns in a new life of him is to see how his début at the siege of Toulon in 1793 is treated. Few points in the military history of the Revolution have been more bitterly debated than the question of the amount of credit due to the young Bonaparte for the successful military operations which led to the recapture of the great French naval port on the Mediterranean. A single paragraph deals with this point. The credit of the measures leading to success is given by Prof. Sloane to Napoleon, and then, on page 137 of the first volume, it is remarked that "there was either jealousy of his merits, which are declared by his enemies to have been unduly vaunted, or else his share had been more insignificant than is generally supposed." This entirely disregards the strongly supported assertions which have been made, for instance, in the carefully composed work by MM. L. Krebs and H. Moris, 'Les Campagnes dans les Alpes pendant la Révolution,' published in 1891, that the plan for the taking of Toulon was General Dugommier's, and that the credit belongs to him. Prof. Sloane does not mention this important book in his list of historical sources in the fourth volume, though it is almost entirely compiled from original and most valuable material.

Turning to the second volume, it is astonishing to find that Prof. Sloane considers the *coup d'état* of 18 Fructidor, 1797, as mainly the work of Napoleon, who was at that time commanding in Italy. It would take too long to discuss this view, which is contained in a passage in volume ii., page 15.

"It is now generally said," writes Prof. Sloane, "that Fructidor was exclusively the work of Bonaparte; or, rather, that the thirteenth of Vendémiaire was the work of Barras, assisted by Bonaparte—that the eighteenth of Fructidor was the work of Bonaparte assisted by Barras. This is only a half-truth based on an exaggerated estimate of the facts. While, on the whole, Bonaparte was at the moment pleased with the results of this second political stroke, there was much connected with it utterly repugnant to his wishes."

This is eminently a case in which it would be interesting to know upon what authorities Prof. Sloane relies. Certainly M. Victor Pierre, the most recent and most thorough student of the events of Fructidor, has written nothing to justify it. The general who carried out the military part of the *coup d'état* was indeed Augereau, who had been sent from Italy to the aid of the Directors in Paris, but it would be too much, on this account, to attribute the conception and the issue of the "day" to General Bonaparte.

As a random instance of the trying absence of cited authorities in volume iii., reference may be made to Prof. Sloane's allusion to (it cannot be called an account of) Sir Arthur Wellesley's first campaign in Portugal. Two or three sentences only upon page 123 are given to this campaign, and they contain one remarkable error of omission. It is stated correctly enough that, just as the battle of Vimeiro had been won by Wellesley, he was superseded by Burrard. But no mention is made of the further supersession of Burrard by Dalrymple; and the impression is left that it was Burrard who negotiated the Convention of Cintra. Prof. Sloane, of course, knows better than this, but the omission is, to say the least of it, enough to suggest that he has not read Sir Hew Dalrymple's defence of his proceedings in Spain, which, further, is not cited in his list of historical sources any more than the works of M. Pierre or MM. Krebs and Moris.

In volume iv., which deals with the overthrow and latter days of Napoleon, it is natural that the reader should at once turn to the story of the Hundred Days. M. Henry Houssaye, in his masterly book entitled '1815,' has disproved the oft-told tale that the return of Napoleon from Elba was welcomed with enthusiasm by the people of France. Prof. Sloane does mention M. Houssaye's volume in his list of historical sources, but he does not seem to have grasped its meaning. He admits, indeed, that the small number of votes cast for the Additional Act shows what he calls "a curious apathy," but he goes on to say later (p. 168), with inappropriate eloquence, that in the following April "every man with any means saw himself beggared, and every mother felt her son slipping from her arms to swim once more that sea of blood in which for a generation the hope of the nation had been submerged." All readers of M. Houssaye's volume will pronounce this statement to be absurdly exaggerated. Yet the critic is loath to condemn Prof. Sloane, for it may be that in the French archives he has found information that tells against the conclusions of the chief French authority on the subject. And here we end by expressing the hope that Prof. Sloane may bring out a new edition of the Life without fancy pictures, and with a scholarly exhibition of authorities on disputed points, worthy of his reputation.

Shakespeare, Bacon, Jonson, and Greene: A Study. By Edward James Castle. London: Sampson Low.

The Baconian "theory" is the mother of inventions. Most of her progeny are so monstrous as to excite pity or abhorrence rather than amusement, but here at last is a bantling at which one can laugh without disgust, and the *accoucheur* is "one of Her Majesty's Counsel." Before he took to the law, Mr. Castle was a lieutenant in the Royal Engineers. Since he became a Q.C., he has apparently had an abundance of (more or less learned) leisure, and has fallen to reading Shakspere. Where he learned to reason and to handle evidence we are not informed. Perhaps it was in the army, while he was superintending the big ditch on the Island of Portland (for particulars see p. 125 of his ingenious "study"). His naïveté he has doubtless acquired in the practice of his second profession.

Mr. Castle's view may be summed up as follows: Shakspere's dramas are divisible into two groups, the "legal" and the "non-legal" plays. In the former he evinces such a knowledge of technicalities and so fine a comprehension of a lawyer's feelings and habits of thought as no layman can have possessed. The latter betray ignorance of which no lawyer would have been guilty. The extreme Baconian hypothesis has not a leg to stand on; there is no reason to suppose that Shakspere did not write his own works. But an author who blunders so sadly in the "non-legal" plays cannot have written the "legal" plays unaided. We must infer, then, that, in the composition of some of his dramas, Shakspere received the assistance of a lawyer. So far it does not appear that this friendly coadjutor was Bacon. Indeed, says Mr. Castle, one might rather think of Coke. But, if a probability can be made out that Bacon and Shakspere were acquaintances, and if, further, points of connection between the works of the two can be shown, we may reasonably conclude that Bacon was the contributor. Now Mr. Ignatius Donnelly, though his cryptogram does not strike the legal mind favorably, has nevertheless collected many "parallel passages," which "do

go a great way to establish that Bacon had some part in Shakspere's works." Again, Bacon's commonplace-book, the famous 'Promus of Formularies and Elegancies,' edited by the immortal Mrs. Pott, is such a collection "as Bacon might have been expected to make if he were preparing to write or assist others in writing works like those we know as Shakspere's."

These are preliminaries, doubtless, and prove nothing; but there is more to come. "The Comedy of Errors" is one of the "legal" plays. It was produced at Gray's Inn, in the course of the celebrated revels described in the 'Gesta Grayorum.' A part of these revels was the mock trial of a certain "sorcerer or conjurer," charged, among other things, with having "foisted a company of base and common fellows to make up our disorders with a play of Errors and Confusions." This conjurer must have been Bacon. At all events Bacon was, in Mr. Spedding's opinion, the author of the speeches of the Six Councillors which formed a part of the entertainment with which the revels were continued. If, then, Shakspere had a helper learned in the law, we may safely conclude that this helper was Bacon.

The whole argument is clinched by a strong probability that Bacon had much to do with the publication of the first folio of Shakspere's plays—a probability that rests mainly on a new theory of the authorship of "Henry VIII." In this drama, if we follow Mr. Castle, Shakspere had no hand. In its first form—"All is True," the play which caused the accidental burning of the Globe Theatre—it was a "merry and licentious" affair. In its present shape it is mainly the work of Ben Jonson, who wrote (or rewrote) it at Bacon's request and with Bacon's assistance. It is full of legal lore, and, in particular, of details about the lord-chancellorship. What is more likely than that Bacon, deprived of his offices and at the end of his political career, should have returned to the flowery walks of dramatic literature in this period of his enforced leisure? But we have what is almost direct evidence! Bacon pretended that he was writing a History of Henry VIII., and under that pretext got access to the public records. Yet he wrote no such history; he had barely begun it at the time of his death. The inference is inevitable: he wished to consult documents in collecting materials for the *play* of "Henry VIII.," which Ben Jonson was writing for him. All this being true, the insertion of "Henry VIII." in the First Folio becomes a fact of the highest significance. If—but our readers may find it diverting to trace the argument backward for themselves.

It will be seen that Mr. Castle is a very moderate Baconian indeed. For some opponent is reserved the task of showing that Shakspere prophesied his existence and his work when he spoke of "my old lad of the castle," and when he made *Hamlet* declare that

> "'Tis the sport to have the *Enginer*
> Hoist with his own petard."

Richard Wagner. By Houston Stewart Chamberlain. Translated by G. A. Hight. Lippincott. Pp. 402.

Among the men who have in Germany labored for the Wagner cause, there are some, like Wolzogen, Porges, and Glasenapp, to whom their hero is as infallible as ever pope seemed to a devout Catholic. Mr. Chamberlain not only belongs to this class, but is what may be called a Cosima-Wagnerite, a partisan to whom the widow is as infallible as the master. Since it is well known that the widow thinks herself wiser than the master, and often does things contrary to his wishes and directions, it may seem difficult to combine the rôles of Richard-Wagnerite and Cosima-Wagnerite; but inasmuch as Mr. Chamberlain appears in the latter rôle only in his newspaper articles, and not in his present book, this difficulty need not detain us here. His sumptuous volume is not so much a biography as a collection of essays. It is true that his first chapter is given up to a biographic sketch, but it occupies only 78 pages out of 402, while, to make no account of a lengthy and wordy introduction, the remaining chapters are entitled "Wagner's Writings and Teachings," "Wagner's Art-Works," and "Bayreuth." Even in the biographic chapter there is more comment than narrative, Mr. Chamberlain having apparently acquired the German metaphysician's contempt for mere facts and the love of moralizing and "building from within." To put it tersely, there is too much of what a Chinaman would call "talkee, talkee." For instance, when we expect a few touching incidents relating to Wagner's death and burial, we find the matter disposed of in one line, while the page that ought to have been given up to details is filled with quotations from Voltaire and Frederick the Great and a dissertation about pity and philosophy.

Apart from this garrulous propensity and the disposition to treat Wagner as a philosopher with the same veneration that is bestowed on him as poet and musician, little fault is to be found with Mr. Chamberlain's book, which may be commended to all lovers of Wagner, although those who are familiar with the literature of the subject will find little that is actually new. Even these, however, will prize the numerous portraits and other illustrations which it contains. The list of portraits includes nearly all the men and women who were for a long or a short time among the dramatis personæ in the tragedy of Wagner's life. Many of them are full-page and reproduced in the highest style of art. There are also autographs and other facsimiles, play-bills, etc. Indeed, in the matter of illustration, this book is even superior to Jullien's; but it contains no caricatures.

While Mr. Chamberlain's spirit of veneration forbade the introduction of pictorial caricatures, it did not prevent him from citing a number of the grotesque professional criticisms on Wagner; also some amusing ones on Mozart, who is so often opposed to Wagner as a peaceful musician. He makes the interesting assertion, based on a letter, that Mozart, goaded by unjust censures, intended to write a book on musical criticism with the object of castigating his enemies. "It will always be a matter for regret that his intention was not carried out, for we know from his letters that he possessed an unusual amount of critical acumen; heedless of all consequences, his pen, with its caustic wit, chastised many things generally praised in his day and even now regarded as commendable. Besides, such a book would have dissipated the ridiculous fiction of the mindless genius singing like a bird on the tree." Chamberlain dwells on the fact that none of Wagner's immediate kinsfolk ever showed any true appreciation of his genius, and that the opposition to him came mainly from professional musicians, making true of him what he himself wrote of his idol: "The non-musician alone has prepared the way for the understanding of Beethoven's works."

Mr. Chamberlain thinks Wagner was "a born wielder of languages," and he adds: "Whoever has had the opportunity of examining that most eloquent testimony to the universality of Wagner's mind, the library at Wahnfried, will have remarked that the science of language was his favorite study until his death. I commend this fact especially to the attention of those who imagine, often in consequence of their own imperfect literary knowledge, that they can speak of the language of Wagner's poems with a certain tone of disparagement." Toward the renegade Nietzsche our author shows a forgiving disposition; his 'Richard Wagner in Bayreuth' is still, he declares, of all works, "the most beautiful which we possess about Wagner; it was written shortly before the first signs appeared of the fearful malady which shattered this splendid intellect and made him the court-fool of a frivolous, scandal-loving *fin-de-siècle*." These quotations are taken from footnotes, Mr. Chamberlain having, among other German traits, adopted that of putting his best and most important things below the text.

Natural History. By R. Lydekker and Others. D. Appleton & Co. 1897. 8vo, pp. xvi, 771, more than 500 cuts.

This "authorized edition" of a recent English work forms one of the volumes of "Appletons' Concise Knowledge Library," aiming to be a popular natural history, at once accurate in statement, handy in form, and ready of reference; the several departments of zoölogy being treated by specialists distinguished as authoritative original investigators, etc.—to cite the publishers' preface.

The attempt to cover the animal kingdom in a single volume has been repeatedly made, but never satisfactorily accomplished. The thing is probably impossible, now that the details of zoölogical science have multiplied so enormously. The time has passed for a Cuvier's 'Règne Animal,' full of technicalities for the few, or for a Goldsmith's 'Animated Nature,' or a Goodrich's 'Natural History,' full of absurdities for the many. The apparent impossibility of a one-man book has led to the coöperative system, but with little better result, probably even more unsatisfactory to the authors themselves than to the average critic. What is gained by the work of eminent specialists is lost by lack of homogeneity in the whole; and every such writer is visibly cramped for room in which to do himself or his subject justice. The upshot is generally a makeshift, as in the present case; for if the writer wishes to be technical, he has no space left in which to make himself popular; and if he tries to be popular, his character of scientific expert is reduced to the vanishing-point. The promise of every such single-volume work ends in a compromise.

Not the least notable feature of the long series of "Animal Kingdom" books we could instance is the steadiness with which they hold to a certain ratio of fulness of treatment of the several main branches of zoology. From the time of Cuvier, who wound

up his work by sweeping a vast assemblage of low organisms, having little in common but their lowliness, into what Huxley called the "radiate mob," to the date of appearance of the present book, animals have been thrown entirely out of their biological perspective by enlarging upon those which have the most "human" interest, to the sacrifice of all the rest. This is perhaps necessary, even commendable, in works which the general public are invited to buy and read; but it is not that scientific treatment to be reasonably expected when eminent specialists collaborate. To illustrate this point in the present instance: Two-thirds of the book is devoted to vertebrates, mainly by Dr. Lydekker; mammals are treated in 214 pages, Dr. Sharpe's birds in 143 pages, reptiles in 72, fishes in 98. This ratio of the vertebrate classes themselves is not much out of proportion, but what shall we say next of 74 pages for all arthropods (crustaceans, arachnidans, insects, etc.), when the class of *Insecta* alone enormously and perhaps incalculably outnumbers all the rest of the animal kingdom? Or of 45 pages for all mollusks? It is not possible that either Kirby or Woodward, masters of their respective branches, can have acquitted themselves profitably within such limits. They must seem to themselves to have merely touched upon their subjects; and their dwarfed work is so far out of all seemly proportion with that put upon the vertebrates, that perhaps the index to the book, covering 48 pages, or rather more than the space devoted to the sub-kingdom *Mollusca*, may be thought a better piece of work of its own kind, with its 10,000 entries, than any class of invertebrates can claim as its own share of the net result. We do not say this in any fault-finding spirit, but in support of our conviction that in every single-volume book like the present, by far the greater part of the animal kingdom is butchered to make way for the mammals, the birds, and the few other vertebrates which the public cares anything about. Consequently, the case remains incurable by any means thus far devised.

Technicality and popularity are incompatible, like science and sentiment. People who like stories about animals care nothing for the biological taxonomy of the beasts, birds, fishes, shells, or insects. It may be said in favor of this nine-author book that it is up to date; but that is all. It does not present an attractive appearance; there is a general air of cheapness which the low price explains but hardly justifies. A better-made book, at a commensurate figure, would have been better policy. The paper and binding are both poor, the type is too close, and the wretched cuts remind us of those zoölogical curiosities with which we were familiar when we used 'Webster's Unabridged.'

Some Observations of a Foster Parent. By John Charles Tarver. Macmillan.

A book about education that is positively entertaining; that puts on no airs, and manages to be both wise and witty in good literary English; and, above all, that does not mention "psychology" or "pedagogy" from beginning to end—this is really a book to be grateful for. When we say that it is a congenial companion to 'The Golden Age,' and that properly-selected pages may be guaranteed to make even the most blasé teacher smile, and add that it contains withal some of the most honest and stimulating writing we have come across, on every range of education, from the three Rs to the university, we have commended it enough to the discerning public.

Mr. Tarver primarily addresses an English audience; and some of the questions he discusses, such as that of Voluntary Schools, have little immediate interest for American readers. But the spirit of the book, if only people will read it, must be even more refreshing on this side of the water than on the other. Perhaps what England wants, among other things, is a little more organization. Here we are in danger of being organized to death; and what with the doctrinaire, on the one side, who wants to "coördinate" everything, and the priestesses of Froebel on the other, the real nature of the average boy is only too likely to be forgotten.

The serious reader who is repelled by the apparent flippancy of the opening chapters, and thinks the author's touch-and-go ease of style a little forced—but then, what a task to make the parent's mind "play freely round its fixed ideas"—the serious reader, we say, may be advised to turn to chapters x.-xiii., containing "a defence of Latin" and a consideration of "the place of Greek." They are, in substance, serious enough for the Committee of Ten. Mr. Tarver, who has had wide experience as a school-teacher, and especially, it would seem from internal evidence, with young boys, strenuously maintains that it is "impossible to devise for boys a better teaching instrument than Latin." And this not at all on account of its literature. Even if Latin literature were finer than it is, "the acquisition of a language is educationally of no importance; what is important is the process of acquiring it." "The one great merit of Latin as a teaching instrument is its stupendous difficulty." "The process of giving an ordinary English boy a sound grasp of Latin is really very little less than putting him into full possession of his intellectual faculties, always excepting the mathematical ones." On the other hand, the author "would banish Greek from the 'preparatory' schools" (in the English sense of the word, including boys up to twelve or thirteen); and in the Public Schools (again in the English sense of the word) he "would treat it as a subject to be taken up when the time has arrived for the boy to specialize." He has "not found any difficulty in starting boys with Greek even at sixteen, assuming that they are boys who have been otherwise well taught."

There are growing up in this country many schools that model themselves on the English "Public School," and, with the growth of wealth and of social stratification, they are sure to multiply. If we are not misinformed, they often far surpass English schools in the comfort and even luxury which they enable their pupils to obtain. And it is here that danger lies. Those who are interested in them might do well to glance over Mr. Tarver's remarks on the increase of "coddling" and its dangers even in England. There is a fascinating account of "an early preparatory school" which Mr. Tarver himself attended, where, marvellous to say,

"there was absolutely no humbug about the place. We slept six in a room; we had no dimity curtains in our dormitories, no carpets by our beds; we had no swimming bath, but a warm bath once a week; we did not learn to dance and only incidentally to sing; we did not boast of a school blazer nor a school magazine, and we only wore gloves on Sundays when we went to church. This school flourished in the most unlikely of localities for more than thirty years; its reputation rested on good sound teaching, both moral and intellectual. And I sometimes ask myself, Could such a place exist now? I fear not."

But we would not end with lamentation. So we will leave with the reader an observation on "the average boy" that strikes us as both amusing and true. After remarking that "the average boy reads his books without reading the names of the characters and places even to himself; he is too impatient to get to the end of the story, and considers the names of very small importance compared with the incidents," Mr. Tarver adds: "His gratitude to the author is so feebly developed that he never looks at the title-page, unless somebody offers to give him a book by the same author, who then appears to him as the name of a brand, not a personage. He talks of a 'Henty' as wine-drinkers talk of a 'Burgundy.'"

Constitutional Studies, State and Federal. By James Schouler. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1897. Pp. 332.

This volume contains the substance of lectures delivered by Mr. Schouler before the graduate students of Johns Hopkins University during the years 1893-'96. The aim, we are told, has been "to trace the origin and progress of those political ideas which have become dominant and fundamental in American government." An examination of the book shows that by "dominant and fundamental" political ideas are meant such as have been embodied in written charters and constitutions.

The work falls naturally into three main divisions, dealing successively with the colonial charters and the early constitutions of the original States, the various documents of union, including the Federal Constitution, and, lastly, the State constitutions since 1789. These different parts of the book are of unequal merit and interest. Beginning with a useful enumeration of the provisions of the charters, grouped under such heads as the structure of the colonial government, "safeguards of allegiance to Great Britain," civil rights, religious freedom, trade, land tenure, etc., the author passes to a study of the Revolutionary bills of rights which preceded the first set of State constitutions, and thence to the early constitutions themselves. The arrangement is logical, and the parts gain the significance of position; the declarations of rights, in particular, have been rather neglected by constitutional writers, as, for that matter, have most of the constitutions which immediately followed them. Mr. Schouler's treatment, however, is slight, and suggests a doubt as to whether we have here anything more than a syllabus worked over into literary form. As regards style, too, it has to be said that Mr. Schouler's well-known characteristics are here seen pretty nearly at their worst. One does not often find, in an historical treatise, seventy pages of harder reading, even for the initiated, or encounter historical facts in such ungainly attire.

The same brevity characterizes the account of the plans of union which preceded the Articles of Confederation. The articles of the New England Confederation and

Franklin's Albany plan, the only ones which Mr. Schouler considers, are, of course, the most important; it would have been interesting, however, to trace the development of the idea in other suggestions, notably that of Penn, in 1696-'97, and the plan proposed in 1754 by the Lords of Trade. The chapters devoted to the provisions of the Federal Constitution cover familiar ground, and form, at the same time, quite the least valuable part of the whole work. In comparison with such an elementary manual as Cooley's 'Principles of Constitutional Law'—whether one considers simplicity of statement, fulness of exposition, or adequateness of illustrative application—Mr. Schouler's pages contain little more than the commonplaces of a high-school text-book on "civil government," and suggest, at the most, only a meagre working outline for graduate students. It is in the chapters treating of the State constitutions that we find the best part of Mr. Schouler's book. Less readable, to be sure, than Bryce, but skilfully avoiding too great detail, the development of both the form and the content of State government during the century is traced rapidly and clearly, and not infrequently with illuminating comment. As an introduction to a field as yet little investigated, these chapters may be commended.

The references to authorities are rather loosely put. Cooley's 'Principles' is cited as 'Elements,' and Story's 'Commentaries' as (p. 24) 'Constitutional Law.' The citation of Supreme Court decisions by volume and page only, without giving the title of the case, greatly limits the usefulness of such references. A few statements need revision. It is at once confusing and hardly correct to say (p. 74, note) that "the New England Confederation kept its vigor and efficacy for some forty years, and until after the accession of Charles II." The Confederation did, indeed, continue to hold meetings until 1684, but its importance practically ceased after 1664 or 1665. That the grants of Charles II. "breathed loving-kindness to his beneficiaries" (p. 14) might, perhaps, be gathered from an exclusive study of the texts of the grants; as a matter of fact, however, Charles was far more concerned to pay his political debts, and keep on good terms with those influential enough to obstruct his plans, than he was to display his affection for his subjects. The statement (p. 270) that "about half of our State executives are chosen for three or four years" should, of course, read "two or four years." But one State, New Jersey, now chooses its Governor for a three-year term. Kansas should not be included in the list (p. 262, note 1) of States having "annual sessions for a biennial Legislature."

The Principles of Chemistry. By D. Mendeléeff. Translated from the Russian (Sixth Edition), by George Kamensky. Edited by T. A. Lawson. In two volumes, 8vo, pp. 621, 518. Longmans, Green & Co. 1897.

The fifth Russian edition of this work was translated by Kamensky, and published under the editorial supervision of Mr. A. J. Greenaway in 1891. The present is almost equivalent to a new translation. It is somewhat surprising that it should be called for so soon, for there are many serious objections to its use as a class-book or text-book of any kind, while it is not full enough for a hand-book or work of reference. But the secret of the wide favor which it enjoys among students of chemistry is that the facts are so strung upon a thread of argumentation and of theory as to render the retention of them in the memory less operose.

We must not, however, be understood as saying that this is the chief claim of this treatise upon our attention. Nothing could be further from the truth, for, as an achievement of reasoning, it must for ever stand as one of the great monuments in the history of the progress of science. It was in writing this book that Mendeléeff discovered the periodic law of the chemical elements. Now there is no kind of physical law so difficult to demonstrate as a periodic law, nor any phenomena so deceptive as those which appear to manifest a periodic character. With very few exceptions, of a trifling kind, all those periodic laws which had been made out were either simply harmonic, or easily analyzed into harmonic constituents, or were supported, as in the case of the law of tides, by deductive considerations. In these cases they had been studied by means of residual phenomena—a method which supposes that the phenomena, at least in their means, are not much deranged by causes in which no regularities can be traced. But the chemical periodicity is extraordinarily complex; it is known to us only by pure induction, and, for reasons which are altogether unknown to us, only very roughly determines the phenomena. Thus, according to the latest calculations of atomic weights by Clarke, there are two cases in which values are transposed in their order of succession. In addition to that, the lacunæ in the list of chemical elements known to us, and the mistaken ideas which prevailed in regard to the chemical characters of some elements, rendered the attempt to discern the true order of nature in this respect excessively difficult. But Mendeléeff's predictions based upon his theory were such as to show a perfect mastery of it and extraordinary confidence in the truth of his *aperçus*. The next three elements to be discovered were gallium, scandium, and germanium. They not only fell into the places indicated by Mendeléeff, but they possessed precisely the properties which he had described them as having.

Considering all the difficulties and the striking success of this purely inductive inference, it may be ranked as second to the research of Kepler into the motions of Mars. But this is not the sole feature that makes the extraordinary work in which it occurs important in the history of chemistry. Mendeléeff's views upon many branches of chemical theory are highly original and suggestive, and are urged home with great force. To be rated rightly, the book should be read consecutively from beginning to end. Unhappily, it is impossible to praise the work of the editor. Errors of every description abound, and the English is here and there such that the meaning is doubtful.

The Personal Equation. By Harry Thurston Peck. Harpers.

This volume contains a number of essays on a great variety of subjects of "contemporary human interest." Some are literary, some political, and one is on a subject quite out of the common way—"The Migration of Popular Songs." We cannot conscientiously say that we understand what the title is intended to convey.

Mr. Peck writes about most of the topics which he discusses like a man of sense, but his style has somewhat a Philistine flavor, and for literary criticism his method is hardly adapted. Of a highly combative turn, he will tolerate no nonsense from the reader, or any one else whom he has at his mercy, but insists that everything shall be distinctly understood and clearly defined as he sees it himself. Yet we are not always sure how clearly he does see it himself. Sometimes what he advances as original turns out on analysis to be rather commonplace, as when he first says that we ought to consider Howells as a "critic," and then explains that he means a critic "of life." As a matter of fact, he does not mean that Howells is a critic at all, but that he has put into his novels life and manners and men as he has seen them. Such a book as 'Silas Lapham' shows us life; the thing it avoids is criticism of life. Mr. Peck is better himself as a critic of life than of books, and in his paper on Marcel Prévost he makes a good defence of the Anglo-Saxon love-marriage, as against the French system of parentally arranged marriages. On Nordau he advances with a whoop, and deals with him in a way that leaves no more doubt as to his meaning than did the old bludgeon-swinger of an earlier critical régime. "Every large hospital for the insane knows his representative—the one sane man in a world of lunatics," has the true ring. The tone of the article is such that it whets our appetite. The reader feels that an actual physical contest between critic and author would be fine sport. Mr. Peck does not like the Germans, and expresses his approval of the declaration made in 'Regeneration' as to German tendencies. But here, in the excitement of the struggle, he is rather carried away, and describes the typical German in terms which really excuse Nordau; for if the race is what Mr. Peck says it is, Nordau can hardly be considered responsible for his acts.

In "The Downward Drift of American Education" there are some very sensible remarks, especially those (p. 341) on the impossibility of including in the curriculum courses in virtue, wisdom, and rationality. He thinks the modern dream is that legislation shall give every one an income, and that education shall make him chaste, temperate, honest, truthful, patriotic, and deeply religious. He thinks that the so-called "liberal" policy in university government has "not raised mediocrity to the plane of scholarship, but has degraded scholarship to the plane of mediocrity," and suggests (as we believe we have done in these columns) that the loss of the old "identity of training," which once bound university men together, is a serious matter. In matters of the mind his ideal is distinctly aristocratic, and he would have the *âme d'élite* of the universities "dominate and control the destinies of States, driving in harness the hewers of wood and drawers of water who constitute the vast majority of the human race, and whose happiness is greater and whose welfare is more thoroughly conserved when governed than when trying to govern." This being so, why has he such a contempt for the German "veneration for authority"? (p. 165). In an article on President Cleveland, he declares that the reason why the great body of the people admired him so much was that their love for political independ-

ence "is all the more intense because of the infrequency with which they ever have a chance to see it."

Hawthorne's First Diary; with an Account of its Discovery and Loss. By Samuel T. Pickard. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1897.

If Mr. Pickard's title-page had been more explicit, it would have read, "Fragments from a Diary Attributed to Hawthorne by William Symmes or one Dickinson." Symmes was a mulatto who lived in Raymond, Me., at the time when young Hawthorne was living there with his widowed mother, from 1813 to 1825. Part of this time Hawthorne was studying in Salem, and the last four years he spent at Bowdoin College, but he was visiting Raymond a good deal from both of these places. During the war, Symmes or "one Dickinson" sent to a Portland newspaper fragments of what was represented as a diary kept by Hawthorne in a book given to him, for the purpose to which it was devoted, by his uncle, Richard Manning, June 1, 1816. Symmes died in 1871, and after his death "one Dickinson" sent another extended fragment from the diary. The handwriting, however, was the same as Symmes's, the explanation being that Dickinson had written for Symmes because the latter's hand was disabled. Mr. Pickard concedes that we have here a circumstance that makes more serious the doubts caused by the conduct of Symmes, who refused to produce the diary. No efforts to recover it have yet been rewarded with success. Mr. Pickard is of the opinion that all doubts regarding its authenticity are more than dissipated by corroborative testimony of various kinds and by the character of the matter written. Certainly, if the diary is a hoax, it is a most ingenious one, and the likelihood that it is one is lessened by the fact that there was never any attempt to make money out of it.

Mr. Julian Hawthorne wrote contemptuously of the diary, in his Life of his father, reflecting severely in advance on much that has since been printed about his own boyhood. Mr. Lathrop, Hawthorne's son-in-law, in his biography of Hawthorne, accepted the diary as genuine and made some extracts from it. He designates one of the entries as "the first instance on record of a mild approach of Hawthorne to writing fiction." The reference is to the account of Hawthorne's conversation with a horse, on pp. 68-73. Symmes represented the diary as abounding in ghost stories, but not many of these appear in the extracts. One about a ghost-defended apple-tree is a good one, and the closing sentence is significant: "I should not be willing to sleep in that garret, though I do not believe a word of the story." Is there not here a suggestion of Hawthorne's vivid imaginative sensibility to the preternatural in conjunction with the scepticism that made his artistic treatment of it possible? There is another anticipation of the mature Hawthorne in the comment on 'Gulliver's Travels'—"The wit is obscene and *the lies are too false.*" Mr. Pickard's presentiment of Hawthorne's style does not impress us as unfounded, and if the diary is not Hawthorne's it is very much such a one as he would probably have written. It does him no discredit, and we sincerely hope that the original book will yet be brought to light and set every doubt at rest.

The Bible and Its Transmission. By Walter Arthur Copinger, LL.D., F.S.A., F.R.S.A. With Twenty-eight Facsimiles. London: Henry Sotheran & Co.; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1897.

This sumptuous volume is a monument to its author's liberality and love of Sacred Letters. Printed on hand-made paper at the Oxford University Press, with type cast from matrices given to the university by Bishop Fell in the seventeenth century, limited in its issue to 220 copies, of which only 150 are offered for sale, it has a unique interest and value for bibliophiles. Its aim is to give an account of the Bible and its transmission, whether in a written or a printed form—alike in the original tongues and by translation—down to the period of the Reformation. A large proportion of the editions described are in the author's own possession, especially those of the Latin text, with the history of which his previous bibliographical labors have honorably associated his name. This prominent reliance, however, on his own collections has occasioned, in parts, a disproportionate treatment which has marred somewhat the symmetry of the book. Where the descriptions are given at first hand, they often have a distinct value for scholars, especially in the case of the less accessible editions. But though the volume gives evidence of a wide use of the older bibliographies, such as Masch's Le Long, the considerable period during which its contents have evidently been accumulating has rendered parts of it antiquated. A thorough use of Dr. Gregory's 'Prolegomena' would have modified and supplemented many a statement. It is a pity, too, that the sheets did not pass under the eye of an expert. Such supervision would have excluded annoying orthography, like Eichorn, Munster, Raschi, Wiesler, Mayer, Vatabli, Blanchini, etc. Indeed, at times it seems almost as though the author could not have read his own proof: witness the blundering statement about the volumes of Swete's Septuagint on p. 89, or the account of Schott's Greek Testament interjected into the history of Griesbach's text on p. 169.

But it is as unnecessary as it is ungracious to catalogue inadvertencies, since they cannot be corrected, the type having been distributed. And if Biblical students are doomed to some disappointment in the volume, they will gratefully appreciate the index, with its "over fifteen hundred separate items of reference." As a consummate specimen of book-making, and particularly by its superb full-page collotype facsimiles, which surpass even the corresponding plates of the Palæographical Society, the work will prove itself a most attractive ornament for the library table.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, Francesca. Tuscan Songs. Illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $25.
Barbé, Louis A. Kircaldy of Grange. [Famous Scots.] Scribners. 75c.
Barnes, James. Yankee Ships and Yankee Sailors: Tales of 1812. Macmillan. $1.50.
Bax, E. B. Colville's Boethius's Consolation of Philosophy. London: David Nutt.
Bettelheim, Anton. Anzengruber: Der Mann, Sein Werk, Seine Weltanschauung. Berlin: E. Hofmann & Co.; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Berenson, Bernhard. The Central Italian Painters of the Renaissance. Putnams. $1.
Bourgougnon, A. Physical Problems and Their Solutions. D. Van Nostrand Co. 50c.
Burgess, Gelett. Vivette; or, The Memoirs of the Romance Association. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.25.
Burnett, Frances H. His Grace of Osmonde. Scribners. $1.50.
Burns, Robert. Complete Poetical Works. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Burton, W. E. The District School as It Was. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Byington, Rev. E. H. The Christ of Yesterday, To-day, and Forever. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Carlyle, Thomas. Frederick the Great. Vols. I. and II. [Centenary Edition.] Scribners. $2.50.
Chambrun, Comte de. Wagner à Munich, Francfort, Nice. Paris: Calmann Lévy.
Cheney, J. V. Out of the Silence. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.50.
Chopin, Kate. A Night in Acadie. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.25.
Clarke, James Freeman. Nineteenth Century Questions. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Cleveland, Grover. The Self-Made Man in American Life. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 35c.
Corbin, John. Schoolboy Life in England: An American View. Harpers. $1.25.
Crockett, S. R. Lochinvar. Harpers. $1.50.
Davis, R. H. Gallegher, and Other Stories. Cinderella, and Other Stories. Scribners. Each $1.
Drake, S. A. On Plymouth Rock. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 60c.
Driver, Prof. S. R. An Introduction to the Literature of the Old Testament. 6th ed., revised and enlarged. Scribners. $2.50.
Eastlake, C. L. Pictures in the National Gallery, London. Part I. Franz Hanfstaengl.
English, T. D. Fairy Stories and Wonder Tales. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.25.
Field, H. D., and R. M. The Muses up to Date. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.
Fields, Annie. Life and Letters of Harriet Beecher Stowe. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Fisher, Mary. A Group of French Critics. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Fiske, John. Old Virginia and her Neighbors. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.
Fiske, John. The Critical Period of American History, 1783-1789. Illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.
Flying Leaves. New York: E. R. Herrick & Co.
Ford, Mary H. Message of the Mystics. 3 vols. Chicago: Alice B. Stockham & Co. $5.
Forman, L. L. Index Andocideus, Lycurgeus, Dinarcheus. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Foster, R. F. Dice and Dominoes. Brentanos. 50c.
Fruit, Prof. J. P. Milton's Lycidas. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Gerard, Dorothea. Miss Providence. Appletons. $1.
Hale, Anne G. Folly's Bells: A German Legend. Buffalo: Peter Paul Book Co.
Hall, Mrs. A. W. Icelandic Fairy Tales. F. Warne & Co $1.25.
Hamerton, P. G. The Quest of Happiness. Boston: Roberts Bros. $2.
Hamilton, Lord Ernest. The Outlaws of the Marches. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Hanson, C. L. Carlyle's Essay on Burns. Boston: Ginn & Co. 35c.
Hapgood, Norman. Literary Statesmen, and Others. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Harding, J. W. The Strolling Piper of Brittany. F. T. Neely. 50c.
Harland, Marion. Some Colonial Homesteads and their Stories. Illustrated. Putnams. $3.
Harraden, Beatrice. Untold Tales of the Past. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Johnson, Henry. The Exploits of Myles Standish. Appletons. $1.50.
Kennedy, W. S. In Portia's Gardens. Boston: Bradlee Whidden. $1.50.
Kester, Paul. Tales of the Real Gypsy. Doubleday & McClure Co.
Kimball, Hannah P. Victory, and Other Verses. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.25.
Leader, R. E. Life and Letters of John Arthur Roebuck. With Chapters of Autobiography. Edward Arnold. $5.
Lewis, J. A. A Prince of the Blood. Mt. Kisco, N. Y.: Bedford Publishing Co.
Life of Edward Bouverie Pusey. Vol. IV. (1860-1882). Longmans, Green & Co. $4.50.
London as Seen by Charles Dana Gibson. Scribners. $5.
Longfellow, H. W. Evangeline. Illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.50.
Loti, Pierre. Ramuntcho. New York: R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.
Mackenzie, Prof. J. S. A Manual of Ethics. 3d ed. London: W. B. Clive; New York: Hinds & Noble.
Mather, Fred. Men I Have Fished With. Forest and Stream Publishing Co. $2.
Maxwell, Sir Herbert. Sixty Years a Queen. Illustrated. E. & J. B. Young. $4.
McArthur, Alexander. Pianoforte Study. Philadelphia: Theodore Presser.
McCarthy, Justin. The Story of Gladstone's Life. Macmillan. $6.
McConnell, Rev. S. D. History of the American Episcopal Church. 7th ed., revised and enlarged. Whittaker. $2.
Mead, Prof. W. E. Selections from Malory's Morte Darthur. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.10.
Means, David M. Industrial Freedom. Appletons. $1.50.
Mendeléeff, D. The Principles of Chemistry. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $10.
Merrick, Leonard. The Man Who Was Good. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.
M'Leod, Addison. A Window in Lincoln's Inn. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.
Moffett, Cleveland. True Detective Stories. Doubleday & McClure Co. $1.
Molesworth, Mrs. Meg Langholme. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Monroe, W. S. Bibliography of Education. Appletons.
Montrésor, Miss F. F. At the Cross-Roads. Appletons. $1.50.
Morton, F. W. Men in Epigram. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Moqué, Alice L. The Body-Master's Daughter. G. W. Dillingham Co. 50c.
Morris, Charles. A History of the United States. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Nixon, Mary F. With a Pessimist in Spain. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.

Page, Jean Hooper. Through Field and Fallow. F. T. Neely.
Patch, Kate W. Middleway: Tales of a New England Village. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.25.
Phelps, Elizabeth S. The Story of Jesus Christ: An Interpretation. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 2, 1897.

The Week.

Secretary Gage very properly excused himself last week at the Chamber of Commerce dinner from making an exposition of his plans for currency legislation, saying that it would be his duty to make an official statement on that subject soon. He made an admirable summing up of the situation, however, by saying:

"In a word, I commit myself to the following proposition: At a cost too contemptible for serious consideration, the debatable condition of our currency and banking system may be put upon clearly safe if not theoretically scientific foundations. This may be secured without any necessary contraction of the circulating medium of exchange and with no danger of an undue expansion, and, best of all, this desirable end may carry in its effects potential relief to those districts in the South and West which, though rich in possibilities of soil and climate, have been held back through the absence of banking capital and credit facilities."

The ease with which the desired end might be reached constitutes the very difficulty in the case. The opposition of the Bryanites of all varieties lies against everything in the nature of currency reform. The simpler it is, the more they don't want it. Anything different from the free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1 is regarded by them as a condemnation of the Chicago platform, and the more you show them that any particular plan would improve the conditions of business, the more sternly will they set their faces against it. Business troubles are the very breath of their nostrils. They are convinced that troubles will continue as long as the currency question remains unsettled, and as long as the standard of value is uncertain, and they are equally convinced that business disturbance will make votes for them in future elections. It will be something wonderful if the Republicans in Congress do not see this during the coming session, and set themselves earnestly at work to pass some measure which shall be recommended by the Secretary of the Treasury. It is no answer to say that they cannot control the Senate. They never will control the Senate, nor will they control the next House, unless they try to pass the needful measures. If they can improve those which the Secretary sends to them, so much the better, but to do nothing and seek to do nothing will be, in our belief, political destruction to the majority of them.

It is obvious that if things go on for the remainder of the fiscal year as during the past five months in the matter of revenue, the deficit on the 30th of June next will be $108,000,000. Some improvement in customs receipts may be expected, but so good a Republican authority as the Washington correspondent of the Philadelphia *Ledger* says that, while it is very probable that there will be considerable increase in such receipts during the last quarter of the year, "that increase will not prevent the deficit for the year approximating $75,000,000, unless there shall be a large cut in expenditures." Such a cut, by the way, could be made only through the action of the Secretary of the Treasury in "holding up" appropriations which were made a year ago, to be paid for "out of money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated." Such relief would be only temporary, and the problem of preventing a great deficiency during the fiscal year 1898-'99 would remain quite as difficult, if appropriations should be made on the same scale the coming session as a year ago. The members of the committees are so much impressed by the seriousness of the situation that Representative Bingham of Philadelphia, who has charge of the legislative, executive, and judicial bill, says that they will "carefully scrutinize the estimates, and authorize no expenditure for any purpose that is not deemed essential to the proper conduct of the government and demanded by the public interests"—by which course he believes that the aggregate of all the bills can be safely reduced by $50,000,000.

One feature of the Dingley bill, it is announced from Washington, is giving the President concern, and his message will touch upon it. This is "reciprocity," and its failure to work. But how can Mr. McKinley refer to the Dingley bill at all without confessing its colossal failure in its professed main intent of raising a revenue? How can he fail to urge upon Congress now, as he did last March, the duty of raising a revenue "large enough to meet with ease and promptness" not only "current needs" but increased pensions, and to do it "without delay, hindrance, or postponement"? Here we are at the end of the fifth month only of the fiscal year, and the deficit is $46,000,000 and steadily mounting. The chatter about "advance importations" being responsible has ceased to be even plausible. In his most lavish moment Mr. Dingley estimated the loss on this score at no more than $30,000,000. Well, his bill has heaped up $16,000,000 more of deficit in four months. To go on flattering the country with false hopes about his bill any longer is to pile folly upon folly. The bill is now a confessed, a ghastly fiasco. Unless mended in the coming session of Congress, it bids fair not only to ruin the Republican party, but to cripple the Treasury and chill business. It is only a question of time when Master Dingley will have to eat his humble pie, and he had better begin to bolt it as soon as possible. It is bad enough for a man of his superior airs to have made a revenue bill which, in a time of expanding business, piles up a bigger deficit than the Wilson bill did in years of panic; he surely must see that it will only make matters worse, for both his reputation and his party's, to go on romancing about his tariff.

Nobody will even explain how the President is going to reconcile the Treasury Department and the Department of Agriculture on the subject of beet sugar. The Treasury officials, in their continued "cheerfulness" (now a little forced) over the deficit, say that importations of sugar must soon begin again, and that then the revenue must be simply luxurious. But Secretary Wilson says that, under the wise rule of a President who "sympathizes" with those who toil on the farm, the beet-sugar industry is going to be developed to such a degree that we shall soon grow all our own supply, and not import a pound of the accursed foreign stuff. But can a President truly sympathize with the toiling farmers who proposes to subject them to the ravages of competition with 45,000 underpaid Japanese and Chinese? Can the beet industry be built up with one hand and knocked down with the other? We must raise our own sugar and pay a bounty to do it; but we shall have no money to pay bounties, or even pensions, unless we go on importing sugar in large quantities; therefore, annex Hawaii. That seems to be the logic, as far as we can make it out.

The Washington *Post* has a nice lot of epithets which it applies to those who think that the consent of the Hawaiians ought to be obtained before they are annexed to the United States. "Mugwumps," "Cuckoos," and "political eunuchs" are among the choice expletives collected out of its vocabulary for this purpose, and applied to the Indianapolis *News* and the New York *Evening Post*. The last of these phrases seems to be more fitly applied to newspapers published in the District of Columbia, where adulation for the President is all the more excessive because no votes are ever cast for that officer. The doctrine that governments derive their just powers from the consent of the governed, says this Washington paper, "was fitly characterized by Rufus Choate as a glittering generality." Quite true, and when Rufus Choate spoke thus he referred to the institution of slavery—"the peculiar institution," whose chief pecu-

liarity lay in the idea that governments derive their just powers from the arm of the strongest. This idea is evidently coming to the surface again. There could be no better evidence of this fact than the Hawaiian annexation project, in which, from first to last, there has been no more thought of asking the consent of the governed than there was in ante-bellum days of asking a slave whether he would prefer to live in Virginia or in Louisiana.

The real discouragement of those who oppose the annexation of Hawaii, on public grounds that can be discussed, is that the men who are going to do the annexing do no discussing. They are there to annex, not to say why they annex. At least, if they do give any alleged reasons, we may be sure that the real reasons are concealed. Mystery and intrigue have, in fact, marked the whole of the present annexation scheme. Why the President suddenly changed his mind, or had it changed for him, is a mystery which has never been explained. What the exact relation of the treaty was to the tariff has never been made clear. Then there is sugar--especially beet sugar. Why were the beet-sugar Senators so furious against the competition of Hawaiian cane sugar under reciprocity, but so reconciled to it under annexation? Does a mere change of name make competition smell sweeter? Does not Hawaiian sugar just as truly remain sugar grown by Yellow Lepers? And is the honest American farmer, paying high wages, to submit to Almond-Eyed cheap labor and Japanese pauper competitors under the American flag? These are mysteries which we should much like to see cleared up.

The prevalence of leprosy in the Hawaiian Islands is gaining some attention in the press as the time approaches for considering the question of annexing the country. A thoughtful article on this subject appears in the current number of the *North American Review* by Dr. Prince A. Morrow, who appears to have no political bias, but looks at the question from the medical standpoint only. Ten per cent. of the Hawaiian race, he says, are affected by this incurable malady, and although all the resources of modern science have been brought in requisition to combat it, the percentage remains as large as ever. Leprosy, he says, is a communicable disease. Its active cause is a micro-organism called the *bacillus leprœ*. It is invariably derived from the lesions or secretions of a person similarly diseased. How the bacillus enters the organism of a person in sound health, whether by inhalation, by imbibition, or by contact, is not known, yet "observation proves conclusively that every leper is a possible source of danger to all with whom he may come into intimate and prolonged contact." That the disease is not hereditary is proved by the fact that children of lepers, if removed from the presence of their parents, rarely develop the disease. On the other hand, many foreigners coming to Hawaii from countries where leprosy is unknown, have fallen victims to it. One-tenth of all the revenues of the Government is spent in the leper hospitals and in expenses caused by the existence of the disease in the islands. No lepers ever regain health. The disease is progressive. Most of those who are sent to the leper colony die within three to six years. "All the indications point to the existence of a vast deal of latent leprosy, which, as the disease develops into a recognizable form, must continue for many years to come to furnish a constantly recurring series of subjects for the leper colony."

Dr. Morrow next considers the question whether the annexation of the islands would expose the United States to dangers from the communicability of leprosy, and he is decidedly of the opinion that it would, especially in the Southern States, where a warm and moist climate is favorable to the lodgment and spread of the disease. The principal danger, he says, would come from the establishment of more intimate commercial relations, the opening up of new enterprises, inviting capital and labor, and the consequent influx of Americans into the islands and their exposure to contact with the tainted population. That such contact is not devoid of danger is evident from the number of foreigners who contract the disease. Within the last ten years the number of foreigners sent to the leper colony has averaged from 3 to 5 per cent. of the whole number. These statistics, however, do not convey any fair idea of the number of foreigners stricken with it, since the Board of Health give foreigners who have contracted it the privilege of leaving the country. Many foreigners learn the nature of their disease from their own physicians, and voluntarily return to this country or to Europe for treatment. "A number of such cases," he adds, "have come under my personal observation."

The Choctaws in the Indian Territory held a convention last week, at which a delegate was elected to go to Washington and protest against the ratification of what is known as the Choctaw-Chickasaw-Dawes treaty, framed by a commission headed by ex-Senator Dawes and representing the United States Government on the one side, and spokesmen for the Indians on the other side. The convention also adopted a memorial to the President "objecting to the treaty as a whole, because it does not represent the views of the majority of the people, and stating that the ratification of the same was procured by unscrupulous means." This shows clearly that the Choctaws are not "up to date." They cannot have studied the history of the Hawaiian annexation scheme. If they had done so they would have learned that the time has gone by in his country when we mind little questions like the rushing through of a treaty by unscrupulous means and in defiance of public sentiment. Our statesmen, under the lead of our divines, are too busy guarding against the dangers of Jesuit ascendency in the United States to bother with any "d——d nonsense" from a lot of barbarians who claim that they are being cheated out of their rights.

It seems to be taken for granted that one of the first measures passed by Congress will be an act for the further restriction of immigration. The general disposition is to make ability to read the Constitution of the United States, either in English or in any other language, the test of admission, except for the very young, or the old whose parents or children, as the case may be, are either already here or are eligible to admission under this educational qualification. This was the main feature of the bill which Mr. Cleveland vetoed in the last hours of his administration, but it was then combined with a provision regarding the passing to and fro of Canadians living near the border, which will now be omitted. The feeling in favor of such a measure seems to be strong, and there is no prospect of any effective opposition in either branch of Congress. The approval of the President may be taken for granted.

The tide of immigration, which had been ebbing since the effects of the prolonged business depression came to be fully understood throughout Europe, has but just begun to turn. During September the arrivals were 20,450, as against 20,338 in the same month of last year. In July and August, on the other hand, the total had been only 28,776, whereas 40,312 had come in July and August, 1896. Now that there has been a recovery to an equality from so heavy a falling off, it is reasonable to expect a decided gain. The educational test will operate chiefly against the countries of southern Europe, where illiteracy is densest. Italy will suffer materially, but not so seriously as would have been the case a few years ago, for in the last quarter reported only 7,952 immigrants came from that country, as against 9,832 in the corresponding months of 1896, and many thousands more in the same period of previous years. Hungary is another nation which will be hard hit by an educational test, but there too the passion for coming to the United States has lost much of its former strength, and arrivals were but 2,252 in July, August, and September of this year,

while they were 4,060 in the same months of 1896.

The great question whether Mr. Croker is in favor of Mr. Hill or Mr. Murphy as the Democratic leader in this State, is of interest chiefly as calling attention once more to the fact that the advocates of honest government no longer have an alternative to turn to when one of the parties becomes too offensive to be tolerated longer. If they revolt from Platt and Black, they throw themselves into the arms of Croker and Murphy or Croker and Hill. There may be a choice between these two combinations, but it is difficult to find it. Hill is in some respects the superior of Murphy, for he can make a speech and Murphy cannot, but the political methods of the two are on the same level. What the voters of the State have to contemplate for next year is a candidate for Governor selected by one or the other of them and put in the field with virtually absolute certainty of election. Croker's supposed preference for Murphy's leadership is said to be based upon his desire to see Murphy's son-in-law, Hugh J. Grant, made the candidate. This would put Tammany in possession of the governorship as well as of the mayoralty of New York, and would put the government of the State as firmly in Croker's hands as it was last year in Platt's.

The McKinley Administration is allowing a scandalous performance on the part of the "Bureau of the American Republics." It has been the practice of this bureau to seek advertisements for its publications, which must, from the very nature of the case, be an unwarrantable extension of the Government prerogative. Now, under the management of Joseph P. Smith, the director of the bureau, it is going a step further, and utilizing the prestige of the United States to secure financial support for a "Commercial Directory" of the various republics. This would be bad enough, under the best conditions, but it is rendered worse by the fact that the Government is making the advertising department of this publication a means of what falls little short of extortion. The announcement is officially made by the bureau that any business man who will contribute $5 may have his name inserted in this directory, provided the Director "is satisfied of the high standing of the advertiser for fair dealing and entire pecuniary and business responsibility." The man who does not pay his $5 has no assurance that his name will be inserted, and thus compulsion is put upon all who seek business in Central and South America to make the payment. This business is sought after the method of advertising agencies—with this difference, that the bureau pays no postage in sending out its application, and encloses in each case an addressed envelope for the reply, which bears the printed warning, "Official business, penalty for private use $300." The Government thus enters directly into competition with any private citizen or business firm engaged in a similar enterprise, and puts the latter at the disadvantage of paying postage bills while it uses the mails for its own directory free of cost. This, however, is a petty scandal compared with the moral wrong done the private citizen and the national good name when the Government leaves its proper sphere to invade the business field, and professes to certifiy to the financial soundness of its patrons for a fee.

It appears that the incredible is not going to happen, after all, and that Spain does not really propose to give Cuba a free hand in making her own tariff. The real plan has been explained to the protesting exporters of Barcelona, Bilbao, and Santander. It is to have the Cuban tariff framed by a mixed Commission of Cubans and Spaniards. The rates fixed by this Commission will require the approval of the Cuban Chamber, and also, before becoming effective, that of the Spanish Cortes This, of course, reserves the real control of the matter to Spain, and the exporters who have had such tariff advantages in Cuba, and have made such fortunes in Cuban commerce, may be reassured. But all this should please Mr. McKinley more than ever; he, of all men, ought to have a kindly feeling for manufacturers who will die in their tracks, and see their country go to ruin, before they will consent to give up their tariff favors.

The President of the Board of Trade told the striking engineers in London last week that the competitor they had most to dread was not Germany, but the United States. He spoke of contracts for steel and iron manufactures right in the City of London carried off by Americans, and said that the latter were now successfully bidding against the English in India and Egypt and Japan. This is in line with the recent testimony of Mr. Jeans of the *Iron and Coal Trades Review*, to the effect that Great Britain can no longer compete with the United States in the production of either pig iron or finished steel. These facts throw into ludicrous relief Mr. Dingley's duties of $4 a ton on pig iron, and $7 a ton on steel rails, to "protect" them from dreaded English competition. His whole bill, however, was framed in such entire disregard of the great facts of a world's competition for a world's market that it reads as if drawn by some protectionist of antediluvian times, or by a man living down a well. As a very beginning, he considerately laid his cards on the table for his opponents to see—that is, he gave them four months' time in which to sell this country vast quantities of goods under low duties. The word went round like lightning among exporting nations, and instantly every harbor of ours was crowded with foreign ships. Yet poor Mr. Dingley thought he was making a law to keep out ships. The manufacturing nations chuckled as if a new African tribe had been discovered desiring $40,000,000 worth of goods at once. It had been discovered, in fact, and Mr. Dingley was chief untutored savage, as he showed by his rage and wonder at our commercial rivals taking the tricks he had innocently offered them. But this, after all, amusing blunder as it was, was as nothing compared with the way in which Mr. Dingley went to work to disable great manufactures from competing in the world's market, by laying ruinous taxes upon their raw materials.

A curious complication has arisen in France over the Dreyfus affair. Dreyfus, under the civil law, cannot escape unless there is a condemnation of some other person for the same offence, or unless new proofs are produced simply clearing him. But in the first case these new proofs cannot be made available for the benefit of a convict without trying this other person. This trial, however, cannot be had on the motion of a private person or of the convict himself. It must be instituted by the Minister of Justice. In the case of military justice the Governor of Paris or the Minister of War must institute it. Consequently, no matter what proof may be produced against Esterhazy or any other man, it cannot do Dreyfus any good unless somebody else is tried and condemned for the very charge made against him. Of course, if the new proof simply showed Dreyfus's innocence, without implicating anybody else, he might be released, but the new proofs do implicate somebody, so there he is dependent on the willingness of the Minister to try Esterhazy or somebody. French criminal jurisprudence makes escape from a charge as difficult as possible. Ours makes it as easy as possible. It is only very recently that the power to shut up an accused man and torture him with secret examinations for an indefinite period has been taken away from the *juge d'instruction*, or police magistrate, in France. Until now, accusation of either "crime" or "délit" entailed strict seclusion from a man's family and counsel, and ignorance of the full nature of the charge against him, and this lasted until the magistrate had got tired of worrying him. It was only when his trial had been determined on—that is, when he had been, as we say, "committed"—that his friends and his lawyer had access to him. It was an extraordinary system to last in a most highly civilized country until our time.

THE DO-NOTHING POLICY.

The *Herald* publishes a telegram from Senator Allison, saying that "there will be no currency legislation of any special value at the coming session of Congress, for a reason which is apparent, unless three or four Senators at least have changed their opinions since the last adjournment." This prediction is somewhat elastic, since it is possible that three or four Senators may have changed their opinions as to some phase of the currency question, and since the words "legislation of any special value" may be interpreted differently by different persons. Thus, in the *Herald's* collection of opinions of Senators, we find Mr. Cockrell of Missouri quoted as in favor of retiring the greenbacks in order to create a contraction of the currency, and thus make the free coinage of silver necessary. Mr. Cockrell says that he is also in favor of allowing national banks to issue notes to the par value of the bonds deposited by them. Senator Cullom agrees with Senator Allison, but thinks that it might be possible to pass "a simple little act stopping the endless-chain business by requiring that when greenbacks are taken from the Treasury, gold must be deposited." This may be considered by some Senators as a measure not of any special value, and it may be considered by others as a measure of very great value. So we see that Mr. Allison's telegram from Dubuque, although depressing on a superficial view, leaves some ground for encouragement.

In connection with these senatorial opinions the *Herald's* correspondent confirms what Mr. E. V. Smalley wrote to the *Evening Post* on the 20th inst., that the President would recommend to Congress a bill to retain in the Treasury all greenbacks hereafter redeemed, and not to reissue them except in exchange for gold. It is added that in order to carry this provision into effect, he will ask for authority to sell low-interest bonds sufficient to allow the retention of all the greenbacks so received. The same authority exists now as existed during President Cleveland's term to issue bonds for redemption purposes, but these bonds must be of the kinds described in an old act of Congress, where the lowest rate of interest specified was 4 per cent. Naturally the President would like to have authority to sell a 2 or 2½ per cent. bond, because the Government can make better terms by selling a low-interest bond at par than a high-interest one at a premium. Yet it might not be easy to pass a new bill for issuing bonds, nor is it absolutely necessary. If the bill to retain the greenbacks and to reissue them only in exchange for gold is passed, it can be executed without difficulty under the powers with which the Secretary of the Treasury is already clothed, and which have been exercised four times within the last four years.

While Senator Allison's telegram does not exclude the hope of legislation of a beneficial kind, the tone of it is not to be commended, since it is calculated to produce torpor in others and to strengthen the do-nothing policy. This is, of all things, the most to be avoided. It was the do-nothing policy, followed in spite of the efforts and entreaties of President Cleveland and Secretary Carlisle, that caused the panics and stagnation that beset all business interests during the four years mentioned. We have had a brief rally, due to good crops and high prices of grain, but we cannot expect these conditions to last. Permanent prosperity can come only from a permanent cause. The Republican party is committed to the notion that the Dingley tariff is such a cause, but already that belief has been seriously shaken. It has been shaken by the business reaction which has evidently set in, and by the failure of that tariff to produce the revenue promised by its framers and required by the Government. If the do-nothing policy continues, the business depression will deepen, and this will operate against the Republicans in the next congressional elections. The prospect for the party in those elections is already very gloomy, and it is doubtful whether the ground lost by the wretched Dingley bill can be recovered. It can be recovered only by changing the issue and giving the public something else to think of.

Under the present conditions of national politics the independents who supported Mr. McKinley last year must continue to desire the success of his Administration. At all events we desire it, and shall hope that success may be attained because deserved. The do-nothing policy is death, because it detaches from the Administration and the party an element without which it would have been beaten last year and will be beaten hereafter. Of course we cannot demand impossibilities. We acknowledge that the Senate has not a Republican majority, but that is no reason for abandoning all effort to reform the currency. It is reason, on the contrary, for redoubling efforts. If the political elements which we have referred to see an earnest and genuine fight to that end, not a mere make-believe, they will contribute their influence and their votes to the common cause hereafter, and with the assured hope of ultimate success. If, on the other hand, they see only a disposition to surrender before the battle, such as Senator Allison's tone implies, they will withdraw from the company of the do-nothings, whatever consequences may follow.

THE WHOLE TRUTH.

The *Tribune* had an article last week showing, what is perfectly clear, that the real credit of the Democratic victory was due to Platt. This is easily seen, but in the eyes of a great many people he probably seems to have won this credit by what billiard-players call a "fluke"—that is, to have won the victory for the Democrats unintentionally; honestly thinking he could elect Tracy, and electing Van Wyck only by accident. We think it can be easily shown—it certainly could in any department of life except politics—that this theory will not hold water; that from the day the Greater New York charter was introduced into the Legislature down to the day of the election, there were the strongest signs of deliberate conspiracy.

In the first place, no reason for providing the city with a new charter just now was ever given. There was nothing in the city's condition or prospects which made it necessary. There was no demand for it by the citizens either in New York or in the districts which it was proposed to annex. The scheme was hatched secretly at Albany by the politicians, and no politician on either side offered any opposition to it.

In the second place, the leading and active persons on the commission were Gen. Tracy, Gilroy, a man who had just left the mayoral chair under a cloud, and was living in luxury on a fortune the origin of which was not known, and President Low. Now, Gen. Tracy's part in the affair since would fully justify, by the laws of human understanding, if not by the law of evidence, the belief that he was cognizant from the beginning of the object for which the charter was prepared, and in running for the mayoralty was but carrying out an agreement for coöperation long previously entered into. His business relations to Platt strongly corroborate this presumption.

In the third place, no explanation of the haste with which the charter was drawn, and of the desire to have it ready for this election, in spite of strong remonstrances from every quarter, was ever offered. The work was one of such extraordinary complexity that the necessity for doing it slowly and carefully, and after much consultation with outside experts, was plain even to the meanest understanding. Two years would not have been too much for the construction of such an instrument. As a matter of fact, the charter was drafted in about six weeks, and much contempt was expressed by the subordinates employed on it for the criticism of all persons opposed to the scheme. In any business matter, unexplained haste like this would have aroused the gravest suspicions and an explanation would have been insisted on.

In the fourth place, the criticisms of nearly all the leading bodies representing the property, trade, and intelligence of the city were not simply disregard-

ed—they were not noticed or in any way answered. In business matters—in the management of a railroad or insurance company, for example—this course alone would have been taken as a presumption of fraudulent designs, and would, if persisted in, have been treated accordingly. What capped the climax, however, was the disregard of the opinion of the Bar Association. This opinion was, to all intents and purposes, counsel's opinion on the charter or organic law of a business corporation, much weightier, owing to the standing of the body which gave it, than such opinions usually are. These experts said of the charter as drawn:

> "The proposed charter of the commission is not a charter in any proper sense, and it is not a code. It is an imperfect compilation and, to some extent, a condensation of the laws affecting the territory of the proposed greater city."

They then said it was a "deplorable" outcome, and expressed the belief that, if made a law, it "would give rise to mischiefs far outweighing any benefits which may reasonably be expected to flow from it."

Fifthly, this charter, thus characterized by the weightiest authority we have, was passed by the Legislature without any discussion. All objections and criticisms and all requests for delay were received in dead silence, and the bill was passed in hot haste. Now this is so contrary to the practice of all legislatures of civilized states that it must be considered, and, we think, would be considered by any competent tribunal, proof of fraudulent intent. Of course, there would be, if any investigation could be made, many corroborating circumstances—the character of the Legislature, the power of Platt over it, as shown in other matters, and the possible gains of this conduct to individual members.

This brings us down to the election, and the proof of conspiracy only grows stronger as we approach it. We are far from insinuating that Mr. Low was a party to these evil preparations. His subsequent conduct indicates, if it indicates anything, that he was the dupe of craftier men. Platt's fury at having him present himself as a candidate, and the selection of Tracy to oppose him, have the marks of some severe disappointment. It goes to show that it was no part of the plan to have the charter put in motion under a non-partisan régime. Nearly all the facts which are coming to light indicate that the election itself was simply the carrying out of the scheme in which the charter originated, and that both parties were working together in the election as well as the drafting. More light will probably be thrown on the whole matter by the distribution of the offices. Should there be an equitable division of the spoils, no man gifted with ordinary reasoning power will acquit Platt of having entered into a conspiracy last spring with the Democrats to use his Legislature to gather up the largest amount of public plunder ever accumulated in one mass in America, and then hand it over to the party which could most easily win at the election, on condition of receiving himself a fair proportion. It will not do to treat the vote of November 2 as an isolated event. It seems the consummation of a scheme of villany concocted nearly a year previously.

FUTILITY OF PRIMARY REFORM.

As our readers are aware, we have little faith in the efficacy of plans for reforming the primaries by means of amendments to the laws regulating their conduct. Our view, as frequently expressed, is that the experience of many years has made it certain, first, that the much-exhorted "good men" will not attend the primaries except on extremely rare occasions; and, second, that when they do attend, they are no match for the machine men, whose lifelong practice in the tricks of their trade enables them to come out ahead in almost every contest. A different phase of the subject is presented in a letter from Plattsburgh published in the *Evening Post* of Saturday. This shows that, so far as the law of New York State is concerned, it vests such absolute power in the hands of the party organization, or the machine, that any primary action, under any system, which does not meet the approval of the boss can be set aside, and such action as he desires can be substituted in its place. He is really the court of last resort in all questions concerning the legality of primary procedure.

The history of the various contests which have led finally to a decision of the Court of Appeals confirming this view of the boss's power is extremely interesting. In Clinton County the anti-machine Republicans acquired sufficient strength, working inside the party, to carry the primaries for the election of delegates to the convention which was to nominate a candidate for the Assembly. When the machine men discovered this fact, they concocted bogus "contests" and appealed to the county committee to make up the roll of the convention. The committee responded by making up a roll which gave the machine men a majority. The result was two conventions and two nominations. A similar case occurred in Cortland County, and more recently one occurred in regard to a Congressional nomination in Westchester County. Last year Warner Miller carried the regular Republican primaries in Herkimer County and was elected a delegate to the State convention. A "contest" was got up in his case, as it had been in the others. In all these instances the primaries had been carried regularly; the good men had gone into them, had obeyed all the rules, and had emerged triumphant. The machine men had refused to abide by the result, had really bolted and made separate nominations, but, when they had appealed to the county or State committee, or State convention, had been declared "regular," and their successful opponents had been barred out. Furthermore, the men who had carried the primaries were not allowed to have the names of their candidates printed on the ballots, while those of the bolters were put on as the regular nominees. Warner Miller appeared at the door of the convention hall only to be denied admission, on the ground that the State committee had declared him not to be the "regular" delegate.

The Westchester case was carried to the Court of Appeals, and Gen. Tracy, the law partner of Mr. Platt's son, appeared as the champion of the machine as the supreme power in all such matters. His contention was that the courts, in mere matters of party regularity not involving statutory requirements, should not interfere where the question of regularity has already been determined by the superior authorities of the party. The court adopted this view, basing its decision upon the clause of the Raines election law which provides that, "if there is a division within a party, and two or more factions claim the same device or name, the Secretary of State shall decide such conflicting claim, giving preference of device and name to the convention or primary or committee thereof recognized by the regularly constituted party authorities." The court held that the State committee and State convention were unquestionably the regularly constituted party authorities, and declared that, while the opinions of lower courts upon the binding effect of this provision had been conflicting, its own opinion was that its intent was to make the decisions of the party authorities final, adding:

> "We think that in cases where questions of procedure in conventions, or the regularity of committees is involved, which are not regulated by law, but by party usages and customs, the officer called upon to determine such questions should follow the decision of the regularly constituted authorities of the party; and courts, in reviewing the determination of such officers, should in no way interfere with such determination."

Of course in New York State the "regularly constituted party authorities" are the machine and the boss. So far as the Republican party is concerned, the entire seat of power is Platt. All the committees, county and State, and the State convention do exactly what he says. "What the old man wants" is, in fact, supreme Republican law. This being the case, the decision upon the outcome of any primary or convention rests absolutely with him. What a huge joke, under such conditions, to talk of reforming the primaries! If, by good luck or accident or phenomenally hard work, the reformers were to carry a primary, all he would have to do would be to get

up another primary election, declare their primary irregular, and their work would go for naught. No system of primary reform is worth the paper it is written on in the presence of a situation like this. Whether with deliberate intent or not, the ballot law has been drawn in such a way as to protect and sustain any amount of rascality in the primaries that the "regularly constituted party authorities" may condone, and if there be any limits to their tolerance in that direction, they have yet to be disclosed. During the last campaign a Tammany leader remarked in regard to some rumors of primary revolt in that organization: "So long as we have the chairmen of the primaries we don't care a darn what anybody may try to do." That is the position in which the law places all the bosses, and the primary reformers may as well give up their fight in advance.

There is, as we have said many times, no need of attempting to reform the primaries. Leave them alone, and work against them from the outside. Nearly all the States have secret-ballot laws now which confer the privilege of nomination by petition. This is all the opponents of machine primaries need. The very act of getting signers to a petition is the first step towards an organization in the interest of better government. It leads to the personal solicitation of voters, and thus arouses them to an interest in politics, which is a most important first step. No system which can be applied to a primary will work a change of mind among the machine members of a party. They have gone into the primary because they wish to use it for their own purposes. Nothing will induce them to use it for anybody else's purposes. If they cannot use it as they wish to, they will go out of the business. The surest way to drive them out is to nominate candidates against theirs and defeat them whenever they deserve defeat. More real reform can be accomplished in that way within a few years than in a lifetime of "going into the primaries."

HOW ARE WE TO GOVERN HAWAII?

One of the objections to annexing Hawaii which Mr. Bryce mentions in his temperate and weighty article in the *Forum*, is the difficulty of our governing such a country, and especially such a population, once annexed. The point will bear elaboration. It has been entirely blinked in both the treaties—treated as a "mere matter of detail," when it is really the marrow of the whole affair. President Harrison recommended the Senate to ratify his treaty of annexation, saying that the Hawaiians, as respects the form of their subsequent government, were willing to trust "the just and benevolent intentions of the United States." Mr. McKinley, for his part, was content to leave all such puzzles to "the wisdom of Congress." But the only way we can recognize just and benevolent intentions is in some form of expression; and the wisdom of Congress we can all believe in more easily when, with Alice in Wonderland, we see it written down. Instead of dodging or deferring the question of governing the islands, it should be made the first question of all.

Now, the first thing that confronts us when we come to this "mere matter of detail" (which is, as usual, the real crux of the business), is the fact that the Hawaiian Government confesses that the inhabitants of the islands are not capable of governing themselves. This is official. In the report of the Hawaiian Senate committee, which was adopted at the same time the treaty was ratified, it was explicitly stated that "good government cannot be permanently maintained in these islands without aid or assistance from without." If this be true—and far be it from us to question an official deliverance of the Hawaiian Senate—it is, or ought to be, a fatal bar to annexation. The theory of our government, from the Ordinance of 1787 down, has been that the expansion of the United States was to be solely by the addition of self-governing communities to self-governing communities. Saying nothing now of contiguity of territory, it is safe to affirm that if, at any time within the first one hundred years of our government, a group of 100,000 people had come confessing their inability to govern themselves, and asking us to take care of them, they would have been sent about their business with scorn. They would have been told that this nation is a federation of self-governing States, and that to admit a State unable to govern itself was nonsense.

What governmental machinery have we to set up in Hawaii? Obviously only the government of a State or else of a Territory. But nobody now urges the admission of Hawaii as a State. The alternative of a Territorial government seems easy, but is it? We have a great body of special acts and general legislation affecting Territories, but it may be searched from end to end, from the Ordinance of 1787 down to the admission of Oklahoma in 1890, without finding the shadow of a warrant for any such government as the circumstances of Hawaii require. In every case the expectation has been that a local government was to be set up by universal suffrage—and that kind of government, it is confessed on all hands, cannot be set up in Hawaii. If universal suffrage were to rule there, the islands would vote against annexation itself.

It may be well to put together here some of the provisions of past Territorial legislation, to show how absolutely inapplicable they are to Hawaii, and what a complete break with our past we shall have to make if we attempt to govern that country as it must be governed when a part of the United States. Section 9 of the Ordinance of 1787 set the fashion for home rule in the Territories when it provided:

> "So soon as there shall be 5,000 free male inhabitants, of full age, in the district, upon giving proof thereof to the Governor, they shall receive authority, with time and place, to elect representatives from their counties or townships, to represent them in the general assembly."

Jumping a hundred years, we find the same expectation of ability to set up a local government on the basis of universal suffrage, in the act providing for the government of Oklahoma. Section 5 declares—

> "That all male citizens of the United States above the age of twenty-one years, and all male persons of *foreign birth* over said age who shall have, twelve months prior thereto, declared their intention to become citizens of the United States, as now required by law, who are actual residents at the time of the passage of this act, . . . shall be entitled to vote at the first election in the Territory."

Furthermore, there are, in the general provisions of the Revised Statutes of the United States respecting Territories, sections which would have to be repealed if such a government of restricted suffrage as now exists in Hawaii, and as would have to be continued, were to be made legal. Section 1859, for example, provides that

> "Every male citizen above the age of twenty-one, including persons who have legally declared their intention to become citizens in any Territory hereafter organized, and who are actual residents of such Territory at the time of the organization thereof, shall be entitled to vote at the first election in such Territory, and to hold any office therein."

Here is the spirit and the letter of our Territorial legislation, and what would happen if it were applied to Hawaii? The answer may be truthfully given in the words of that ardent annexationist, W. N. Armstrong of Honolulu, who, in explaining the present oligarchical system in Hawaii, said:

> "It must be distinctly understood that, besides ruling themselves, the whites must create a form of government through which they can rule natives, Chinese, Japanese, and Portuguese, in order to prevent being 'snowed under.' That is, we need two distinct forms of government made up into one form; one for ourselves and one for aliens, who *outnumber us.*"

Suppose the Revised Statutes of the United States were to govern the first election in the Territory of Hawaii, what would happen? Why, Mr. Armstrong and his noble band of "whites" would be "snowed under" so that they could never be dug out. Rule out the Chinese, whom our courts have held ineligible to citizenship; rule out the Japanese, though their eligibility to citizenship is yet pending in our courts; enough outnumbering "aliens," as Mr. Armstrong elegantly calls the men whose land he wishes to steal away from them, would be left to bury him in the

drifts. The Hawaiians alone would snow him under to the tune of 39,000 to 3,000; the Portuguese could do it 5 to 1; if even the British and German residents of the islands should combine, they would vote down the 3,000 Americans who are now proposing to "rule" and extinguish the rights and nationality of the other 106,000.

In the face of such patent difficulties, in the teeth of all our past and precedents, how can it be maintained that it is wise to annex Hawaii and trust to luck to govern it afterwards? An act to govern is vastly more critical than a treaty to annex. It should be made a necessary preliminary. Tell us what we are going to do with the islands after we get them, and then it will be time to talk about getting them. In default of some complete and well considered plan for governing a people which declares its inability to govern itself, annexation is worse than a leap into the dark. You may leap into the dark and perhaps alight on your feet on solid ground. But to annex Hawaii with no provision for governing it, is deliberately to leap over a precipice at the bottom of which dead men's bones are heaped high in warning.

INDIA: THE TILAK CASE.

DUBLIN, November 15, 1897.

India has been passing through an ordeal of famine and of plague. The taxation, already grinding in proportion to the resources of the people, has been further increased, at least for the present, to the amount of £125,000 a day, by frontier wars. These wars are due principally to the non-fulfilment by the present Government of promises made by their predecessors regarding the evacuation of Chitral. The British military bureaucracy that rules India entered upon the campaign lightly, in opposition to and without consulting the educated portions of the native population, who can reap none of the glory, and who, with their countrymen, are saddled with the cost. This has been a juncture when mild treatment and consideration for India and Indian sentiment would appear especially called for. The country was well inclined towards British rule. The connection after conquest has been very different from that which till a recent period subsisted between Ireland and England. Such bitter memories as complicate the Irish problem scarcely exist in India. There is no reason why they should be originated. Since the Mutiny, on the suppression of which regal promises were made of equal treatment for all nations, races, classes, and creeds, the policy has been, by establishing schools and universities, to turn Indian thought into Western channels —to teach the natives Western ideas of liberty, independence, and social duties, the lessons drawn from history, such as are taught in the schools and universities of the United Kingdom and the United States—Washington the type of a patriot, Burke as a statesman. The writings of Macaulay, of Mill, of Spencer, and of Morley are dwelt upon to a degree that they scarcely are at home.

To minds thus trained are now applied the retrograde measures of a despotic rule, exercised without any representation of the governed before the supreme authority, the Imperial Parliament.* Educated India seethes with unrest as it never did before. No outbreak is possible, no cataclysm is to be expected. But discontent will have its way in some form. The especial danger of the situation lies in this, that British will is supreme and unquestioned as it never was before. The generations that gave battle in Mahratta and Sikh warfare have passed away. No Indian is permitted to train in the military command or the statesmanship that would enable him under any circumstances to lead against British power; and the manufacture of the scientific military appliances without which men in the mass are now powerless is prohibited in India. Volunteering, which in Ireland is prohibited fairly to all alike, is in India encouraged among all whites, British and foreign, and disallowed to all Indians. What Burke most feared regarding India a century ago was the complications likely to arise from the unquestioned and uncontrolled British power there. That rule is even less questioned now than it was then, and less controlled by Parliament. Parliament was very jealous of the rule of the East India Company. It is not jealous of its own theoretical rule, which it in practice leaves to the permanent officials; and the British people are comparatively more absorbed in their own internal affairs than they were in Burke's time.

Possessing such power, drawn closer within themselves by short residence and quick communication with home, mingling less with natives, depending less and less upon the cultivation of good feeling with or respect for them, there is every danger of the Anglo-Indians urging their despotic policy still further. The miseries and disasters certain to ensue are likely to fall upon the best and most finely strung of the Indian people.

It is difficult for even the best educated European to understand the intricacies of caste customs and those connected with the home life of the people; and to what extent these may have been outraged by British soldiers in the domiciliary visits, with a view to the suppression of the plague in Poona and elsewhere, it is hard to determine. In the height of the ferment consequent on segregation work, two British officers were murdered in Poona. This evoked an outburst of indignation from leading and educated India. There was no reason to suppose that these murders were the work of other than misguided individuals. Instead of accepting the repudiation and horror expressed, the Government imposed upon the town a "punitive" police force, costing 150,000 rupees (£10,000) a year—an exorbitant sum, when we consider that the average income in India is about six dollars per annum. One hundred thousand persons are being put under suspicion and mulcted in fine for the guilt of one or two. Indignation against the murderers has been chilled and merged into indignation against the Government. There has been a general outcry from the Anglo-Indian community and the Anglo-Indian press for strong measures. The Government responded. Among those who had rendered themselves most prominent in specifying and protesting against interferences with family life and property in the plague segregation proceedings were the brothers Natu, men of education and position. They were arrested, deported, and placed in confinement. Four months have passed; neither have they been brought to trial, nor has any charge been formulated against them. Every mail from India brings news of the painful and deepening impression created by their detention.

But most of all has the Tilak case stirred the country to its depths. A report of the proceedings in a closely printed volume of 360 pages has come to hand. The guilt or innocence of Mr. Tilak is not the most important consideration. It is that a man declared guilty by British law, and sentenced to eighteen months' "rigorous" imprisonment (involving to a high-caste Brahmin degradation of which a Westerner can form no conception), has now become the most popular man in India. The 'Full and Authentic Report' is edited by two native barristers, one of them a graduate of Cambridge, England. To it is prefixed a portrait of Mr. Tilak, under which we find sentences from the writings of Charles Bradlaugh, such as, "The gaol door is no syllogism; the gaoler's key is no argument."

The Honorable Bal Gangadhar Tilak was editor of the most popular and widely circulated newspaper in the Marathi language, the *Kesari*. He is the recognized leader of the orthodox Hindu community, and for a long time has been known as one of the most honest and fearless critics of the Government. He was born in 1856, and took his degree of LL.D. in Bombay University. He early resolved to devote himself to the education of his fellow-countrymen, and never to accept Government service. He must, however, at one time have been associated in an unpaid place at a Governor's Council Board, to entitle him to the prefix of Honorable. He was mainly instrumental in the establishment of the Fergusson College in Poona, now recognized as one of the model educational institutions in the Deccan. He was professor of mathematics, and at intervals held the chairs of Sanskrit, English, and science. Later he assumed the editorship of the *Kesari*, and made it the exponent of the Hindu party, who hold that a healthy veneration of the old gods and national heroes would, under British supreme rule, best infuse a true spirit of nationality, patriotism, and self-respect into the native population. For his writings in this paper, principally in honor of Shivaji (a Mahratta chieftain who opposed the British) and in criticism of segregation proceedings, and in comparison of the British Government of India and Canada, he has been tried and sentenced under a section of the Indian penal code which reads: "Whoever by words, either spoken or intended to be read, or by signs, or by visible representation or otherwise, excites, or attempts to excite, feelings of disaffection to the Government established by law in British India, shall be punished," etc.

The judge's charge has excited considerable comment both in India and at home. Under his interpretation of the law, even helpful criticism of the Government becomes penal.

"Disaffection," said Mr. Justice Strachey in his charge, "meant hostility or ill-will of any sort towards the Government. Feelings of ill will, great or small, intense or mild, or any attempt to excite such feelings,

*The Maoris, who, within the first half of this century, practised cannibalism, are accorded of right six representatives of their own race in the New Zealand Parliament.

brought the offender within the section. It was not action, but feeling, that was the test. . . . Comments upon a measure of the Government, if they excited hatred, must also come within the meaning of the section. . . . Disapprobation, unless kept within certain bounds, became disaffection, . . . and the measures of the Government must be taken to mean everything they did or omitted to do."

The Indian Penal Code was mainly the work of Sir James Stephen. Attached to each section is an "explanation." The charge is very generally felt not to have been justified by the explanation following section 124 A already quoted:

"Such a disapprobation of the measures of the Government as is compatible with a disposition to render obedience to the lawful authority of the Government, and to support the lawful authority of the Government against unlawful attempts to subvert or resist that authority, is not disaffection. Therefore the making of comments on the measures of the Government with the intention of exciting only this species of disapprobation, is not an offence within this clause."

The prosecution relied largely upon the interpretation of passages in the *Kesari*, whose meaning was contested by the defence. Neither the judge nor the six Anglo-Indians on the jury of nine are known or believed to have had such a knowledge of Mahrati as would enable them to decide between various readings. A verdict of guilty was carried by six to three. Apart from the question of the justice of the verdict, the sentence was light, considering that twenty years' transportation to the Andamans might have been inflicted.

There is much in the teachings of Mr. Tilak that appears retrograde and cannot commend itself to enlightened friends of India. He opposed the "Raising of the Age of Consent Bill" as contrary to ancient usage and traditions. The Hindu Social Reform party holds its meetings annually in the same locality as, and on the conclusion of, the meetings of the Indian National Congress. It has been the custom of the Congress to permit the hall or "pandal" erected for its use to be occupied by the Social Reform party. Last year Mr. Tilak was mainly instrumental in breaking through this practice. He has now, however, even by those Hindus before opposed to him, come to be regarded as a national hero and martyr.

The Anglo-Indians who for generations to come are likely to rule, demand even more restrictive measures, and would if possible cripple the educational influences which India shares. Those influences cannot be checked in Europe, and, as long as intercourse with Europe continues, must extend more or less to India. Those Indians who have most participated in such influences feel most keenly the late developments, especially the Natu deportations and the Tilak prosecution. They urge that if they are to be gagged, some curb should, in its abuse and scorn of natives and native thought and feeling, be put upon the Anglo-Indian press, as much more likely to engender hatred of British rule than anything the native press can effect. It is no light matter that in a country where Europeans number less than one in a thousand of the population, a man of irreproachable character, whose whole life has been spent in the service of his countrymen, should, when speaking out fearlessly at a time when his people suffered heavy affliction, be relegated to hard labor by a jury composed mainly of Europeans. Mr. Tilak, according to the editors of the Report referred to, has "risen ten times higher in public estimation by the bold stand he took during the trial." D. B.

NOLHAC'S MARIE ANTOINETTE.

PARIS, November 17, 1897.

M. Pierre de Nolhac is the curator of the Palace of Versailles. He has applied himself to the restoration of this palace, which has become in parts much dilapidated of late years. When Louis-Philippe undertook to make of the ancient palace of the kings a sort of national museum, dedicated (such was his expression) "à toutes les gloires de la France," he found it in a deplorable state. It was not without difficulty that the architects effected the eviction of a number of families which, under one pretence or another, had installed themselves in the beautiful rooms of the palace, from the attic down.

Louis-Philippe saved the palace, but his architects made some mistakes; in their time there was not that respect for the relics of the past which has in our day become universal. M. de Nolhac has made it his object to reëstablish in all its details the old state of things, to show to us the great and small apartments, with their furniture, exactly as they were in the time of Louis XIV., Louis XV., and Louis XVI. He has succeeded, in a great degree, and he has naturally been led by his work to make a very minute study of all that concerns the royal inhabitants of the château in the past. He published a year ago a beautiful volume on Marie Antoinette, the chief interest of which lay in the reproduction of all the known portraits of the unfortunate Queen, and of a number of engravings of the time of her reign and of the Revolution. This huge volume is now, I believe, out of print, and can be had only at a premium.

M. de Nolhac gives us now a small volume which has no illustrations whatever, and in which he seems to wish to attain to the dignity of a historian. It has for its title 'Marie-Antoinette, Dauphine,' which shows at once that the author has confined himself to the years which preceded the death of Louis XVI. M. de Nolhac has used "new documents," it being impossible nowadays for an historian to present himself before the public without a suitable amount of documents. I must say at once that M. de Nolhac has not found many original documents; he has contented himself with using the correspondence of Mercy-Argenteau with Maria Theresa, published by Arneth, which remains the principal and best guide for all those who wish to study Marie Antoinette. There is also the correspondence of Mercy-Argenteau with Joseph II. and Prince Kaunitz (also published by Arneth), the collection of the letters of Marie Antoinette published by M. de la Rocheterie and M. de Beaucourt. Among the inedited documents used by M. de Nolhac, there are letters of Louis XV. and of Joseph II., letters of the King and of Madame de Villars to the Dauphin, letters of M. de Marigny, the Director of the Royal Palaces, and of the Architect Gabriel, the registers and journals of the masters of ceremonies and of the gentlemen of the bedchamber. The marriage act of Marie Antoinette has been preserved to this day in the register of the parish of Notre-Dame at Versailles. By a curious coincidence, the day of the publication of M. de Nolhac's volume there appeared in *Cosmopolis* an article on Marie Antoinette by Arvède Barine (the pseudonym of a well-known lady who often contributes to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*). While M. de Nolhac speaks only of Marie Antoinette as the Dauphine, Arvède Barine's article dwells especially on her captivity and on her death.

History has seldom shown a more extraordinary contrast than that between the infancy and youth of Marie Antoinette and her tragical end. The contrast is not only in external circumstances, in the events, in the surroundings, it is as profound in the inner life, in the character. Marie Antoinette as Austrian Archduchess, Dauphine, and young Queen, and Marie Antoinette as prisoner in the Temple and as victim of the Revolution, appear like two absolutely different persons. The contrast becomes, as it were, visible to the eye, if you put side by side the portrait painted by Drouais, just after Marie Antoinette arrived in France, now preserved in the collection at Chantilly, and the terribly realistic drawing made by David when he saw from a window the Queen conducted to the scaffold, with her hands tied behind her back, sitting straight on a wooden bench in the infamous *charrette:*

"On her arrival in France [May, 1770; Drouais's picture was painted in 1773] the Archduchess was only fourteen years old; Drouais's portrait shows her slender form, her thin arms, her face which was still the face of a child; still, the features are already those which you will find, fully developed, in the magnificent pictures of the Queen by Madame Lebrun. Her education had been much neglected; Maria Theresa had many children and was absorbed by cares of state. Marie Antoinette, when she arrived in France, was ignorant; could not spell correctly, read nothing; she knew a little Latin, but she was incapable of fixing her attention on any kind of study."

Light, gay, unreflecting, not knowing how to dissemble or to control herself, she found herself thrown in a most dangerous court, obliged to please not only her husband, but the King and the King's daughters, Mesdames, who were no longer young, such as they are represented in the famous pictures showing them in mythological costumes. Madame du Barry was the recognized favorite of the King, and her name often appears in the correspondence of Marie Antoinette with Maria Theresa.

"The King is very good to me and I love him dearly; but it is a pity to see the weakness which he has for Madame du Barry, who is the most foolish and impertinent creature possible to imagine. She played every night with us at Marly; she twice found herself next to me, but she did not speak to me, and I tried not to enter into conversation with her. However, when it became necessary, I spoke to her. . . . I wrote yesterday for the first time to the King. I was much afraid, knowing that Madame du Barry reads all the letters; but you may be sure, my dearest mother, that I will commit no fault either for or against her."

Maria Theresa always considered her daughter, even when she became Queen of France (May, 1774), as an informer and as an instrument of her own policy. In her correspondence with Mercy, her ambassador, this preoccupation is constant. Mercy is very severe in his judgments. "All depends," he writes to Maria Theresa, "on the Princess being some day willing to surmount her repugnance to any serious object." The Queen thinks only of *colifichets* (female ornaments) and of childish interests; she loves gossip, she is extravagant, inconsiderate, coquettish; she has favorites, every-

thing that a Queen has no right to have. Madame Adélaïde, one of the Queen's aunts, calls her "l'Autrichienne." In the drawing-rooms of Paris she is called "Madame Déficit." She has made a most dangerous enemy in the person of the Duke d'Orléans. There was a wave of unpopularity rising against her. In 1787, two years before the beginning of the Revolution, the Lieutenant of Police advised her not to show herself in Paris, where she would no longer be safe.

There is not much in M. de Nolhac's book which has not become familiar to those who have studied the history of the French Revolution. Whatever may be said about Marie Antoinette's levity, she does not appear unfavorably in the dangerous circumstances in which she was placed. Her instincts were good and sound; she felt a natural aversion to Madame du Barry and a natural sympathy for M. de Choiseul, who had been the instrument of her marriage, her first friend and adviser in France, and who was, besides, a partisan of the alliance between France and Austria. When Madame du Barry succeeded in obtaining from the weakness of Louis XV. the exile of Choiseul to Chanteloup, Marie Antoinette felt that the blow was directed against her as well as against Choiseul. The Duke d'Aiguillon, the successor of Choiseul, was her enemy as well as the enemy of Choiseul. Maria Theresa always considered paramount the interests of her empire; and when she forced her daughter to speak to Madame du Barry in public, at one of the great court circles, she knew that by that means she would obtain from Louis XV. an attitude of neutrality during the impending partition of Poland. It is certainly one of the most curious ironies of history that this important event, the disappearance of a monarchy which had so long served as a barrier between Germany and Russia, should have been the price of a few words addressed at court by Marie Antoinette to the courtesan who had obtained absolute power over the old King of France. "Il y a bien du monde ce soir à Versailles"—such were the words pronounced, coldly and drily, before an admiring crowd of courtiers.

Arvède Barine tries to discover a great contrast between the Dauphine and the Queen. The contrast is more, perhaps, in the events than in the person. The Queen, at her trial and in prison, certainly manifested an extraordinary amount of fortitude and of dignity; but the Dauphine never showed any meanness nor any want of courage. At a very early age left without a real friend, any disinterested adviser, with a husband who was for years indifferent to her charms and her distinction, placed in the most trying circumstances, under the eyes of open or hidden enemies, if she made a few mistakes, she never committed any grave error. At any rate, her terrible end ought to make even a Frenchman very lenient to her mistakes.

Arvède Barine, though a woman, has perhaps not felt enough this duty of forgiveness and of indulgence. She has, however, rendered full justice to the manner in which the Queen bore her misfortunes at the Temple. The old castle where the King and his family were imprisoned, built in the thirteenth century, had belonged to the Templars. It was situated between the boulevards and the Hôtel de Ville (at the last Exposition there was an exact copy of the Temple as it was during the Revolution erected near the Trocadéro; this *attraction* seemed to many to be in very bad taste). There were, when Louis XVI. was sent to the Temple, really two governments, the Assembly, which was the legal government, and the Commune, which was the government *de facto* in Paris. The royal prisoners were confided to the Commune. The Assembly meant that the prisoners should be treated respectfully and as behooved their rank; but the officers of the Commune either appropriated the money which was to be spent on the prisoners' food and clothing, or took a malicious pleasure in reducing them to the condition of the most common criminals. Authentic accounts give the sums expended (either really or nominally) for the prisoners in the months of August and September, 1793. We have also the 'Memoir of the Expenses of the Widow Capet at the Conciergerie,' the 'Account of the *fournitures* made to Louis XVI. and his family from the 10th of August to the 6th of October, 1792.' Curious details have been produced which show great discrepancies between the orders of the Assembly and the action of the Commune. Some 'Papiers du Temple' have been published by M. la Morinerie. Painful as the subject must be, it is well that every detail of the great drama of the Temple and the Conciergerie should be known. Marie Antoinette has nothing to lose by it; her end was truly heroic.

Correspondence.

PROTECTION OF FOREIGNERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Lee's letter telling of the duty which Prof. Darwin was obliged to pay on his planetary models brings to my mind a recent experience of my own which shows that our present intelligent tariff has been ingeniously constructed so as to protect not only our scientific men from the ruinous competition of foreigners, but foreign scientific men from the ruinous competition of Americans, according as either best serves its purpose, which is to get something out of everybody who lands in the country under the present régime. While in Munich this summer, I secured a valuable publication of plates illustrative of Greek sculpture, a work which is part of my professional apparatus, and absolutely necessary to me in the performance of my duties at our Museum. Under former tariffs I have made similar purchases while abroad, and brought them home without paying duty, upon making statements to this effect. This time, however, I was obliged to pay between sixty and seventy dollars on the work in question, because, as I was told by the custom-house authorities, while there was no doubt as to the nature of my profession or the scientific character of the plates, the new tariff would not permit me to bring it in free *unless I was a foreign scientific man emigrating to this country.* Can anybody tell me who is protected by this provision?

Very respectfully yours,

Edward Robinson.

Boston, November 27, 1897.

AN OLD ACQUAINTANCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I bought for this Library 'Whip and Spur,' by Col. George E. Waring, jr., Doubleday & McClure Co., 1897 (copyright 1897 by same), under the impression, first, that it was a new work, and, later, that it was a new edition, rewritten, of the same work bearing same title published by James R. Osgood & Co., Boston, in 1875 (copyright 1875 by the author). Comparison of the two books shows that, from the "contents" page to the end, they are the same, word for word, line for line, page for page. The pagination is the same. The head and tail-pieces are the same. The lines are the same length, with the same number to the page. They are evidently printed from the same plates.—I am, very respectfully yours,

Willis F. Sewall.

The Wilmington Institute Free Library, Wilmington, Del., November 26, 1897.

Notes.

The Macmillan Co. announce volume ii. in the series entitled "Periods of European History," being for the years 918-1272, by Prof. T. F. Tout of Victoria University, Manchester, and 'The Shorter Poems of John Milton,' annotated by Andrew J. George.

To their Riverside Literature Series Houghton, Mifflin & Co. purpose adding 'The Great Debate between Hayne and Webster,' edited by Lindsay Swift of the Boston Public Library.

There seems to come a time in the life of every illustrator when he feels it necessary to illustrate Dickens. Mr. C. D. Gibson has apparently reached this period, and the result is a series of half-a-dozen photogravure plates from his drawings entitled 'People of Dickens,' and published in a large portfolio by R. H. Russell. Technically the drawings are admirably done, and the process of reproduction, which allows of the use of tone as well as line, and of crayon and other tools as well as the pen, has given a new suppleness to Mr. Gibson's talent. The resultant effect is almost deceptively like etching, with its firm groundwork of line and its addition of tone by *retroussage.* One of the drawings is apparently altogether in crayon, and here the effect is more like that of fine lithography. But as illustrations? Dickens is eminently illustratable, yet no artist has succeeded in displacing the original contemporary pictures by Seymour and "Phiz" and Cruikshank, which are often feeble enough as art, but which *are* Dickens to the popular mind. Their mere priority may have something to do with this, but there is a great deal also in the fact that these artists were of Dickens's own time, and that their drawings are in the same literary and artistic atmosphere as are his writings. Their very tendency to caricature is not much greater than his—their drawings are in his style and truly illustrate him. Whatever the reason, it is certain that these men have fixed the type of Dickens's principal characters for ever, and an artist of to-day who attempts to do the work again finds himself in a dilemma. If he varies from the well-known types he will not be accepted, while if he follows them his work will seem to lack originality and spontaneity; to be a mere rehash of old material. Is not contemporaneousness of the essence of true illustration, after all, and is it not the function of the illustrator to depict his own time and his own country as a running commen-

tary upon the literary production of that time and country?

In 'London as Seen by Charles Dana Gibson' (Scribners), our artist is dealing with contemporary life, but is it London that he has seen? Here and there are bits of local color, but in much of Mr. Gibson's later work the background is almost entirely eliminated, and as to the types, they seem to us astonishingly like those that have heretofore done duty as American. We even seem to see again and again the same models with whom we have become familiar in the pages of *Life*. A few street scenes, a court scene, some notes of a "drawing-room"—these were evidently sketched upon the spot. But whether it is that modern life is everywhere much alike, or only that the artist has changed his sky but not his manner, most of these drawings look as if they might have been made in New York.

In 'All Hands' (Harpers) Mr. Zogbaum is dealing with matter with which he is thoroughly familiar, and his artistic skill, while far from being as brilliant as that of Mr. Gibson, is sufficient for the plain and honest statement of facts, so that these "pictures of life in the United States Navy" may safely be accepted as true representations. Even the pictures of battle, where fancy has necessarily been called into play, are probably pretty true to what might be, if not to what has been.

A prefatory note to Mr. F. Hopkinson Smith's 'Gondola Days' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) informs us that "the text is the same as that of 'Venice of To-day,'" a large illustrated subscription book published by the Henry T. Thomas Company. Mr. Smith writes pleasantly enough, in the picturesque and sentimental vein well known to readers of such books, and his text would serve well enough as a pretext for sumptuous illustration, but it is rather thin to read for itself in a portable volume with only few and slight sketches by way of pictured accompaniment.

G. P. Putnam's Sons give a fine attire to the four stories, "Puss in Boots," "Jack and the Beanstalk," "Hop-o'-My-Thumb," and "Cinderella," comprising 'The Cruikshank Fairy-Book.' The designs belong to a class in which Cruikshank's humor was thoroughly at home. Something, but not much, is lost in the facsimile of them. The artist-author's defence of his Bowdlerizing the tales is retained and is worthy of reflection; and perhaps the "few Temperance Truths" introduced in his versions will do no harm to anybody.

'Flying Leaves' (New York: E. R. Herrick & Co.) borrows its humor like its title from an otherwise unnamed source, the *Fliegende Blätter*. The legends have been adapted to this latitude when necessary. The selection is not of the best, but it is characteristic of the comic German paper.

The Cambridge Edition of Burns just issued in a single volume by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., in keeping with their Longfellow, Whittier, Lowell, Holmes, and Browning, draws by permission on the Centenary Burns of Messrs. Henley and Henderson. That is, Mr. Henley's essay on the poet is taken over entire, together with all Burns's and his editor's explanatory notes, but the variorum notes are omitted. There is a full glossarial index, one of persons and places, one of first lines, and one of titles. The volume is compact without too minute a type, and is equally desirable for reading or reference.

The half-century of Longfellow's 'Evangeline' is commemorated by the same firm in very handsome style, with quaint rubricated headpieces and full-page color plates, the first by Violet Oakley, the last by Jessie Wilcox Smith; and Miss Alice Longfellow furnishes a pleasing introduction. The decorations are of course the thing. The headpieces, in Mr. Howard Pyle's manner, light up and adorn the page not too obtrusively or fantastically. The colored plates, without pretence of antiquarian fidelity, are also well calculated to give satisfaction, as being in key with the sentiment of the poem; and we can allow what Mr. Pyle claims for his pupil, in a prefatory note, that her drawings possess both grace and beauty.

'Rome the Middle of the World' is the rather awkward title of Miss Alice Gardner's new book (Edward Arnold). It is intended for young students who have some previous acquaintance with Roman history, and the style is adapted to their comprehension. Miss Gardner's method is descriptive and dramatic rather than biographical, though the interest of each chapter centres round the representative, for the time being, of the power of Rome. The ground covered is the story of the Roman Empire from Augustus to the Medici Popes. Thus fifteen centuries rush past us in twelve chapters, and the effect is necessarily somewhat panoramic. The main figures, however, stand out clearly enough—a result which achieves the professed purpose of the book. The general effect is pleasing, and both print and paper are good. The few illustrations, excellent in themselves, are rather too archæological for the youthful mind to which the prose style appeals.

The most noticeable feature of Prof. J. B. McMaster's 'School History of the United States' (American Book Company) is the relatively large space allotted to social and economic matters. The handling of these topics has, to be sure, something of the disconnected character which has been remarked in the author's larger work, and is least successful when dealing with the period subsequent to the civil war; still, these chapters, as a whole, are valuable. Unfortunately, gain in this direction is somewhat offset by loss in another; important political movements—Jackson's controversy with the Bank of the United States, for example—being dismissed with a few brief statements, while the crooked thread of slavery is by no means clearly or adequately traced. In point of analysis and arrangement there is not a little which will commend itself to teachers; we can but think, however, that the uneven balance of parts, and the rather dry treatment of distinctly political concerns, will militate against the usefulness of the book as a text-book. The maps and illustrations are numerous, most of the latter being at once appropriate and fresh.

N. T. Bacon's translation of Cournot's 'Mathematical Principles of the Theory of Wealth,' with Dr. Irving Fisher's bibliography of mathematical economics (Macmillan), is a welcome reproduction of a work which lay almost unnoticed for half a century before its merits were generally recognized. Cournot was a mathematical writer of the first half of the century, who did little or nothing in economics but produce the book now translated, and, later, a popular exposition of its method of reasoning. Economists had not the mathematical training necessary to the full appreciation of the work, and it was so little known that even Jevons did not seem to be acquainted with it, when he brought out his work on the mathematical principles of political economy. It is naturally devoted almost entirely to those branches of the subject which admit of rigorous treatment, including the laws of supply and demand, and the influence of monopolies, taxation, and free competition upon their operations. Cournot, we believe, took a great step forward in giving precision to the statement of these operations; but the question, what real advantage is gained by the use of algebraic equations in economic reasoning, is a very difficult one in itself, and is complicated by its connection with the farther one, whether either economists or the public will accept results reached by algebraic equations which are not capable of being worked out without them. The excellent bibliography of mathematical economics is more than its title indicates, and will be most useful to every student who wishes to see the subject treated as an exact science.

The 'Colonial Laws of New York' from 1664 to the Revolution, published by the State, have recently made their appearance. This is the work of the Statutory Revision Commission, directed by the Legislature in 1891 to "republish verbatim, preserving the original spelling and punctuation," the Statutes of the colony. The laws so printed prove themselves if introduced in evidence in any legal proceeding—a wise provision, as many of the originals are missing, and all inaccessible. The work has, of course, passed through many hands (the original commissioners having in the process entirely disappeared from the scene), and has been in the special charge of Mr. Robert C. Cumming of Albany, as chief clerk. In each case the act is carefully collated with reference to previous compilations where such exist. For some reason which we are unable to state, the book bears the imprint of 1894. It is, as the Commissioners say, an "invaluable addition to the legal literature of the State." Its value to the historical student is quite as great. He has now before him, on the shelves of any good library, the complete legislative history of the State during the period that its government has been in English or American hands. This covers, omitting the slight interlude of "Schout, Burgomaster, and Schepens" in 1673-'74, the lifetime of some seven generations, or two hundred and thirty-four years. The work is preceded by an historical note written by Mr. Cumming. Want of space forbids us to linger over the curiosities of the early record. One of the first things the English did was to establish the County of Yorkshire, dividing it into Ridings. This was on Long Island; the "Duke's Laws" (the first New York Code) were promulgated at Hempstead.

The frequent inquiries made by teachers for a good book on Physical Geography make it worth while to mention Tarr's First Book on that subject (Macmillan). The chapters on the atmosphere, ocean, and lands will be found instructive by the many who wish to gain something of the modern view of the subject. Unfortunately, the book is here and there marred by carelessness of style and statement.

That most satisfactory compendium, Hann's

'Klimatologie,' has just been issued in a second and enlarged edition (Stuttgart: Engelhorn), fourteen years having elapsed since its first appearance. Besides various additions of new material, it now has abundant footnote references to sources, which were crowded out of the first edition. Unlike certain climatologies in which numerical averages constitute the stock material, we here find concise sketches of the meteorological features of many regions, and pleasant excursions from the simple generalizations concerning wind and weather into the explanations of atmospheric phenomena. On every page the reader feels the sure hand of a master for his guide.

About a year ago the first volume of a fifth edition of the 'Allgemeine Erdkunde,' by Hann, Hochstetter, and Pokorny, was published (Prag: Tempsky), treating of the earth as a globe, the atmosphere, and the oceans; this part alone of the new edition being by one of the original authors, Dr. Hann. The second volume, the 'Earth's Crust and its Forms,' by E. Brückner of Berne, is now completed, much enlarged and modernized from its predecessor. There is no work on Physical Geography to which one may turn with more satisfaction than this one, feeling sure to find the best material thoroughly treated. It is interesting to notice that under the title Erdkunde, which we commonly translate by Geography, we here find a quarter of the volume devoted to Geology, including petrography, structure, and stratigraphy. The rest of the book relates to processes that determine surface forms, and to surface forms themselves, and largely follows the scheme of presentation developed in Penck's important 'Morphologie der Erdoberfläche.'

An account of the organization of beet-sugar factories in Germany, in the Consular Reports for November, is interesting as giving an example of the successful application of the coöperative principle. Out of the 399 factories now in operation, nearly half are stock companies in which the majority of the shareholders are beet-growers. These include not only most of the largest factories, but also the most prosperous. An abstract of the 'Mexican Annual Statistician' for 1895, just published, shows the population of the Republic to be 12,578,861 and the surplus revenue nearly two million dollars (silver). There are 24 museums, 68 libraries, with 512,529 volumes; 39 scientific societies, and 454 periodical publications, including 44 dailies and 185 weeklies. From an interesting description of a visit to the great salt wells in the province of Sze-Chuen in Central China, we learn that the majority of the wells are from two to three thousand feet deep, and that the brine is evaporated by means of jets of natural gas. At one place the brine is carried five miles by a veritable pipe-line (bamboo conduits) to the boilers. The wells are said to have been in operation two thousand years.

The account of the Forestry Department of India, by Lieut.-Col. F. Bailey, in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for November, is interesting and suggestive. The area under control is 112,952 square miles, of which 74,271 have been set aside as permanent forest estates. The officials and rangers number about 500, the larger part of whom are natives who have been trained in the Imperial Forest School at Dehra Dun. One of their most important duties is the successful dealing with fires, which is accomplished by a system of cleared "firelines" from 25 to 100 feet wide. By this means during 1894-95 "no less than 28,913 square miles were actually saved from burning," at an average cost of "one-third of a penny per acre." For this same period the gross revenue of the state forest was "Rs. 16,788,880, and the surplus was Rs. 7,415,590." A description of Queensland, in the same number, contains some interesting statistics in regard to its mineral wealth. "At present there are altogether fifty-eight proclaimed gold-fields, besides thirty-four mining districts," and "vast areas are yet unexamined." During 1895 there were employed 10,636 miners, and the output was 631,682 ounces. The total yield up to this time has been 10,558,605 ounces, or what would make "a rectangular beam of over 14,000 feet in length by over nine inches in breadth and six in depth," equal in value to $184,775,585. The paper is illustrated by some photographs, principally of Queensland farms.

The *Geographical Journal* for November opens with a brief account of a discovery by Baron Nordenskjöld that fresh water will be found by boring through hard cystalline rock. Borings have been made in forty-four places on the Scandinavian coast from which, with moderate pumping, 125 to 500 gallons of water can be raised in an hour. Similar sites are to be found on the Mediterranean coast, Asia Minor, "and in the dry watersheds of the cañons of Colorado." Other articles are the continuation of Mr. Günther's account of the Phlegræan Fields, a description of British caves, both of which are illustrated, and the distribution of towns in England regarded in its historical aspects.

'The Chultunes of Labná, Yucatan,' are described by Edward H. Thompson in the third number of the Memoirs of the Peabody Museum of American Archæology and Ethnology, Harvard University. These subterranean chambers were originally excavated for cisterns, in the opinion of the author, though they may have been used as storehouses for grain and other food. The discovery of human remains in some of them shows that they were finally used as depositories for the dead. Figures showing the ground plans and vertical sections of the chultunes, and half-tones of some of the objects found in them, accompany this paper.

The jubilee of King Oscar II. of Sweden has been commemorated by the University of Lund in a "Festskrift," the third part of which has been recently published. It contains an account of the University, a description of its various departments, and sketches of the professors. Elof Tegnér, the Librarian of the University, is the editor and principal contributor. The book is handsomely printed, and is illustrated by views of the University buildings and an excellent photogravure of the King.

The *Publications* of the Southern History Association for October contains a twenty-seven-page bibliography of the writings of William Gilmore Simms. It is prepared by Mr. A. S. Salley, jr., a collector of first editions of almost the only ante-bellum Southern novelist who achieved a general reputation. His list gives but few and unimportant titles in addition to those included in the similar work by Prof. W. P. Trent, and its typography makes it less convenient for consultation.

The *American Annual of Photography* for 1898 (New York: Scovill & Adams Co.) is on a level with the best of its predecessors in respect to the quality and interest of its illustrations. The work of Messrs. Stieglitz and Eickemeyer maintains its high reputation, and Messrs. Worsley-Benson and John H. Gear are their worthy companions. Mr. F. H. Day's studio examples of "Photography Applied to the Undraped Figure" are exceptionally praiseworthy. The colored plates of this issue are not remarkable and betoken no progress in this direction. The *Annual* contains a large amount of useful discussion and technical information in the shape of tables, formulæ, society lists, etc.

From June 1, 1898, Mr. William J. Stillman, for many years the Italian correspondent of the London *Times*, will have a place on the pension list of that journal, and we understand that he purposes devoting himself henceforward to general literature. The date just named will mark Mr. Stillman's seventieth birthday. That his productiveness is unabated is shown by several volumes published by him or in press during the present year.

—To the Chautauqua Reading Circle literature Messrs. Flood and Vincent have added a translation, by Miss M. Wilkinson, of 'Roman Life in Pliny's Time,' by Maurice Pellison. The letters of the younger Pliny are a storehouse of facts relating to the social life of the Romans in the first century of our era, and they have always been used for its illustration. A number of the more important letters are here given in full and are connected by a running commentary. Perhaps the translation has failed to do entire justice to the manner of M. Pellison. However that may be, we are struck on every page by the unpleasant effect of a use of the rhetorical question that amounts to puerility. This may be effective enough in a lively French original, but should have been modified by the judicious translator. Probably even the Chautauqua Reading Circle could have risen to something more austere than the following: "It might truly be said that Fronto exercised an influence over the spirit and the character of the best ruler which the empire had known. Was not that a beautiful triumph for a professor of rhetoric?" (p. 31). "Have we not still retained something of this prejudice?" (p. 114). "Oh admirable rules, indeed! Quintilian forgot, alas! that virtue should be exercised even by an orator" (p. 139). We repeat that the frequent rhetorical appeal and exclamatory comment is a terrible weariness to the English reader and an insult to his intelligence. The translator's instinct for English style is far from keen. However popular the presentation—and Pellison is popular indeed—adapted to the special class to which Chautauqua appeals, it is in the interest of civilization that the best available English style should be the first essential. There is an excellent eighteenth-century translation of Pliny's Letters by Melmoth—a translation that has attained to the dignity of a classic, and of which Warton said that it had bettered the original. We are convinced that a judicious selection from this work, reprinted with little or no comment, would have brought the Chautauqua reader into far more intimate relations with the Roman life of the period than does M. Pellison. There would be fewer facts and parallels, no doubt, but a great counterbalancing gain in the deeper impression that comes of close contact with the original—more Pliny, in fact, and less Pellison. The translator has not always succeeded in adapting the French at-

mosphere to Chautauqua. M. Pellison is allowed to speak of "our country," namely, France; but later on there is put into his mouth the phrase, "$1,215,000 of our money." The illustrations are remarkably good. On p. 29 for *Sully* read *Sulla*, and on p. 178 for *Alceus* read *Alcœus*.

—The amalgamation of the Camden Society with the Royal Historical Society is now an accomplished fact; and under the latter name alone the Society, under the Presidency of Sir Mountstuart Grant Duff, with a distinguished array of thirteen vice-presidents, including Lord Acton, Rawson Gardiner, W. E. H. Lecky, and Prof. Max Müller, enters upon its new session with the promise of a number of valuable papers. For securing these contributions, the Director and Honorary Secretary, Mr. Hubert Hall, deserves most of the credit. Himself an historical student of the highest erudition, Mr. Hall is ever ready to render help to other students, whether in his private capacity or in his official. In the latter, as one of the expert staff of the Public Record Office, and the officer who presides over the Government Search Room in that institution, his help is sought by students of national or of personal history alike. To the acclaimed historian, or to the humble copyist of documents, Mr. Hall is equally helpful and courteous. It is, therefore, easy to understand how much indebted to such a man are most of the historical writers of the day. From this arises to the Historical Society much advantage, when there is a need for papers, as historical students who have anything to say are only too eager to support Mr. Hall as Director and Honorary Secretary. The President will deliver his annual address at the anniversary meeting on February 17 next. The meetings of the Society are held at the Museum of Practical Geology, in Jermyn Street. The office of the Society is at 115 St. Martin's Lane, where Mr. Thomas Mason (the Librarian at St. Martin's Town Hall) acts as Librarian and Clerk to the Society. It is open to Americans to join the Society, and some are already fellows. Indeed, that popular Bostonian and well-known historical student, Mr. Benjamin Franklin Stevens, the Dispatch Agent, in London, for the Government of the U. S. A., is not only a fellow of the Society, but also a member of its council.

—Tributes to the late Grand Duchess of Saxe-Weimar continue to appear in the German journals. We have already referred to the admirable "In Memoriam" by Erich Schmidt which graces the last volume of the *Goethe Jahrbuch*. In the November number of the *Deutsche Rundschau* Bernhard Suphan publishes the full text of the testamentary provisions made by the deceased princess with regard to the newly erected Goethe-Schiller Archives at Weimar. We learn that the building with its contents is left to the young heir apparent, Wilhelm Ernst. It is to be held as an inalienable family trust by the head of the house, and administered in such a way that its treasures shall serve the purposes of literary scholarship and shall remain in Weimar, "to the end that the city, as befits its great past, may continue to be an intellectual centre of Germany." The last issue of the *Euphorion* opens with a brief eulogy, in which the winsome character of the late Grand Duchess and her wise zeal in the cause of German letters are fittingly honored in words that evidently came from the heart. The close of the article will bear quoting: "It is not for us," writes Prof. Sauer, "to speak here of what Sophie of Saxe-Weimar was to her own noble house, to her land, to the empire. Everywhere the word holds true of her: *Unermüdet schuf sie das Nützliche, Rechte.* We confine ourselves to the praise which alone it is ours to utter, that she has done more to promote the scientific study of German poetry than was ever done before by a single individual or a learned association." Still more weighty is the commemorative address delivered on the 8th of October by Kuno Fischer in the Sophienstift at Weimar. The orator for the occasion was chosen by joint action of representatives of the German Shakspere Society, the Weimar Goethe Society, the Court Theatre, the Schiller Foundation, and the Goethe-Schiller Archives. This address, which is an excellent specimen of German commemorative oratory, is published at length in the last number of *Cosmopolis*.

—After referring to the very general sorrow occasioned by the death of the Grand Duchess Sophie—always a more eloquent tribute to the dead than any art of speech can be—Fischer proceeds to a review of her life. She was born at The Hague in 1824, being the only daughter of William II. and Anna Pavlovna. Intense loyalty to her people, an active, energetic nature, a disposition to take very seriously the obligations imposed by her station, withal an eminently practical mind and a decided aversion to sentimentalism and claptrap—this was her inheritance from her great Orange ancestry. She first saw her future husband, Karl Alexander of Saxe-Weimar, in 1834. The marriage, which occurred eight years later, was a genuine romantic love-match. As Grand Duchess of Saxe-Weimar, the Dutch princess showed that she had a heart large enough to divide with safety between the land of her birth and that of her adoption. While the Dutch called her affectionately "our Sophie," she made the Germans love her as they have loved hardly any royalty of our time. Her great wealth enabled her to give with a free hand, but she gave wisely in such ways as to encourage coöperation, independence, and public spirit. Between her and the classical poets of Germany there was from the first a bond of sympathy, for Goethe and Schiller had both dealt well by William of Orange. She could thus enter heartily into the spirit of the Weimar tradition, although, as Fischer observes (perhaps with a wink of his mind's eye), she never cared much for æsthetic theorizing or trivial babble about the poets. In this connection it is interesting to note that a half century's daily contact never established a perfect relation with the German language. To the last the right expression came more easily in French. Her first important service to letters was in connection with the founding of the German Shakspere Society in 1863. This time the initiative was not hers, but from first to last the Society has owed her much. On receiving from Walther von Goethe, in 1885, the bequest of his grandfather's manuscripts, she at once saw the possible import of the legacy and set about making it fruitful in the largest way. It is characteristic that before calling in any learned helpers, she made a careful personal inspection of the chaos in the Goethe house and began to form her plans, which then grew and grew. "Il faut agir en parlant le moins possible," she wrote about this time. This was her way. She disliked fuss and noise, especially where she herself was concerned. While she lived, no one was permitted to eulogize her if she could help it, and dutiful expressions of gratitude pleased her best if put in simple language which seemed to take her goodness as a matter of course. She might have said with Uhland: "Ich liebe nicht das laute Lieben." But now that she is gone, her many beneficiaries evidently feel that there is no longer need of reticence. Such lives as that of Sophie of Saxe-Weimar help us to comprehend why the great mass of Germans are still so very loyal to the monarchical idea.

—The wood-engraved portrait of the late Prof. Child of Harvard, executed early in the present year by Gustav Kruell, proved that this artist's hand had not lost its cunning. In richness of color, indeed, it marked an advance on anything yet produced in that series of masterpieces so devoid of mannerism and of likeness one to another. Mr. Kruell has now returned to a subject, Abraham Lincoln, which he treated many years ago in what we then thought a final and incomparable type of portrait—the type which would fix the legend. He chose then a remarkable photograph of Lincoln on the eve of assuming the Presidency, modified by careful study of the lifemask and by his own divination of character. This was the smooth-faced man of destiny. He now shows us, on quite as large a scale (the block measures 8½ inches by 11) Lincoln on the eve of his assassination, with that unbecoming beard which conceals a strong feature of his physiognomy. The face looks to the left instead of to the right. This portrait is more consonant with the popular effigies of Lincoln than its predecessor, and is likely at least to divide the suffrages of those who purchase from sentiment. Connoisseurs in the art of engraving will also be divided, but will all agree in finding in the later portrait a technical freedom and ability, and a depth of color contrast, superior to what is manifested in the earlier. In fact, it is hard to believe that the material is wood at all. We recommend those who are interested either in the man or in the art to examine both these Lincolns at F. Keppel's, 20 East Sixteenth Street, together with the two Darwins, the Webster, Grant, Sherman, and the rest of this extraordinary gallery.

—The little country of Korea, with its area of less than 90,000 square miles, is no longer officially Cho-sen, or the Land of the Morning Calm. Nor is it a kingdom, for an imperial edict, issued on the 14th of October, changed the name of the country to Dai Han, or Great Han, and the King has become an Emperor with the title of Great Emperor of Great Han. His Imperial Majesty has informed the ancestral temples of the fact, and has altered the epitaph of the late murdered queen, using the phraseology applied to an empress. He has made the titles of Queen Dowager and of the five imperial princes to correspond with their new dignities. These will have regal honors and titles which cannot be well expressed in English. The coronation ceremony took place at the thoroughly Korean hour of three o'clock in the morning, on Tuesday, October 12, upon the Round Hill near Séoul, where is the altar to Heaven. This consists

of a circular platform, having three terraces made by granite embankments, the smallest being thirty-six and the lowest or largest one hundred and forty-four feet in diameter, each floored with rectangular tiles and the whole surrounded by a granite wall. On the day previous to the assumption of the imperial crown, an afternoon parade was made to the altar. The King rode in a yellow chair, richly gilded and borne upon the shoulders of fifty or more men. The escort consisted of several regiments of soldiers, hundreds of quaintly dressed men bearing flags, wooden hammers, gilded stirrups, silvered wooden swords, and a vast array of dignified and strutting officials. The gateways and awnings were of the yellow imperial hue, and the King was dressed in a yellow robe embroidered with sun, moon, and stars and various creatures in nature and mythology. On his head was a jewelled crown, or hat, in the fashion of the Ming dynasty. The city of Séoul was decorated with flags. Amid thousands of spectators the King moved out, spending two hours in inspecting the tables and sacrificial food. The next day, leaving the palace at two o'clock in the morning, the new Emperor moved to the upper platform, where the sacrificial tables were spread to the honor of Heaven, the Round Hill being brilliantly lighted with lanterns and torches. The King bowed reverently to Heaven, while the grand master of ceremonies read the prayer composed for the occasion, and setting forth that the title of Great Emperor of Great Han was assumed in accordance with the will of Heaven and man. Various animals were then offered in sacrifice. The procession returned about five o'clock in the morning. The formal congratulations of both foreign diplomatists and the native nobles and Government officers followed in due time.

WINTHROP'S WINTHROP.

A Memoir of Robert C. Winthrop. Prepared for the Massachusetts Historical Society by Robert C. Winthrop, jr. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1897.

To the readers of the Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society, the present Mr. Robert Charles Winthrop is chiefly known, we suspect, as a free lance of some brilliancy, who breaks the traditional repose of that learned body by occasional fearless forays. To such readers it will be a matter of surprise and pleasure to see with what self-control, courtesy, and even judicial fairness he has written the memoirs of his father. This attitude was perhaps aided by the fact that he was writing the book for his fellow-members of what the elder Winthrop used to call, with an invariable dignity that disarmed criticism, "The Society." Every such body of men comes in time to include old opponents who have mutually buried the hatchet, and it was impossible not to recognize that in this case the biographer of Winthrop had before him the biographer of Sumner. To be sure, in view of the fact that these two eminent antagonists died friends, it might seem easy enough for their mere annalists to harmonize as to the record, were it not that all experience proves it much easier to reconcile the commanders than the subordinates. The henchmen of Richard and Saladin still yearn to be cutting each other's heads off long after their respective chiefs have sat peacefully down by the same desert spring; or, to turn to a more modern instance, Mr. Parton is found fighting over the political battles of Adams and Jefferson long after those venerable men have died, so to speak, hand in hand. In the end, however, so thoroughly are mere political feuds forgotten, that the author of the book now before us testifies to having held interviews, immediately after his father's death, with three different newspaper reporters, one of whom wished to describe Mr. Winthrop as a past commander of the Grand Army of the Republic, another as the chosen co-worker of Charles Sumner, and the third as An Old Abolition War-Horse. "This," as the biographer justly remarks, "was cruellest of all" (p. 344).

The late Mr. Robert Charles Winthrop was perhaps the last survivor in New England of those statesmen who had this in common with the Southern Congressmen of their time, that they were, in Willis's phrase, "incapable of a short word or a mean action." This was accompanied, in the case of the Southerners, by a very well-defined purpose and a pugilistic disposition; but the absence of these elements in Mr. Winthrop rendered him a little inadequate to cope with the stern period in which he lived, and practically withdrew him at least from the career he loved. If it was any source of satisfaction to him that his opponents went down with him, he sometimes had it. Palfrey, a more determined man, caused the defeat of Winthrop for the Speakership of the House of Representatives, but the recoil of that bold achievement prevented the reëlection of Palfrey to the same body, and ended his public career as unequivocally as in the other case. Few of the "Conscience Whigs" whose revolt is recorded in this volume were personally much more fortunate. They were, of course, the first Mugwumps; they seemed as contemptible to all good party men as were the later Mugwumps to Senator Hoar or General B. F. Butler; yet the Conscience Whigs created the Free-Soil party which expanded into the Republican party, so that those earlier seceders gave the nation Lincoln as distinctly as their successors gave it Cleveland. Individually, as in the case of the later Mugwumps, they asked nothing for themselves; and, as a rule, they got what they asked for. At this day, Charles Allen and Stephen C. Phillips and Amasa Walker remain but the shadows of names; it was the Know-Nothings who sent Henry Wilson to the national Senate, and a coalition with the Democrats that sent Sumner.

The whole political situation at that period has been portrayed in history so laboriously, and on the whole so fairly, by the late Mr. Edward L. Pierce, in his Life of Sumner, that there was needed only a book like this, written in a similar spirit, to complete the picture and show us the other side. It shows us, that is, in the contests and perplexities of the amiable and well-meaning Winthrop, how difficult was the path of consistency for those whose aim it was to resist slavery within constitutional lines, and yet go no step further. On looking back, we can see that the only men who could act with a really free hand were the disunion abolitionists, who, having logically, at least, quitted the ship, were detached from all responsibility as to latitude and longitude. The difference between Winthrop and Horace Mann, for instance, was largely a difference of degree; the one would go so far, and the other a little further. Winthrop's once famous toast at the Faneuil Hall dinner (July 4, 1845)—called usually his "Our country, however bounded" toast, though not itself worded so tersely—appeared to the more determined anti-slavery men a crime; to the more moderate, a blunder — the alternative which Fouché thought the worst of the two. While time has not affected the question of the morality or unmorality of this act of Mr. Winthrop's, which, his biographer says, he regarded with satisfaction to the day of his death, the war showed that—North of Mason and Dixon's line—the Union sentiment, as well as the anti-slavery sentiment, had still a function to perform. It was the Union sentiment which carried the nation through the first stern period of the civil war, when not even Lincoln knew with clearness that emancipation was to be the end.

It is justly pointed out by the present biographer that Mr. Winthrop's uncertain health often made him unduly despondent in his views of public life. It was in moods of invalidism, especially, that he disapproved of Seward's "cheerful optimism" (p. 211); that he thought "the Sumner-Stevens faction . . . the most pestilent fellows in the land" (p. 267); or agreed with the Rev. Ephraim Peabody that Parker, Phillips, and Sumner taught the people to relish "nothing but the eloquence of abuse" (p. 185). It was in such a spirit that he gladly headed the Democratic electoral ticket in his own State for McClellan as President. This was not the act of a really timid man, for he knew well that the voice of his own community was against him, and he keenly felt this. To those who know the small circle which Harvard College represented in those days, it will seem no little thing when Mr. Winthrop, who had been President of the Alumni Association, was greeted with groans, for the first time in his life, on being called temporarily to the chair in 1865, by his successor, and when protests were made against his being asked to speak at the "commemoration" exercises where Lowell read his famous ode (p. 267). Mr. Winthrop had by this time changed his first unfavorable opinion of Lincoln—naturally maintaining that it was Lincoln himself who had experienced a change; but he was a strong supporter (p. 268) of the "stand against the extremists" made by President Johnson.

His political career confessedly ended in failure, yet few men pass from such failure into a later life so dignified and so useful. The moderation of temperament which had made it difficult for him to take a really controlling part, made it easy for him to maintain a most attractive habit of courtesy towards others, as when, after a severe attack upon him by George William Curtis, he wrote, in a letter (p. 258), "I don't think Curtis means to be unfair"; and when, after finding that Charles Sumner had apparently deceived him in claiming the endorsement of Buckingham, editor of the Boston *Courier*, for some statements which Buckingham had not even seen, Winthrop declined to make Buckingham's letter public, on the ground that it was probably a mere lapse of memory in Sumner (p. 56). It is to be remembered that, after Sumner's death, Whittier found no tribute to him so appreciative and satisfactory as that of Winthrop (p. 285).

It is to be remembered also that, at the Boston meeting to celebrate the fall of Richmond, Winthrop expressed only satisfaction at finding himself on the same platform with Frederick Douglass and other colored men, writing in his diary: "It was odd company for me, but I can rejoice at the success of the Union arms in any company" (p. 263). It is interesting, too, to see that the biographer, not to be outdone by his father, reports an instance where Douglass, having done in his autobiography great injustice to the elder Winthrop, and being furnished by the younger with proof that he had been mistaken, changed the whole passage in a later edition, substituting compliments. "I am particular to record this instance," writes the author of the work we are reviewing, "because I can recall no instance where any white assailant of Mr. Winthrop's behaved even half so handsomely when a mistake of fact was pointed out to him" (p. 310, note).

The younger Winthrop has certainly earned a title to such manly treatment as this, in view of the utter frankness with which he again and again—as on pp. 125, 133, 179, 199, 205, 259, etc.—goes out of his way to reprint forgotten assaults on his father, and this without note or comment, simply as a part of the background of his story. Since the famous "Refuge of Oppression" which used to be filled by Garrison with the portraits of his opponents as painted by themselves, we cannot recall a more fearless adoption of this policy. Throughout the book we fail to find those general and slashing assaults so naturally to be expected from a son upon his father's opponents. The nearest approach to this is the distaste implied in a note for "rampant and windy enthusiasts of both sexes" (p. 232)—a remark easily forgiven from the point of view even of the abolitionists of fifty years ago, whose constant effort was to keep that class of persons off their platform.

RECENT BIRD BOOKS.

Song Birds and Water Fowl. By H. E. Parkhurst. Illustrated by Louis Agassiz Fuertes. Scribners. 1897. 12mo, pp. viii, 286, pll. 18.

Bird Neighbors. By Neltje Blanchan. With Introduction by John Burroughs. New York: Doubleday & McClure Co. 1897. 4to, pp. xii, 234, pll. col'd 51.

How to Know the Shore Birds. By C. B. Cory. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1897. 4to, paper, pp. 89, unnumbered figs. in text.

How to Know the Ducks, Geese, and Swans. By C. B. Cory. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1897. 4to, paper, pp. 95, unnumbered figs. in text.

The Gallinaceous Game Birds of North America. By D. G. Elliot, F.R.S.E., etc. New York: Francis P. Harper. 1897. 8vo, pp. i-xviii, 19-220, pll. 46, and color chart.

Ornithologists who study the migration of birds know of something they call a "bird-wave," which happens at times when the migrants multiply to great excess in numbers both of species and of individuals. Something of the same sort seems to be upon us in the way of bird books, and we cannot be sure we are even yet on the crest of the wave, for there is no telling how much higher it may rise. However, we are more concerned about what to do with the deluge than with any question of *après nous*. Having repeatedly noticed books of this class within the year, five other candidates for recognition reach our desk almost simultaneously. These accessions have nothing to do with the holiday season; the extraordinary supply of such literature is due to a steady demand for popular and juvenile books which teach ornithology in an entertaining manner, "understanded of the people." No doubt such books breed their kind, by fostering the love of birds and stimulating the desire to know about them; but that does not fully explain the case. The market is not bulled; all these books sell well; the public wants them, and therefore they are. We lately referred to the phenomenal circulation of the periodical called *Birds*, with its showy, not to say gaudy, pictures; yet we doubt if its 50,000 subscribers are not overbalanced in numbers by the purchasers of such books as are on the above list, or have been lately reviewed in these columns. The publishers of 'Citizen Bird' advertised the fifth thousand within a month from date of issue last summer, and its sale is steady. Mrs. Wright's 'Birdcraft' is on the market in a new edition, embellished with over 100 full-page Fuertes plates, to replace the very poor pictures which we said would never do. Chapman's 'Bird Life' has glided quickly into its second edition, and we have seen advance sheets of a third, handsomely redressed with colored plates. Elliot's 'Shore Birds' has had like success, and we shall presently see that his above-named 'Game Birds' is on a career still more gratifying to author and publisher alike. When professional ornithologists and amateurs are trying their hands at the same business of mixing the useful with the sweet for the edification and entertainment of the public, there must be a reason for so marked a change from the times of old, when a bird book was a comparatively rare bird, something like a white crow or a black swan, to be viewed with great particularity.

We are inclined to explain the case by pointing first to the great growth of late of what may be termed the humanitarian side of ornithology—that, and the æsthetic aspects of the same subject. Audubon societies have sprung up all over the land for the sole purpose of protecting birds from wanton or useless destruction. This movement, mainly in the hands of one variety of the "new woman," has assumed the character of a crusade against the wearing of plumes for fashion's sake; and in this case sentiment, as usual, proves more potent than science. More than one author has actually presented birds in the light of fellow-citizens, with certain inalienable rights to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. Such kindly feeling is heightened, and at the same time self-interest is brought into action, by the careful study now conducted by Dr. Merriam and others of the economic side of ornithology, showing how useful and even necessary birds are as a class to man. Human interest in birds is enormously strengthened and vivified when we consider them as fellow-creatures, fellow-citizens, and fellow-workers. With this comes naturally the desire to know birds better—how to tell birds apart, and learn which is which—in short, to become something of an ornithologist. Some of our best-equipped scientists have set themselves to the task of satisfying this thirst for information, and had the wit to address themselves to children of whatever age, including the laity of any age, instead of composing technical tomes for the jealous criticism of their peers. The technicists, in fine, have been called down; one seldom hears now of what may be regarded as our standard scientific treatises, which give the public what ought to be wanted instead of what is wanted. Meanwhile, the people are getting what they evidently want.

Some of our readers will remember Mr. H. E. Parkhurst's 'Birds' Calendar,' which surprised us by showing how many species could be found in Central Park, and how easily they could be studied in the midst of a great city. His present 'Song Birds and Water Fowl' will be welcome to the many friends his former book made, especially if they like easy, pleasant discourse on bird-life in desultory rather than systematic fashion. The author has his subject at heart, if not also as well in hand as some might wish; he rambles from one thing to another, like the somewhat curiously linked title of his book, as the table of contents shows with such headings as, "A Bouquet of Song Birds," "A Bird's-Eye View," and "A Colony of Herons." The book belongs to the class of those with which Wilson Flagg, John Burroughs, and Bradford Torrey have made us agreeably familiar; challenging no stern criticism, and not to be taken too seriously, but rather by every man after his own humor. The illustrations are the finest that have ever been printed in this country in black and white, with exception of the series by the same artist in 'Citizen Bird.' They are so marked a feature that Mr. Fuertes's name should have appeared upon the title-page; instead of which he is nowhere mentioned in the book. The impressions are not so brilliant as those in the other book we have cited, in which case exceptional skill was shown in "making ready" for the press, to secure the best possible results in printing pictures with the text, though the full-page inserts must have been much easier to handle in the present case. Two of the best are the stormy petrel and the cliff swallow, but all sustain the reputation which the young artist has so suddenly acquired and so well deserved.

The author of 'Bird Neighbors' conceals by only half revealing herself on the title-page. We violate no confidence in writing her name in full as Mrs. N. B. De Graff Doubleday. Her book is introduced by Mr. Burroughs, who stands sponsor for it in his own name, and whom the author makes her "clear-visioned prophet," if not also patron saint, in her graceful acknowledgments for the plan upon which her work is arranged. To come at once to the point, it is a case of "how to know" the birds one sees alive, bearing the same relation to ornithology that Mrs. Starr Dana's 'How to Know the Wild Flowers' does to botany. We imagine that 'Bird Neighbors' will achieve a like success. Its aim is to make the identification of birds afield as easy and simple as possible to the uninitiated. We confess our prejudice against all sorts of short cuts to knowledge, believing them to be the longest way round to any considerable exact knowledge; and we admit, for form's sake, that the primary grouping of birds, which occupies much of the book, is radically at fault in "classifying" by the predominant colors which first strike the eye of the untrained observer. No one knows better than the author that the wrong con-

clusions which such first impressions convey must be corrected sooner or later. Yet we are in sympathy with every attempt to popularize the study of birds; and if the first question of interest or curiosity with thousands of persons, on seeing a bird, be "What bird is that?" and be readily answerable by a book which tells us about gray birds, blue birds, yellow birds, or red birds, so much the better for the book. But to dwell on this point would be far from doing full justice to a really very meritorious performance. Mrs. Doubleday does much more than merely kodak a bird, for she proceeds fully to develop her pictures of about 150 species commonly found in the gardens, meadows, and woods about our homes; all birds of prey, game birds, and water birds being excluded. The greater part of her work is thus formally descriptive, with correct Latin as well as English names of the orders, families, genera, and species. Thus the work opens with a list of the families, under their proper orders, from *Coccyges* to *Columbæ*, with diagnoses of each and mention of their respective representatives. We would impress upon the reader the necessity of mastering this matter *first* to prevent confusion of ideas. Sections follow upon the habitats and seasons of birds, and a rough grouping according to size; after which the 150 species are fully treated, under the curious color-groups the author has had the ingenuity to devise, with description and biography of thoroughly good character, under proper technical and common names. We cannot get used all at once to the extraordinary juxtapositions which the author's plan necessitates; but that may worry others less, and need not mislead any one who, having caught his bird on the fly, and got at its name, remembers that all the birds in the book are mixed up, yet that each one is fully and fairly described for him, when once he has found out which one it is. The quarto form of the book may prove detrimental unless one wishes to use the generous margins for pencilling notes; but it is required by the size of the illustrations, of which we have yet to speak.

There are fifty-one colored plates, all from among those which have been produced by the Nature Study Publishing Company of Chicago, and have appeared in the periodical *Birds*. The results of this process of "color photography," as it is called, are striking, not to say startling. Children go into ecstasy over these extraordinary pictures; we know a little girl, six years old, whose parents had to cut out one of them because it threw the child into hysterics on sight. Some of us have eyed them askance, for various reasons of our own not unconnected with our ideas of the flashiness of cheap chromos, though it is not exactly that. As to naturalness of coloring there is no question; we have the actual coloration of the bird, and often of its surroundings, more faithfully reproduced than is usual with chromo-lithography, or even with expensive paintings from nature. The shape and posture of the bird depend entirely upon the taxidermist's previous art, as stuffed birds are set up before the camera; some are much better representations of life than others. The peculiarities of the process do not always bring the whole bird into focus, and some details are apt to be blurred; the backgrounds all have this defect, which extends in some cases to the immediate accessories of the principal figure. Perhaps these difficulties will not prove insurmountable, and, in any event, the case calls for thoughtful consideration. We have had nothing just like these pictures before; of their immense popularity there is no question. The process is of course applicable to any natural objects, and seems likely to be very extensively employed in botany and zoölogy. It occurs to us to suggest that perhaps the result would be improved by doing away with the lurid, blurry backgrounds, thus leaving the main figure in clear outline against white paper, with the fewest possible immediate accessories, all in focus. This experiment would be worth trying. No quarter-section of country is needed to show off a bird, and no hazy landscape can be added with good effect.

The shore birds and waterfowl which Mrs. Doubleday omits are shown up in two books by Charles B. Cory. This is another case of "how to know" birds—a pass-key to the mysteries of the limicoline and anatine groups. Mr. Cory makes it very easy for any one to determine the species he may have in hand, and the groups treated are two of the three that appeal most to sportsmen. His method of artificial analysis is that introduced by Coues in 1872, itself borrowed from botanical text-books. Mr. Cory sorts out the contents of his full gamebag primarily by size, as indicated by the convenient measurement of the wing from the carpal joint—so many inches in length go to such a subdivision, and so on till the right bird is reached. After being let into the books with this key, we find all the species fully described in systematic order, with curt biographies; almost all are illustrated with telling figures of heads, feet, and other details, and there are a number of full-page plates. We hardly see how birds could be made known more easily, and commend both books to the gunning fraternity especially. On reflection, we do not wonder that Mr. Cory's numerous books on birds have hardly enjoyed that recognition, and consequently that full accomplishment of their purpose, which would have been theirs had a different method of publication been adopted. Mr. Cory is no tyro—quite the reverse; his seeming amateurishness is mainly due to the virtuosity of his methods of publication.

Mr. D. G. Elliot has been wiser in this matter than his and our friend Mr. Cory. Irrespective of their merits, his books would sell to some extent on the strength of his distinguished name as a veteran ornithologist—we think now the Nestor of the group of professionals; they would sell on their merits still better; but on neither of these counts would their sale have been anything like what it has proved to be had he not trusted to a good publisher. We lately reviewed his 'Shore Birds' with unqualified approval; it has already gone to a second large edition. This is now followed by a companion volume, the 'Gallinaceous Game Birds,' with such gratifying success that it went to its second edition within a month. Each of these works, in both editions, appears in two forms, one of which is luxurious with numbered autographic copies, and the plainer style is also a remarkably well made book. The contents, text and plates alike, are the same in both, the difference being in style and quality of paper, binding, and rubrication of the title. The work seems to be still more popular than 'Shore Birds,' probably for the reason that more persons are interested in *Gallinæ* than in *Limicolæ*. We presume Mr. Elliot will not refrain from completing a trilogy on the birds that appeal most strongly to sportsmen, by giving us a third volume, uniform with the other two, on the waterfowl.

We should protract our notice of this work, had we not already said so much of 'Shore Birds' which is equally applicable to the present case; the author has changed his subject, but not his masterly method of treatment. The work has its "key" movement—what one would now hope for success without a "key" to North American birds?—but that is relegated to an appendix, and the main body of the book is a formal, systematic treatise on our partridges or quail, grouse, ptarmigan, and turkeys. Excellently well-written popular biographies, followed by sufficient technical descriptions in all cases, are given of the species and sub-species, nearly fifty in number; and forty-six of them are figured on as many full-page plates by Mr. Edwin Sheppard, of the same character as those in 'Shore Birds.' This artist's well-known style has been fixed since 1874 or earlier, and any criticism we could offer would be too late; but we like the birds themselves better than we do the surroundings in which Mr. Sheppard insists upon setting his figures. A notable new feature of 'Game Birds' is an ingeniously contrived color chart, with Newman's nomenclature, perhaps not yet so well known to ornithologists as Ridgway's, but on the whole more satisfactory, as we can depend upon identity of the various tones and tints. In his technical nomenclature and classification Mr. Elliot follows the A. O. U. Code when it suits him to do so, but not blindly, reserving his right of private judgment. There is nothing safer or better in any way for the tyro or amateur to follow, but we advise each one to do as Mr. Elliot does, as soon as he reaches a degree of proficiency in ornithology which entitles him to have opinions of his own.

Tuscan Songs. Collected, Translated, and Illustrated by Francesca Alexander. 108 photogravures from the original designs. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1897. Small folio.

In reproducing Miss Alexander's designs in their original size, the publishers have made a noteworthy contribution to the small number of American specimens of first-rate book-making, and, what is more, they have perpetuated a unique and in some respects precious work. Of the artistic merits of Miss Alexander's drawings we took occasion to speak some time ago, apropos of an inferior and reduced American copy; we shall, therefore, confine ourselves here to a brief reference to the work as a whole. We have called it unique, and that it surely is, for a mediæval missal, with its illuminated text and music and pictures of sacred scenes, does not more faithfully represent the spirit of worship in a bygone age than do these songs and pictures and exquisite flowers represent the spirit of the lowly in modern Tuscany. But instead of the jewel-clear colors of the illuminator, Miss Alexander uses pen and ink. Her collection of songs, taken down mostly from the lips of *contadini*, embraces the full circle of humble experience, the joys and sorrows of peasant life, its simple passions, its homely wisdom, its humor, its religion so largely interwoven

with legends, and even its monotony. These are, moreover, real songs, transmitted from generation to generation of men and women who had no books, songs that enlivened the work of the husbandmen in the field or of women at the distaff; songs that lightened the burden of bereavement; lullabies that mothers crooned to children in the cradle. In this respect they have rare value. Miss Alexander's translations faithfully reproduce their simplicity, but it could not be expected that any translator could bring over into English all the haunting melodies and the racy flavor of phrase in the Italian. The nameless balladists who invented many of these pieces had that innate artistic sense which belongs to the Tuscan people, and they sometimes attained a metrical perfection which our English verse-makers, learned in all the laws and artifices of metre, strive for in vain. Merely to preserve the spirit of these originals is a high achievement—the highest, probably, that we could expect; and this Miss Alexander has done. Take, for example, this stanza from the ballad of the Gipsy Woman, who welcomes the Holy Family to her humble home on their flight into Egypt:

> "My house, 'tis true, is poor and small,
> But I have swept and cleaned it all;
> There's fruit a plenty, ripe and fine;
> I've bread fresh baked and good new wine;
> Besides two hens, that always lay
> An egg, my lady, every day."

Here the charming naïveté of the rustic spirit is admirably rendered.

In like manner Miss Alexander has chosen for her pictures subjects which vividly illustrate the spirit of the songs. She shows us bits of Tuscan scenery or of village life, and real peasants, together with religious scenes, which fill so large a part of the Tuscan imagination. And not least characteristic are the flowers with which she has adorned the margins of the text. So that the whole is like a veritable piece of Tuscan life, perennially enchanting to any one who has known it, and delightful to every one sensitive to beauty. It was indeed fortunate that a person so sympathetic as Miss Alexander should have made this record when she did, for already the Tuscan peasants she knew have passed away. Democracy, the conscription, railways, and public schools have wrought in twenty-five years a metamorphosis greater than many a previous century had witnessed. The old customs, the picturesque dress, can now be found, if at all, only in some remote vale or crag-built hamlet. The mingled shrewdness and unsophistication of the peasantry will never again be embodied in such songs as these. The book which holds them is, therefore, a memorial.

We ought not, in conclusion, to fail to commend the excellence of the printing and make-up of this volume. The photogravures are uniformly so carefully finished as to reproduce the delicacy of lights and shades which are characteristic of Miss Alexander's treatment. If here and there a line seems faint, the cause may be due to the fading of the originals. The binding is at once elegant and simple.

English Lands, Letters, and Kings. From the Later Georges to Victoria. By Donald G. Mitchell. Scribners. 1897.

The jaded reader of manuals need not shrink from the fourth volume of Mr. Mitchell's unpretentious review of English literary history. It is free from the things that make most literary histories impossible except to those who must have their dram of reading matter; it is not schematic, nor oppressive with judicial responsibility. It is impressionistic in method, kindly in style. Criticism with Mr. Mitchell means epigram; and Arnold was of the notion that English criticism has no overplus of neat sayings. We are in a situation to be thankful for Mr. Mitchell's compression and variety and lightness of critical phrase. He may lack the grasp of Lowell, but his metaphors have much of Lowell's suggestiveness. We can overlook the fact that jerkiness has seeded into a mannerism with Mr. Mitchell. His criticism is readable, and it can be remembered.

No one will examine into these genial volumes for philosophical interpretation of periods. Nevertheless, the Taines and the Saintsburys and the Stopford Brookes needed to be supplemented by just such volumes. The chief pleasure that here awaits the general reader and the young student alike is the author's gift for distilling the very quintessence of biography. A quick survey of English writers as human beings is at least equally profitable with a view of them as exponents of French rules. That Southey had to take care of Coleridge's children is not a bad thing for a boy to know when he reads the 'Nelson' and "Kubla Khan." Lockhart's worship of rank, so manifest in all his writing, is sadly illuminated by the picture of Lockhart, a broken old man, grieving for a worthless son. A freshman's adoration for the genius of Moore will be profitably tempered by the thought of Tom neglecting his fireside for the drawing-rooms of the great, and responding with alacrity to shoulder-taps from great dowagers begging for one more song. Byron and Shelley are set honestly before the reader with something of the glamour of Missolonghi and Spezia, and something of the shame of Venice and Sécheron.

In short, we shall presently find ourselves on the point of recommending the volume as "one no school library should be without." Indeed, it contains sentences of pedagogic advice: "Macaulay is the wrong man to copy; his exaltations make an unsafe model. . . . Smallish men should beware how they copy methods which want fulness of power and the besom of enthusiasm to fill out [!] their compass." Speaking of Macaulay reminds us that Mr. Mitchell's descriptions of Macaulay, Brougham, Lady Blessington, and G. P. R. James were made from personal glimpses of these famous figures.

Relics of Primeval Life: Beginning of Life in the Dawn of Geological Time. By Sir J. William Dawson, LL.D., F.R.S., etc. F. H. Revell Co. 1897. 8vo, pp. xviii, 336, with 65 illustrations.

The researches of Dawson and Logan into the geology of the Precambrian rocks of Canada, the discovery of the problematical Eozoon, and the long-continued controversy over the question of its organic nature, form a classical chapter in geological literature. The author of the present volume was associated with the original discovery and description of this supposed earliest trace of organic life on the globe, and has since devoted much time to researches upon it, which have been made public in the form of scientific papers treating both of Eozoon and of the later discoveries which have tended to bridge the gap between the Laurentian fossil and its oldest known successors. In 1875 he endeavored to sum up in popular form what was then known, in a little volume entitled 'The Dawn of Life,' which has long been out of print. In 1893, in his 'Salient Points in the Science of the Earth,' a chapter was partly devoted to the same topic. In 1895 he delivered a course of lectures before the Lowell Institute at Boston, which was received with much interest; and the substance of these lectures is now incorporated in the volume before us, in the hope that inquiries into the Dawn of Life will prove as interesting for the general reader as hitherto for the special student, and that their presentation in this form may stimulate further investigation.

Beginning with a chapter devoted to tracing back the chain of life in geological time, a second follows with an account of life in the early Cambrian, long supposed to contain the very first traces of organisms in the geological column. Leaving behind him in this descent all the higher forms of life with which we are familiar, there still remain to the student examples of seaweeds, protozoa, zoophytes, and echinoderms of a very simple type; worms, mollusks, and crustacea, the latter group dominating; in all, more than two hundred different species are known, and the evidence is conclusive that individuals were often extremely abundant. A small chip of Cambrian limestone has afforded portions of the remains of at least fifty different animals, and when the limited area and greatly altered character of the fossiliferous Cambrian are taken into account, we cannot doubt that it was an era of abundant life in all suitable localities. The crustacea afford representatives of several well-differentiated great groups: there are both univalve and bivalve mollusks; in short, the evidence is complete that the fauna represents, not the dawn of life, but a period when the primeval organisms had already become widely differentiated. It is therefore to the Precambrian rocks that one must turn to continue the search for the earliest types of animals.

These formations are among those least known to geologists; the disturbances and alterations which they have undergone make their relative ages and arrangement most difficult to unravel, though the rocks are of great thickness and distributed over large areas. In certain beds supposed by Dawson to be Precambrian and older than the lower Cambrian "Olenellus zone," are found a few remains referred to algæ, protozoa, extremely primitive brachiopoda, and a few primitive crustaceans; the great group of trilobites being absent or represented by only a few doubtful fragments. Trails supposed to be those of worms or swimming invertebrates, fragments supposed to belong to cystidean echinoderms, and a very few minute shellfish complete the census. Below these rocks and others, of which the age is still in controversy, we finally arrive at the Laurentian system of Logan, which, with the Huronian, constitutes the great Archæan group of Dana. In its lower part this consists entirely of the stratified crystalline rock known as gneiss, more or less interbedded with dark-colored schists. This may be a part of the first-formed crust of the globe, produced under conditions incompatible with the existence of life. The upper part of the Laurentian system, known

in Canada as the Grenville series, shows evidence of ordinary marine deposition in quiet waters, and, though the beds have been greatly changed by heat and pressure, they still indicate a time of comparative quiescence intervening between the lower Laurentian and the succeeding Huronian.

This series contains (besides rocks which may have been volcanic) altered sandstones or shales, thick beds of limestone, carbonaceous strata now reduced to graphite, and large beds of iron ore. Such beds, in all succeeding formations, were produced under water, and by the accumulation of remains of plants and animals in strictly sedimentary layers. Here are found those laminated bodies which, as early as 1858, were suspected by Logan to be of organic origin, and were afterward described under the name of Eozoon. For a full account of their characters the reader must be referred to the work itself, and, whatever doubts may still be entertained, it is evident that there is a reasonable presumption in favor of the view that they represent the greatly altered fossil remains of protozoic animal life. To this point the remainder of Sir William Dawson's book is mainly directed, and it is discussed from all points of view. The general reader may derive from the information presented and the numerous illustrations a fair idea of the present status of the question, for the final settlement of which we must await further discoveries.

Essays in Liberalism. By Six Oxford Men. Cassell & Co. 1897.

If Bacon is right, the best way to find out what is going to happen in the next fifty years is to make a study of the opinions of the rising generation. This book is worth examination because it is published as a manifesto by representatives of those who are to come after us. Of the six essays it contains, one is written by a student of Christ Church, and the rest by "late scholars" of other Oxford colleges. The preface states that the writers of the essays were "drawn together" in the "political debates and the contested elections of the Oxford Union Society," and they make the interesting statement that while, six years ago, undergraduate Oxford tended to be Tory or Socialist, "since that time we have seen an extraordinarily strong Liberal movement absorb, with one or two remarkable exceptions, most of those who care for political discussions or debates."

The fact thus stated is really very significant. The reader will find that a great deal of this book is occupied with an attempt, and on the whole a very successful attempt, to show why real Liberalism can never be socialistic. On the other side (its criticism of Toryism), it is mainly old. These six young men have nothing novel to tell us about the land laws, or the House of Lords, or home rule, or privilege in general that we could not get out of the newspapers or speeches of members of Parliament. But when they distinguish between the doctrines of individualism and liberty and those of the collectivists and "new" economists and Bellamyites, we feel that we are making a step in advance. The essays on "Liberalism and Wealth," by F. W. Hirst, and on "Liberals and Labor," by J. Alsebrook Simon, are especially interesting. They are unmistakably the essays of young men, but we confess to liking them none the worse for that. Some of the points made are epigrammatic enough to be memorable, as when Mr. Hirst, contrasting the old Protectionist with the new Fair Trader, says: "They, therefore, only sinned against reason; their followers sin also against experience." The whole essay is very clever. "The organic unity of the state is one of those pretentious metaphors transferred from biology to politics which suggest one kind of unity by another and totally different kind," is a bit of criticism as neatly put as it is true. Mr. Hirst very amusingly says, speaking of the socialistic reformers who busy themselves with what they call the social problem, that "a hold on economic and political science, with a wide experience of different classes," is by them regarded "as a positive obstacle for 'The Work.' "

The authors, when they are older, may be surprised to find that they themselves have given proof in part of what they have written of the difficulty of escaping from the yoke of phrases. They are more or less victimized by the phrase "Liberal," and spend altogether too much time in attempting to explain what the real Liberal tradition means, as if in the various questions they discuss there was some hard-and-fast visible line between Liberalism and its opposite, which of course Tory advocates define as Conservatism. The fact is, that it is as impossible to define Liberalism as it is to define rationality. It is an attitude of mind, and their inquiry into the real nature of the Liberal tradition is nothing more nor less than an historical investigation into the history of a political party. The lapse in their reasoning is when they infer that they can extract from the past the conditions under which the desire for individual liberty and progress will cause men of a liberal tendency to unite in the future. The dead past will bury its dead, and the Liberal of the future will necessarily be confronted by new conditions. What we may be sure of is, that the forces which have produced what we call liberal ideas are inextinguishable, and a better proof we could not have than such a book coming from a university which, six years ago, was thought to be either Tory or Socialist in its tendencies.

History of Early Christian Literature in the first Three Centuries. By Dr. Gustav Krüger, Professor of Theology at Giessen. Translated by the Rev. Charles R. Gillett, A.M., Librarian of the Union Theological Seminary in New York. With corrections and additions by the Author. The Macmillan Co. 1897.

The long-felt want of a manual of Patristics is here in good degree met. To be sure, the two hundred and fifty pages, or so, of the original have become four hundred in the translation; but the translator has improved the book, both by enlarging and consolidating the indexes, and by adding to the list of recent authorities cited. Prof. Krüger's own contributions, we are told, have been so important as to entitle the present work to be regarded as a second edition of the 'Geschichte'; but where he is responsible for the additions, and where the credit is due to the translator, a reader is given no means of ascertaining. The acquaintance shown with English publications is so exceptional in a German that one is disposed to believe him largely indebted for it to the accomplished librarian of Union Seminary. But then the wonder is that we miss, occasionally, noteworthy information especially important for the English reader. No mention, for instance, appears to be made of Sanday on Marcion, Lightfoot on the Epistle to the Laodiceans, Watson on Cyprian, Houghton's enlarged translation of Reuss's 'Geschichte.' And one or two surprising lapses must, we fear, be scored to the account of the editor. On p. 196, in the list of translators of Origen against Celsus, the name of Christopher Persona, the Roman monk of the fifteenth century, who was superintendent of the Vatican Library and famed for his knowledge of Greek, is transformed into a treatise on the *person of Christ;* and on p. 225, a remark is added about the Ammonian sections which a glance at Gregory, Burgon, or even Scrivener, would have suppressed. These blemishes, however, do not substantially abate the value of the manual for students of early Christian literature, and as a book of reference also for the general reader.

Dr. Krüger is undoubtedly right in defending the inclusion of the Canonical writings in his account of early Christian literature. That these writings have historic connections, and stand in organic relation to literary productions, both extant and lost, is a pregnant truth of which the average clerical mind remains in sublime ignorance. The only question that can be fairly raised is, whether the author's opinions about the date and character of the New Testament writings are not over-positive. To assert that "the text of the first three Gospels can hardly have received its present shape before the second half of the second century," and that John and Paul "created a Christ of their own," can hardly fail to call out dissent in other scholarly quarters.

Before another edition of the book is issued, the section-numerals should be restored to their place in the headlines of the pages. Their removal subjects the reader to serious inconvenience.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Albalat, Antoine. Marie—Premier Amour. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Barton, George. Angels of the Battlefield: A History of the Labors of the Catholic Sisterhoods in the Civil War. Philadelphia: Catholic Art Publishing Co.
Bicknell, Anna L. The Story of Marie-Antoinette. Century Co.
Bikélas, D. Nouvelles Grecques. Paris: Firmin-Didot.
Book of Old English Love-Songs. Macmillan. $2.
Bryce, James. Impressions of South Africa. Century Co. $3.50.
Cook, Prof. A. S. Tennyson's Princess. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Fletcher, W. I., and Poole, F. O. Poole's Index to Periodical Literature. Third Supplement, from January 1, 1892, to December 31, 1896. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $10.
Foster, R. F. Chess: A Manual for Beginners. Brentanos. 50c.
Fox, John, Jr. The Kentuckians. Harpers. $1.25.
Gibson, Rev. Isaac. Reasons for the Higher Criticism of the Hexateuch. Philadelphia: G. W. Jacobs & Co. 50c.
Griffith, William. Trialogues. Kansas City: Hudson-Kimberly Publishing Co.
Grisebach, Eduard. Schopenhauer's Gespräche und Selbstgespräche. Berlin: E. Hofmann & Co.; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Historic New York: Being the First Series of the Half-Moon Papers. Putnams. $2.50.
Hobbes, J. O. The School for Saints. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Holmes, Margaret. Jasper Fairfax. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.
Humors of Cycling. London: James Bowdoin; New York: M. F. Mansfield, $1.
Jacobs, Joseph. The Comedies of Oliver Goldsmith. Illustrated. London: George Allen; New York: F. A. Stokes Co. $2.
Jones, Chloe B. The Lovers' Shakspere. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Johnson, R. U. Songs of Liberty, and Other Poems. Century Co. $1.
Kenyon, F. G. The Letters of Elizabeth Barrett Browning. 2 vols. Macmillan. $4.
Knowles, F. L. The Golden Treasury of American Songs and Lyrics. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.25.
Langlois, Ch.-V., and Seignobos, Ch. Introduction aux Etudes Historiques. Paris: Hachette.
Latimer, Elizabeth W. Spain in the Nineteenth Century. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

Laveleye, Emile de. Essais et Etudes. Troisième Série. Paris: Félix Alcan.
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Rearden, T. H. Petrarch, and Other Essays. San Francisco: William Doxey. $1.50.
Riley, J. W. Rubáiyát of Doc Sifers. Century Co. $1.50.
Saintsbury, Prof. George. A Short History of French Literature. 5th ed., revised. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Schaff, Prof. D. S. The Life of Philip Schaff. In Part. Autobiographical. Scribners. $3.
Schofield, Lieut.-Gen. J. M. Forty-six Years in the Army. Century Co.
Scidmore, Eliza Ruhamah. Java, the Garden of the East. Century Co. $1.50.
Scott, Hon. Mrs. Maxwell. The Making of Abbotsford, and Incidents in Scottish History. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Strong, Prof. A. H. The Great Poets and their Theology. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. $2.50.
The Earth Breath, and Other Poems. John Lane. $1.25.
The Land of Sunshine. Vol. VII. Los Angeles: Land of Sunshine Co.
The Spectator. Vols. II. and III. Scribners. $3.
Townsend, Virginia F. Dorothy Draycott's To-Morrows. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Whitman, Sidney. The Realm of the Habsburgs. American Publishers' Corporation. $1.25.
Winsor, Justin. The Westward Movement: The Colonies and the Republic, 1763-1798. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.
Wundt, Prof. Wilhelm. Ethical Systems. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 9, 1897.

The Week.

Civil-service reformers must be perfectly satisfied with the President's reference to their cause in his message. He points out that during the few months since his inauguration "the civil service has been placed upon a still firmer basis of business methods and personal merit," through careful guarding against dismissals for merely political reasons, and improvements in the methods of examination for admittance, while "a distinct advance has been made by giving a hearing before dismissal upon all cases where incompetency is charged or demand made for the removal of officials in any of the departments." Mr. McKinley suggests that some changes in the system need still to be made, and says that there are places in the classified service which ought to be exempted, but he immediately adds that "others not classified may properly be included." He announces that he will not hesitate to exempt cases which he thinks have been improperly included in the classified service, or include those which in his judgment will best promote the public service, and concludes: "The system has the approval of the people, and it will be my endeavor to uphold and extend it." This will be a sad disappointment to the Gallingers in the Senate and the Grosvenors in the House, who have been threatening to overthrow the reform. With the President of their party thus committed to its protection and extension, the spoilsmen must see that their scheme is absolutely hopeless.

One of the most noteworthy things about the President's message is a thing which is not in it. The long document contains no allusion whatever to the subject of pensions. This omission would attract remark in the case of any President. It becomes the more striking when one recalls that Mr. McKinley was himself a soldier in the Union army, and has always been a strong advocate of a generous policy regarding pensions. It is rendered still more important by the fact that, in his message to Congress at the opening of the extra session last March, the President urged that "ample revenues must be supplied, not only for the ordinary expenses of the government, but for the prompt payment of liberal pensions," etc. It is a great change from such an attitude in March to the entire ignoring of the whole pension question in December, especially when the failure to recommend a liberal policy now is accompanied by a protest against an increase of the expenses of the government, and a suggestion that "these expenses will, in my judgment, admit of a decrease in many branches of the government without injury to the public service."

Secretary Gage's plan of currency reform, as announced in his report, so far as it relates to banks and banking, endorses the principle of banknotes issued against general banking assets, instead of bonds deposited by the banks in the public treasury. He would restrict such issues, however, to one-fourth of the bank's capital, and would require that the bank should have previously taken out circulation secured in the present mode to the amount of one-half of its capital. Thus, if a bank with $100,000 capital shall have deposited $50,000 of bonds and taken out the same amount of notes, he would allow it to issue $25,000 of notes in addition upon condition of paying a tax of 2 per cent. per annum to be held in the Treasury as a safety fund to reimburse the Government, which, under the plan, is to guarantee the redemption of the notes. The Government is to have also a first lien on the assets and on the shareholders' liability as a further security. Permission to issue notes up to the par value of the deposited bonds (instead of 90 per cent.) is included in the plan, and the annual tax on secured circulation is to be reduced to one-half of 1 per cent. This is a modification of the so-called Baltimore plan, which proposes to allow banks to issue circulating notes to the extent of 50 per cent. of their capital against their general assets, on condition of their contributing a common safety fund equal to 5 per cent. of all outstanding notes, said safety fund to be applicable to the redemption of the notes of failed banks. The Baltimore plan is in its main features the same as the present Canadian system, which is itself the New York safety-fund system of 1829 with some changes and betterments, and is not surpassed by any other in the world for security, flexibility, and the general satisfaction it gives to all classes of business, agricultural, mercantile, and manufacturing.

The revenue last month, as the Treasury bulletin points out, ran short of expenditures by $8,092,483. But the sale of the Government's claim in the Union Pacific property brought a first payment from the syndicate, a fortnight ago, of $13,645,250, and this amount is cheerfully lumped in with miscellaneous revenue. It is clear that the revenue from customs under the Dingley bill is not going to be large enough to pay the appropriation for pensions alone. That is to say, all the sound and fury of the extra session, all the moving Heaven and earth to pass a tariff, all the suspense and disturbance which afflicted the business world—all this resulted in a law which will not produce enough to foot the annual pension bill alone. The remaining expenses of the government must be paid from direct taxes or by borrowing. The truth is, that the customs revenue is playing a smaller and smaller part in the nation's income. It is the internal revenue, and other forms of direct taxation, that we have to depend upon more and more. There was a gain of about $8,000,000 in the revenue from those sources in the first five months of the fiscal year. This was due to some slight increase of certain taxes and to expanding business. But the tariff, about which all the outcry was made, which was the one thing that was going to put us in funds—that, after all the changes and the long wrestling, is bringing in less revenue than ever. This is only a fulfilment of the prophecies of Secretary Carlisle and of Senator Aldrich. But the wise Dingley, the infallible Reed, the sympathetic McKinley, knew better, and are now confronting the actual figures like so many dumb dogs.

Even Mr. Dingley has at last heard of the Dingley Deficit. In what he has to say of it, he makes all "lightning calculators" look small. In the first place, there really isn't any deficit. If you only let Mr. Dingley annex some $32,000,000 of revenue received in the last months of the Wilson bill, and add in $51,000,000 more which would have been paid if the importations had been made "in the normal way" under his bill, you have at once, in place of a deficit of $46,000,000, as alleged by "the enemies of the bill" (and by the Treasury figures, too) a real surplus of $37,000,000. This paper surplus, however, Mr. Dingley admits is not available for appropriations, and so he takes to glowing prophecy about the way the receipts are going to climb by the million from now on. But at the end Mr. Dingley practically confesses that new taxes will have to be found, and talks about its being "simplicity itself" to put "another dollar upon beer." Congress did not find it so last spring; but then, it had about as much "simplicity itself" as it could stand in one session, in the person of the chairman of the ways and means committee.

A protest against the appointment of Attorney-General McKenna to the Supreme Bench has been sent to President McKinley from Portland, Oregon, signed by Judge Gilbert of the United States Circuit Court of Apeals, Judge Bellin-

ger of the United States District Court, by sundry State judges, and members of the Oregon bar. The ground of their opposition is not any specific act of Mr. McKenna, but what they conceive to be a lack of qualifications in general. Their contention is that a seat on the Supreme Bench "ought to be held only by one who in learning, intellectual ability, and determined character has shown himself to be among the few most eminent of the legal profession, and capable of executing the great trust placed upon him, and of maintaining the character for ability and independence which has made the Supreme Court of the United States one of the first, if not the very first, of the tribunals of the world." They hold that the common reputation of any man among his professional brethren is a just and sure guide to his worth; that leadership at the bar is always won by those who deserve it; that it ought always to be the prerequisite to appointment to the Supreme Court, and that it has not been won by Mr. McKenna, who, they say, "is not, either by natural gifts, acquired learning, or decision of character, qualified for any judicial place of importance, much less for the highest place in the land." Such a protest is quite unusual. It is very seldom that lawyers will expose themselves to the enmity of one who is likely to sit in judgment over them. It requires either rare courage or extreme personal resentment to account for such a movement among Mr. McKenna's professional brethren. The force of the protest depends altogether on the names of the signers, and as these are not known to us, we shall not undertake to estimate their gravity. We may remark, however, that the opinion rendered by Mr. McKenna in the interpretation of the clause of the Dingley bill which "slipped in," and which was intended to cause the Canadian Pacific Railway to "slip out" as a competitor of our own transcontinental roads, goes far to justify the signers of the protest, for if there should be much of that kind of writing in our Supreme Court reports, American jurisprudence would be in a sorry muddle.

"McKinley prosperity" has not reached the cotton-growers, and those Southern farmers who depend upon the staple exclusively are as badly off as ever, with no prospect of improvement. There is a renewal of the old attempt to secure higher prices for the crop by diminishing the acreage devoted to it, but this scheme has always failed in the past and seems no more likely to succeed in the future. The great trouble is that, while every planter thinks that it would be an excellent idea to raise less cotton and get more money for what is grown, there is a universal feeling that the other planters ought to reduce the acreage, while he has his usual crop and pockets a larger sum. The President of the American Cotton-Growers' Protective Association has called a convention at Memphis, December 20, to consider "the best procedure to meet and confront the industrial conditions that now confront us," and we observe that county conventions for the same purpose are being held in South Carolina. The aid of the Southern press is invoked, but the general feeling among the editors seems to be that nothing can be accomplished towards regulating the price of cotton by organized action on the part of the farmers. One reform, however, is within the grasp of the planter —that is, to produce on his farm what he consumes, instead of paying high prices to bring it from distant parts of the country; and the current discussion promises to strengthen a growing sentiment in favor of the general adoption of this rule.

The municipal election just held in Augusta, Ga., is of national interest for the light which it throws on political methods in the South. Augusta is a city of about 33,000 people, divided between the two races in the proportion of fifty-two whites to forty-eight blacks. Whites and blacks registered generally this year, and in about the same ratio as that of population. The whites were divided between three candidates, and it was early seen that the decision rested with the blacks. The only argument used with the blacks was bribery. Negro votes were bought, right and left; bought without any attempt at concealment. Each faction gathered its black supporters the night before the election, herded them in bull pens, wagon yards, and large halls, furnished them with all they wanted to eat and drink, marched them early to the polls, "voted them," and nonchalantly paid for their votes. The faction which had nominated ex-Senator Patrick Walsh won by a plurality of 800 over his closest rival. This victory was largely due to two points of tactics in which they outwitted the other factions. In the first place, the Walsh men led their black hosts to the polls at two o'clock in the morning, camped there, and would not let anybody else approach until they had "voted their men." In the second place, they paid their men in crisp new five-dollar greenbacks, just secured from Washington, while the others had nothing but the old, dirty, ragged paper money, which even the oldest, dirtiest, and raggedest negro despised in comparison with the fresh, new money.

Southern newspapers are commenting upon the indifference with which the Northern Republican press treats the project, now mooted in Louisiana, of practically disfranchising the great majority of the negroes by educational or property tests, after the example set by Mississippi and South Carolina. There is certainly a great difference between the present attitude of this press towards such a proposition and the sentiment manifested when the idea was broached in the constitutional convention of Mississippi seven years ago. There are various other reasons for the change, but one which comes home to most editors just now grows out of the scheme to annex Hawaii. This scheme is based upon the principle that the native Hawaiians, who are admitted to be overwhelmingly opposed to annexation, have no claim whatever to be heard in the matter, because, as the Rev. Dr. S. E. Bishop, son of a missionary and himself a missionary pastor, puts it, the Hawaiian "can no more rule than a child," and "in kindness he cannot be left to assert a right to control the vast public interests here." Every candid person admits that the native Hawaiian has as much claim to vote as the Louisiana negro. New England now confesses that the Hawaiian's claim to a share in the government under which he lives amounts to nothing. Even New England sees the absurdity of arguing that the whites have a right to suppress the suffrage of a lower race in Hawaii and have not the same right in Mississippi.

Much has been said by the press of late in favor of publishing the pension lists as a means of "spotting" men who are drawing money from the Government, to which they have no just claim. The theory is that there must be a good many cases of fraud, and that publicity of this sort would be the surest way of bringing them to light and putting an end to the abuse. This certainly seems a reasonable view to take, and probably nine people out of ten would say that the proposed scheme must operate in this way. But the Poughkeepsie *Eagle* has distinct recollections of a previous experiment along these lines that worked very differently. When the lists were printed, "severe comments were made on some of the names," but that was all. No complaints went to the Pension Office, because "no one cared to go back on a neighbor or to be the cause of bad blood in the neighborhood." Nor was this the worst of it. So far from getting unworthy names off the list, "many an old veteran, seeing names on the list of people as well off physically as himself, remarked to himself that if so-and-so received a pension, he was as well entitled, and forthwith made application." Moreover, the printed lists gave the pension agents a host of names to work for increases of pensions, so that the Government was out a large sum by the publication. The only conclusion seems to be that reform of the pension system is impossible.

Some extremely interesting information upon the character of Platt law-making is afforded in the letter of a Binghamton correspondent of the *Evening Post*. It confirms the view of the Raines ballot-law amendments which we expressed during the late campaign, namely, that they had been constructed for the purpose of making independent nominations so difficult as to be virtually impossible. So far as this city was concerned, Platt's requirement of 500 signatures for an Assembly nomination by petition, instead of being a blessing to him became a curse, for it led to the creation in nearly every district of the city of an anti-Platt organization, 500 strong, and to the nomination of so many anti-Platt candidates as to defeat all his Assembly nominees. In the country districts, as the correspondent points out, the excessive requirements for independent nominations fixed by Raines for Platt are, in many instances, in excess of the actual voting population, and hence prohibitory. They were known to be such at the time of their enactment, and Gov. Morton was requested to withhold his approval on that ground, but he declined to do so. Nobody will be surprised to learn that Platt and Raines are enemies of independent voting, and not real friends of ballot reform. The fact that they have succeeded in hampering the people in their use of the nomination by petition does not detract from that method of nomination as the most powerful weapon with which to fight the machine primary. It merely shows that the machine itself recognizes the method as an enemy which must be incapacitated if possible.

The arrogance of English labor leaders is evidently making the Government nervous. After all the negotiations, the great engineers' strike seems no nearer settlement. The employers have apparently decided to fight through to the end the question of their right to manage their own business; they are losing vast sums by the strike, but they would ultimately lose everything if they submitted to trades-union dictation in every detail of hours and wages and number of apprentices. This ominous moment has been chosen by the railway unions to threaten a strike of their own, and they confidently appealed to the President of the Board of Trade for sympathy. But Mr. Ritchie wrote them a severe letter, telling them that their position was unjustifiable, and reminding them that they were "a specially privileged body." Precisely; that is just what they thought they were. Hence their intolerable demands. How could they be blamed for thinking themselves a specially privileged body after all the Tory talk and legislation in their behalf—after Mr. Chamberlain's employers' liability bill and his renewed promise of old-age pensions? Those were special privileges, and it was only more of the same that they were asking. They may well feel hurt at Mr. Ritchie's turning again to rend them; but they should take his rebuke as only expressing the growing exasperation of the country at their overweening pretensions.

Lord Salisbury's announcement that legislation will be introduced next session breaking up London once more into small municipalities, has fallen like a thunderbolt among his followers, and they are busy as bees explaining it away, and pretending that he did not mean what he seemed to mean. In fact, it is apparently one of those "blazing indiscretions" which, according to Mr. Morley, Lord Salisbury is apt to utter nearly every time he opens his mouth in public. The creation of the London Council was the work of the Conservative Government when it was last in power, and the proposal now to abolish it or deprive it of most of its power, is nearly as great a fiasco as the confession that a Bismarck was needed to deal with the Turk. The truth is, not that the London County Council is unequal to its work or has done it badly, but that the Conservative chiefs are growing increasingly afraid of it. Even "minds like Mr. Balfour's" dread its becoming a sort of rival parliament, or commune, with distinct socialistic tendencies, so freely has it responded to several modern demands about wages and improvements. One of its worst terrors is its well-known designs on ground rents in London, which are, now that their country properties have fallen off, the mainstay of several of the great peers—in fact, it is said, of Lord Salisbury himself. There is a growing opinion in favor of taxing these on some different principle, which would greatly lessen their enormous value. Other Radical ideas have also made their way into the Council, so as to make it seem to many of the good old Tories a pestilent institution.

The Emperor's speech at the opening of the Reichstag last week was only the last of many accumulating signs that he has set his heart upon a fighting navy. The halls and committee-rooms of the Reichstag had been for some months hung with naval pictures and sketches from William's own hand. Such a thing it is for an Emperor to be a universal genius! Two great sheets, in particular, gave sketches of the English and German fleets respectively. The first, with its vast array of armored ships and cruisers, carried the legend, written in the Emperor's nervous hand, "A Fleet of the First Rank." The other, labelled "Then and Now," showed the decline in numbers of the German navy since 1886, and a long note explained how new ships must at once be built if the progress of the modern marine was at all to be kept up with by Germany. At the bottom of all stood the signature, "W. I. R., 1897," which, being interpreted, means, of course, Wilhelm Imperator Rex. No mere Kaiser König would do; something was required to go well with *sic volo, sic jubeo*, in ordering a navy, and Imperator Rex was just the thing. Then there came the petty embroilment with Hayti and the occasion for demanding an indemnity from China, both of which were seized upon by the Emperor to magnify the navy. This was the immediate comment of Radical and Clerical German papers. They saw how the tall talk to Hayti and the seizure of Kiao-Chau were intended to inflame the mind of the German people, and lead them to favor extensive naval plans. All this was confirmed fully by William himself, when he spoke, with unintentional bathos, of his devotion to the glory of the country abroad and the grandeur of the fleet being such that he had even pledged his brother, Prince Henry, to the great work. Artemus Ward laying all his wife's relations on the altar of country was a more impressive figure.

Will the Emperor get his marks and his ships voted him? Probably not even he himself expects that he will from the present Reichstag. The term of that body expires next year, when a new Reichstag must be elected, and it is doubtless to influence the elections of 1898 that all the naval parade is arranged. The present Reichstag has sullenly withstood and defeated some of William's pet plans. It voted down his law for the suppression of the right of public meeting, last May, by 207 to 53. In general, out of 397 members, the Government can count upon only about 100; the Opposition of various shades can muster something like 200 votes, while the remaining 97 vote sometimes with and sometimes against the Government. It is not denied that a majority is now bitterly opposed to granting enlarged naval credits; and the probability is strong, therefore, that the Emperor will have to wait at least till 1898 to get his naval toys. If a foreign war should supervene, the whole situation might change in a day; but if Germany continues at peace, the likelihood is as we say. As for the prospect of getting a more docile Reichstag next year, it cannot be said to be flattering. The political tide has been running against the Government since 1893. In bye-elections since that date they have lost eleven seats in the Reichstag—four being captured by the Radical Progressives, and three by the Social Democrats. If affairs remain as they are, it would seem certain that a programme of extravagant naval expenditure would result only in a majority, of radical and socialistic tendency, in the next Reichstag against the Emperor.

THE PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE.

President McKinley's message is mainly concerned with three questions, viz., Currency reform, Cuba, and Hawaiian annexation. The relative importance of these three is indicated by the order in which they are treated. Currency reform comes first. It is important, he says, to make the demand obligations of the Government less onerous, and to relieve our financial laws from ambiguity and doubt. These demand obligations amount to $900,000,000, consisting of various kinds of fiduciary circulation. They are all good, because the Government's pledge has been given to keep them good, but, he prudently adds, "the guarantee of our purpose to keep the pledge will be best shown by advancing toward its fulfilment." As the first step in this advance, he makes the following recommendation:

"I earnestly recommend, as soon as the receipts of the Government are quite sufficient to pay all the expenses of the Government, that, when any of the United States notes are presented for redemption in gold and are redeemed in gold, such notes shall be kept and set apart and only paid out in exchange for gold."

As this proposal has been recently and pretty fully commented on in our columns, we may pass over it now with a single remark. The President recognizes the fact that a surplus revenue is necessary to carry this measure into effect. The Government is now living in part on the proceeds of bond issues made by the Cleveland Administration. Those borrowings may last some time longer, but the end will come. Unless the revenues rise to the measure of expenditures, the bottom of the chest will be found, and then not only will currency reform be impossible, but the public will become alarmed again and will rush, long before the bottom is reached, to draw out gold while the supply lasts. It is only needful to remark on this point that when Congress takes up this question, the question of the deficit must be considered at the same time.

This measure of currency reform is a homœopathic dose, but it is important, nevertheless, since, if it were passed and a surplus revenue were secured, it would keep the currency equal to gold as long as the Bryanites were kept out of office, but no longer. No measure of reform can be considered adequate which leaves the basis of all values the sport of caucuses, conventions, and biennial or quadrennial elections. Secretary Gage's plan of currency reform is commended to the careful consideration of Congress, but is not specifically endorsed, except in three or four minor points, to which the President adds one of his own, namely, that if Congress shall approve of the previous recommendations of the message, then it shall provide that the national banks be required to redeem their notes in gold. That is not a bad idea, nor would the banks object to it, since it would be quite easy for them to send in their greenbacks and get the gold with which to redeem their notes. The advantage of this proviso would be that it would push greenbacks into the Treasury, where, in case the President's first recommendation is carried into effect, they will be held fast till gold is deposited to take them out.

The Cuban question is considered at great length, and upon the whole in a satisfactory manner. The present Government of Spain is treated with marked deference; its plan for Cuban autonomy is commended. The terms offered by Spain to the island, as transmitted by cable by Minister Woodford, are recited. They are substantially the same as the rights enjoyed by Canada. The fiscal provisions embrace the right to frame the insular budget, both as to expenditure and revenues, without limitation of any kind, and to set apart the revenues to meet the Cuban share of the national budget, which latter will be voted by the national Cortes with the assistance of Cuban Senators and Deputies; to initiate or take part in the negotiations of the national Government for commercial treaties which may affect Cuban interests; to accept or reject commercial treaties which the national Government may have concluded without the participation of the Cuban Government; to frame the colonial tariff, acting in accord with the peninsula Government in scheduling articles of mutual commerce between the mother country and the colonies. There is, perhaps, some room for discord touching the last of these provisions.

When Congress was in session a few months ago, a joint resolution granting belligerent rights to the Cuban rebels had passed our frisky Senate and had been deposited under the cushion of Speaker Reed's chair. President McKinley deals with this subject in an admirable manner, showing in no offensive way that the granting of belligerent rights is not a legislative, but an executive proceeding; that its exercise depends upon facts which can be ascertained only by the Executive, and that the granting of belligerency would not change the status of the rebels, except for the worse, since it would give Spain the right of search on the high seas, even up to the margin of our territorial waters. The impressive words used by Gen. Grant in a message to Congress on a similar occasion are quoted at length and approved. Indeed, the granting of belligerent rights to the Cuban rebels is discountenanced in every possible way. The upshot of the whole Cuban matter is that we ought to help the Cubans to gain autonomy, but not to commit any breach of the law of nations, and that, "if it shall hereafter appear to be a duty imposed by our obligations to ourselves, to civilization and humanity, to intervene with force, it shall be without fault on our part, and only because the necessity for such action will be so clear as to command the support and approval of the civilized world." If the latter condition is fulfilled, not even Spain will have room for complaint. The message, indeed, can hardly fail to have a strong influence in Spain and Cuba, as well as in the United States, and we cannot doubt that the influence will be beneficial.

The question of Hawaiian annexation is rather lightly touched upon. The President thinks that "every consideration of dignity and honor" requires that the treaty of annexation be ratified, but he does not say how the dignity of any individual Senator would be promoted by turning around as suddenly as the President himself did in reference to this question. He is in favor of extending "the most just provisions for self-rule in local matters, with the largest political liberties as an integral part of our nation" to the Hawaiians, but he means by Hawaiians only the handful of men who constitute the present Government, and their supporters, for he immediately refers to them as those who have governed themselves five years and "have come of their own free will to merge their own destinies in our body politic." It is generally supposed that not more than 3,500 of the inhabitants of the islands have "come of their own free will," and it cannot be said that the extension of provisions for self-rule to that number would be a very large grant of popular rights.

The subject of international bimetallism forms one of the minor topics of the message, but the President does not hold out any expectation that the ends of the Wolcott Commission will be gained. He says that "they believe" so and so. He does not say that he shares their beliefs, but he endorses their ability and fitness to deal with the subject, and bows them out with his blessing.

"JAMMING THROUGH."

One of the most serious signs of our time is undoubtedly the growing disinclination to discuss important public measures, either on the platform or in the press. Public men avoid nearly every species of oratory except indefinite praise of their own party and vague abuse of the other. What my party does is surely right—what the other party does is surely wrong—is the burden of every speech. So it is with the press. Things are right not because they are right, but because our party has proposed them; therefore, we are relieved from the necessity of giving any other reasons. The art of debate is thus falling into disuse among all classes of the community except college undergraduates, who are now making a gallant effort to revive the traditions of better days. Of course, politicians eagerly avail themselves of this

public sufferance. Knowing that no discussion will be looked for, they concoct all sorts of schemes privately, put the party stamp upon them in some hotel parlor, and then produce them as measures sanctioned by the party caucus, and therefore "sure to pass." The first thing the public hears about them is that they are Republican or Democratic measures, and must be swallowed. Any objections which may be raised are sure to come from two classes—the opposite party and the Mugwumps. As a matter of course, under the rules of party warfare, no attention is paid to what the other party says, and to pay attention to what the Mugwumps say would be a sign of unusual weakness, indicating a want of virility and courage. In this way all need for discussion is got rid of. Everybody whose opinion is cared for approves, and the others may go to Jericho.

Two striking examples of the results of this system are now before our eyes —the creation of Croker's "Greater New York" and the Hawaii annexation. The Greater New York was created on exactly this system. It was concocted in private, without any popular demand, and passed quickly without a word of debate. All objections from whatever quarter were left unanswered, all criticisms left unnoticed. The result was probably the greatest disgrace that has ever befallen a civilized community—the delivery of a great city, with all its offices and revenues, by the votes of a majority of its own citizens, to be disposed of almost absolutely by an ignorant man who can barely write his name. Worse calamities have befallen many cities, but their conqueror came in through a breach, over the dead bodies of their bravest men.

The Hawaiian annexation is another example. The important feature in this is not the mere seizure of some small islands. It is the entrance on an entirely new policy which the occurrence marks. For one hundred years it has been the boast of this republic that it had not owed any of its territory to conquest, that every man on its soil lived under majority rule, and that no man's allegiance could be transferred, or political duty created, except by the votes of his fellow-citizens. Herein lay our proudest distinction from the Old World. In the case of Hawaii we propose to depart from this policy. We began by helping a band of "sons of missionaries" to seize an island by a sort of "confidence operation," that is, by getting the local government to believe a lie. We then made a desperate effort to secure the "swag" by preventing the injured parties from getting to Washington until we had stored our plunder in a United States warehouse. When the scheme was temporarily defeated by President Cleveland's sense of honor, we did not go to work to win public opinion over to the enterprise by any of the ordinary instruments of Republican persuasion—that is, by a propaganda by tongue or pen. We simply lay low. We buried the subject in silence and obscurity. The country ought to have rung with it, so important is it to the future of our government. But what we did was to get the Republican party into power in order to save us from free silver and Bryanism; not in order to pass a high tariff and coin silver along with foreign nations at 15½ to 1, and to annex Hawaii. As soon as we got it into power, the party promptly passed a high tariff, sent emissaries abroad to get foreigners to join us in 15½-to-1 silver coinage, and prepared to annex Hawaii, having done nothing whatever to reform the currency, or even proposed a plan about it.

The annexation is now, we are informed, ready for execution. It is "sure to pass." It will be "jammed through." There has been no discussion of it. There is no need of any. No objections to it have been or will be noticed. The grotesque part of it is that the solitary defence of it which has come to our notice comes from an American missionary in Hawaii, in last week's *Independent*. His arguments, considering their source—a preacher of righteousness sent abroad to evangelize the Hawaiians—are decidedly droll. He is seventy years old, the son of a missionary, and a missionary himself for sixteen years. He and his father have drawn money from the New England Christians for their support for half a century, and, probably, all this time have been sending home glowing reports of their work, to be read at missionary meetings. The result, according to himself, is that the monarchy, twenty years ago, from being "generous and high-minded," began to "show despotic and heathenish tendencies," and "perverted the ways of the people." In 1893 it "hopelessly succumbed," under the guns of a United States man-of-war and the fraudulent representation of the United States Minister, and "the weaker race were displaced from control" by "the band of excellent men" now "in charge." There are, he says, two reasons for annexation, viz., "the need of a commercial and military key of the North Pacific," and again the need of protection for a "noble American and European colony," and a resplendent "American civilization," now menaced by the Japanese.

He acknowledges that there is a demand for a "plébiscite" and that the "question of annexation be submitted to a vote of the Hawaiian people." Why is this not done? First, because the "general public interest" (that is, the interest of the American missionaries who are making money in the island) "denies to the native Hawaiians any exclusive right to determine the national destiny of the island," seeing how useful the island is as a "commercial and military key," and how thoroughly the white colony is stamping out leprosy. Secondly, because the Hawaiians are a declining race, while the wicked Portuguese are "prolific" and multiplying, in indifference to American plans, and will eventually, if not stopped, overcome the natives, to say nothing of the immigration of the Japanese. Thirdly, because of the want of "foresight" on the part of the Hawaiians. Fourthly, because "the question is one too broad and far-reaching for the mass of the people to vote on with any intelligence."

We have never seen the justification of conquest and despotism stated with more childlike simplicity. It is exactly what Napoleon would have said to any of his subjects if he had taken the trouble to give them reasons for enslaving them. But coming from a missionary, and the son of an American missionary, it has a sweet reasonableness which a rude soldier could never give it. But we never read these missionary sophistries without recalling Wendell Phillips's trumpet call in Faneuil Hall, sixty years ago, when he invoked Divine vengeance on a Boston doughface who was dealing out similar pagan sophistries in defence of similar abuse of power.

THE PASSING OF THE HIGHLANDERS.

The Highland regiments raised in the British service after 1745 were probably, except Cromwell's Ironsides, the best troops it has ever had. They were men trained to fighting from their youth, and had a devotion to leaders which knew no bounds. Their valor under Wolfe, at Quebec, in the Peninsula, and at New Orleans, and, though last, not least, Walter Scott's novels, made their once hated costume both picturesque and romantic. They became the pets of the British army, and the public admiration undoubtedly did much to keep up their morale. Lowland Scotchmen got to be proud of wearing the kilt, and, in fact, the whole Scotch people became Highlanders, to whom it was natural to go with bare legs and carry their money in a "sporran." But the real Highlanders began to disappear slowly from the ranks as soon as, in the thirties, they began to disappear from the Highlands. The great clearances made by the landlords in order to introduce sheep farms sent to America thousands of the hardy men of the "black-houses" in the glens, who used to enlist, as the Irish enlisted, as an escape from poverty. When the sheep-farms gave way to "deer-forests" and grouse-moors, the same process continued, but latterly the people emigrated more willingly. It is almost literally true that there are no Highlanders in the Highlands to-day. One meets gamekeepers in the deserted glens who re-

monstrate with you for frightening the deer, and "gillies" who load and clean the guns for Manchester men and Americans, who hire the moors. One sees tailors and butchers and the like who go round the country in the summer to the various "gatherings of the clans" which take place for the amusement of the English visitors, and dance the sword dance and throw the hammer and the stone to make a little money; but there are no more Highlanders.

Of course this has had its effect on recruiting. There are now, for this reason, no Highlanders in the British army, and there are comparatively few Lowland Scotchmen. The recruiting sergeant picks up a few boys about Edinburgh and Stirling Castle, but the stalwart battalions who fought at New Orleans and in the Crimea, and followed Havelock and Colin Campbell in India, are seen no more. In fact, the Scotch have ceased to enlist, for the simple reason that they can do better. Scotchmen generally are too prosperous and industrious and canny, and emigrate too easily, to take "the Queen's shilling." The famous Highland regiments are now made up mainly of Englishmen and Irishmen, and consequently are really a kind of picturesque and harmless imposture. Some years ago it came out, through a debate in Parliament, that one of the most famous, the "Cameronians," which was originally raised on the estates of Cameron of Lochiel, and whose gathering rose "wild and high," as Byron said, at Waterloo, had hardly any Scotchmen in it. Its ranks were filled with East Londoners, and the Secretary of War condoled with the Colonel over having to lead a regiment of cockneys disguised as mountaineers.

But the continued seizure by Scotland of the glory won by these regiments in the field to-day, was sure to make trouble between the nationalities before long, and there seems just now to be an outbreak of it. It was hard for the Irish and Englishmen who fought in kilts, to have Scotchmen getting drunk over their fame, so there has been a revolt. Lord William Beresford, a fighting Irishman of the navy, has gone down armed with suspicions to the War Office, and discovered that the "Gordon Highlanders" who stormed the heights of Dargal and set the Scotch bugles blowing, were mainly Irishmen, and that even the famous piper who piped the "Cock of the North" after being shot through both legs, was an Irishman named Findlater, and said, "Arrah, be aisy," instead of "Hoot, mon."

The wonder is the Irish have not complained sooner, for in military as in other matters they have not been used by the English with fairness or wisdom. Had they been allowed after the Union, as the Scotch were, to enlist in some uniform that seemed national and was green, and to have a harp on the regimental colors, they would doubtless have been tickled to death, for they are not a serious people. But, down to last year, soldiers were punished for putting a shamrock in their hats on Patrick's Day. So for nearly a hundred years they have gone on fighting all over the world for English and Scotch credit. There were two or three distinctively Irish regiments in the service, the Royal Irish Fusiliers, and the Enniskillen Dragoons, and the Connaught Rangers, but they were in no way different from English regiments in dress or standards, and yet Wellington acknowledged in the House of Lords, that, had England not had Ireland for a recruiting ground, she could not have carried on the Peninsular war. Forty thousand Irishmen are said to have served in it, and a few years after the Union the Connaught Rangers overthrew the French Guard in the streets of Fuentes de Onoro.

Probably everybody in the British empire knows that Marlborough was an Englishman and Lord Clyde a Scotchman, but how many know that Wellington was an Irishman, and that Lord Roberts and Lord Wolseley are also Irishmen? The achievements of these men and of others like them go to English or Scotch account, while to the Irish is left the glory of killing landlords and cutting off cows' tails. It is largely in these small things that Irish misgovernment consists. It has been made a crime and disgrace for the Irish to be national, while in the Scotch it has been encouraged, and the result is Irish hatred and alienation. The notion that it can all be cured by a visit from the Duke of York and Mr. Balfour is part of the same huge mistake which has made Irish history such a chapter of woe. Of course, the differences between the two peoples have been great. There were the differences of religion and race to begin with, and then there was the difference of temperament, which made an Irishman like O'Connell odious to an Englishman like Cobden; but what shall we say was the reason which made Tennyson consider O'Connell a villain, without ever having seen him, so that he had to be sorry and make amends afterwards, when he knew him?

WORK FOR ATHLETES.

We have often wondered what becomes, after graduation, of all the heroic virtues which the ruder athletics are said to develop in college men. That admirable self-denial, that stern self-control, that utter sinking of the individual in devotion to the good of the whole—personal ambition ruled entirely out, and the glory of the college put first—upon what do all these noble qualities expend themselves after undergraduate days are over, after the last goal is kicked, the last run scored, the boat's nose shoved in front for the last time? Are they visible in our politics? Do they tone up our society, our manners? Does a true athletic restraint and sobriety mark our newspaper press? We are not scouting the existence of the athlete's special virtues, but we do say that they are too precious to be allowed to evaporate and disappear the moment after taking a degree.

If they do seem to escape us after that critical event, if we do not find our public life sweetened and our social conditions ameliorated as we should expect them to be by the advent every year into active life of hundreds of football players, all dripping with the noblest virtues known to man—or, at least, to man in college—the inference must be either that those virtues have not really existed in the degree supposed, or that their possessors have not seen what a field for their continuous exercise the world offers. We are content, for to-day, to embrace the second alternative. Grant the virtues, in number and intensity, as great as the calmest college president with a champion team may allege; how strange the blindness which prevents these young heroes from seeing the opportunities for a man's work which life offers them on every side.

We are the more inclined to dwell upon this aspect of the matter because it is so easy to recall more than one example of splendid athletes who have done splendid work as men. Their cases give some color, it must be confessed, to the argument that the stuff in a boy which leads him to delight in the rougher and harder forms of athletic competition is the very stuff which, in a man, fits him to endure hardship as a good soldier of religion or of civilization. English instances readily occur. There was the famous George Augustus Selwyn, Bishop of New Zealand. Both at Eton and Cambridge he was noted for his athletic prowess as he was for his scholarship; and he afterwards, in his voyages and hardships among the Pacific islands, displayed the same qualities of courage and versatility and energy which had made his reputation with bat and oar. Coming nearer to our own times, the renowned Cambridge cricketers, the Studd brothers, have, since leaving the university, won even greater renown by their tireless labors for the good of their fellow-men, in connection with the Inland Mission in China and in reform educational work among London's outcasts. The career of such men gives at least plausibility to the reasoning which says that the enthusiasm of the athletes' temperament is easily set on fire by the appeal of philanthropy.

We cannot, perhaps, match the Selwyns and the Studds with American rivals, though we certainly call to mind more than one hero of the football field or the baseball diamond of our colleges who has not been content to go on being

known as an athlete that was, or a "coach." One of the finest football players Princeton ever had, the Rev. Hector Cowan, is now, we believe, on the rush-line of Christian missions in darkest Africa. But there is much other work that has been done and is doing by young men which seems to us peculiarly fitted to appeal to an athletic nature. Take the experience which Mr. Jacob Riis has undergone in this city, in order to make himself the authority that he is on the problems of New York's poor. Mr. Riis has no record as a college athlete that we ever heard of, but he was shown the qualities of persistence and endurance, physical and moral, and self-denial which, it is said, athletics tend to produce. Then there is the very remarkable work done by Mr. Walter A. Wyckoff of Princeton, some of the results of which he has been giving in *Scribner's Magazine*, and has just now published in book form—'The Workers.' We do not imagine that Mr. Wyckoff ever stood high in the athletic world; but he went about his task of finding out from the inside what the life of a workingman really is, in a spirit that no athlete could surpass. He stood and worked beside ditchers, and farm-hands, and porters, and day laborers, and loggers, not getting, perhaps, as gloriously scarred and bruised and tired as a football player, but making a pretty fair show in the flesh, in that line, after all. And his results, while possibly not of the highest value, must yet, as sociological studies, leave the work of the closet sociologist far behind.

Our point is that the world is fairly aching for the kind of chivalrous, dashing workers that the college athletes are represented to be; and that they ought to be advised that the opportunity for a glorious career does not terminate with the close of their college life. If they like being thrown into the mud, let them get into the reeking ditch with Mr. Wyckoff. They can find plenty of dirt to nestle in and to fight, and they can have it all their life long, instead of simply for four fleeting years. If they think it so fine a thing to have an opposing eleven heaped upon them, and are stirred to a noble glow by the determination to shake them all off and get up to the goal-line at last, what delight they would take in political campaigning, with an 80,000 Tammany majority on their backs, and four years of fighting before it can be flung off!

Everywhere, in fact, difficult work to be done challenges the fine enthusiasm of young manhood. The more arduous it is, the more compelling its appeal. Prince Kropotkin, himself an example of what he speaks of, tells of the renunciation, from time to time, of wealth and rank by young men and women in Russia, that they may cast in their lot with what they believe to be the cause of light and freedom. Not exactly that cause, but causes which ought as strongly to stir a chivalrous soul, we have in abundance in this country. If our college athletes want to stop every mouth, and to convince all the world that everything that is asserted of their being in training in all manly virtue is true, let them make haste, after graduation, to show that they are as willing to suffer and be strong in the defence of humanity and morals as they ever were in defence of a goal.

AN ALLEGED SPECIE CIRCULAR OF 1827.

BRUNSWICK, ME., November 23, 1897.

By the famous "specie circular" of July 11, 1836, the receivers of public money were instructed to receive, after the 15th of August following, in payment for lands, "nothing except what is directed by the existing laws, viz., gold and silver, and, in the proper cases, Virginia land scrip." In discussing this circular, Professor W. G. Sumner, in his 'Life of Jackson' (p. 336), says, "A similar circular was issued in Adams's administration, which has hardly been noticed," and cites as a reference the 'Memoirs' of John Quincy Adams, vol. vii., p. 427. A similar statement, with the same reference, occurs in Schouler's 'History of the United States' (vol. iv., p. 262, note). The passage in Adams's 'Memoirs,' on which both of these writers appear to rely, is under date of February 8, 1828, and reads as follows:

"Mr. Rush [Secretary of the Treasury] brought me some papers from Alabama—a message from the Governor (Murphy) to the Legislature of the State, and a remonstrance from the Legislature addressed to Congress against an instruction from the Treasury Department to the Receivers of Public Moneys, at the Land Offices, dated last August, directing them to receive in payment for lands only specie, bills of the Bank of the United States or its branches, or bills of specie-paying banks of the State. The remonstrance of the Legislature is in language little short of frantic—a blustering, bullying style, which many of the State Governors and Governments adopt towards the General Administration, as if they considered insolence as their only means of demonstrating their sovereignty.

"Mr. Rush proposed some modification of the instructions, to remove any possible inconvenience to the purchasers. He is himself of a temper so mild and a deportment so courteous that the bitter invective, slanderous imputations, and reproachful malignity of this Alabama manifesto were quite distressing to him. I showed him a letter from a man in prison at New York, for some debt to the United States, addressed to me, which I had just received, written in much the same insulting style, and I told him I prized them both at about the same value."

I have not succeeded in finding a printed copy of the instruction referred to above. It does not appear to be in the Congressional documents, nor is it mentioned in Poore's 'Catalogue,' or in the annual reports of the Treasury and the General Land Office. Of the general histories and biographies treating of the period, I have found none, except those of Professor Sumner and Mr. Schouler, already cited, that allude to the matter. The debates in Congress in 1836-'37, on the bill to annul the specie circular, apparently make no mention of a "similar circular" of 1827, although at this point my examination has not been exhaustive. Yet it seems not unlikely that if, nine years before Jackson put forth his destructive edict, a "similar" order had been issued by the Treasury Department, the fact would have been used as a precedent by the friends and supporters of the Administration, if not by Jackson himself.

For a copy of the order referred to by Adams I am indebted to Mr. O. L. Spaulding, Assistant Secretary of the Treasury. Whether or not the order was printed, I am unable to say, the copy furnished me being in manuscript. The circular bears date August 22, 1827, and is supplementary to a circular of February 22, 1826. Of this latter, no copy of which appears to be in the Congressional documents, a manuscript copy was also kindly furnished me by Mr. Spaulding, and a printed copy, differing in minor details from the other, was placed at my disposal by the Commissioner of the General Land Office. The circular of 1826 is too long to reproduce here, but the following extract gives all that is relevant to the present purpose:

"In addition to specie, and the bills of the Bank of the United States and its branches, which are receivable in all payments to the United States, the moneys receivable for Public Lands are as follows: [then follows a list of the places from which the notes of incorporated banks therein, in addition to those banks of the State or Territory in which the land office is situated, will be received].

"But this permission to receive the notes of local or State banks is only to be in force provided those State banks pay specie for their notes on demand, and are otherwise in good credit.

"For the information of purchasers of Public Lands, each Receiver will publish in one newspaper in his district a list of the description of funds which he is hereby authorized to receive; and he will give notice, in like manner, of any change which may occasionally take place. But, in all such publications, he will state that, although for the accommodation of purchasers, the local or State bank notes therein enumerated are at present receivable, it is desirable that payments be made in specie, or the notes of the bank of the United States or its branches; and that, as the receipt of any of the local or State banks may be discontinued at any time without previous notice, it will be well for those who have payments to make, to provide themselves with specie, or notes of the United States bank or its branches. . . ."

The circular of August 22, 1827, is as follows:

"It has been found advisable, for various considerations, so far to carry into effect an intimation given in my instruction of the 22d February, 1826, as to discontinue the receipt, at any land office, of the notes of any local or State bank not established or existing in the State or Territory where the land office is situated. But that those who intend to purchase public land may have ample time to prepare for this change, it will not go into operation until the 1st of January, 1828.

"On the receipt of this instruction, the receivers of public moneys will give the necessary notice in one of the newspapers in their districts, and will continue it once a week until the change takes place. The notice should be accompanied with the caution mentioned in the instruction before referred to, that purchasers of Public lands may provide themselves with specie or notes of the bank of the United States or its branches.

"In continuing to receive the notes of banks in the State or Territory in which their land-office is situated, the receivers will conform particularly to the instruction already mentioned, in guarding against the receipt of the notes of any banks that do not pay in specie on demand, or that are not in undoubted good credit; and as the receivers have means, which this department, from its remoteness, has not, of judging of the character and condition of the banks in their State or Territory, full confidence is entertained that they will use all

necessary vigilance in preventing the receipt of any notes by which loss may happen to the United States."

A comparison of this Treasury order of 1827 and the specie circular of 1836 shows, as it seems to me, few points of real resemblance. The order of 1827 restricted the payments for lands to specie, notes of the Bank of the United States or its branches, and notes of specie-paying banks in the State or Territory in which the land-office was situated. The circular of 1836 restricted such payments to gold and silver, and, in certain cases, Virginia land scrip, this last not a resource of great importance. The circular of 1827 put a stop to the reception of the notes of local banks outside of the State or Territory in which the land-office was located. The circular of 1836 forbade the reception of the notes of any bank, wherever situated. The fact that persons having payments to make are urged to provide themselves with specie does not seem essentially to alter the character or import of the earlier order; notes of the Bank of the United States were declared equally acceptable. I am inclined to think, accordingly, that the two circulars can be said to be "similar" only by a very free use of the term. Indeed, the words of Adams's own entry in his diary seem to suggest quite plainly an order radically different from that issued at Jackson's direction.

It would be interesting to know more of the remonstrance of the Alabama Legislature, of which Adams speaks. From his account of it, it must have been a lurid document. A somewhat extended search, however, has failed to discover the text of the resolution or any allusion to such a communication. Alabama was much exercised, during this period, over the condition of the public-land business in the State, and a number of memorials, of various sorts, were presented to Congress, and are printed in the Congressional documents, and in the "Public Lands" series of the 'American State Papers'; but none of them, so far as I have found, answers to Adams's description, or refers to the Treasury circular of 1827. The journals of the House and Senate do not seem to contain a record of the presentation of such a memorial. Whether or not the document is in the archives of Alabama, I do not know. A further order, however, supplementary to those of February 22, 1826, and August 22, 1827, was issued February 22, 1828, in which, after reciting the paragraphs directing the receivers to give notice of the kinds of funds receivable in payments for lands, and urging payment in specie or notes of the Bank of the United States, the following modification was directed to be made:

"But, in all such publications, he [the receiver] will state that, although for the accommodation of purchasers, the local or State banknotes therein enumerated are at present receivable, the receipt of any such notes may be discontinued at any time, if, in the opinion of the receiver, they cannot be safely received."

The above paragraph is from a copy of the circular furnished me by the Commissioner of the General Land Office. It suggests the reflection that, if the circular of 1828 proved acceptable to Alabama, the excitement of the State was pretty easily allayed.

WILLIAM MACDONALD.

THE FOREIGN POLICY OF ENGLAND.

LONDON, November 23, 1897.

That the foreign policy of Lord Salisbury is a failure has long been evident to those who have had facilities for looking into the details of the proceedings of the Foreign Office. It has been said for more than a year, to my certain knowledge, by some of the most strenuous supporters of the Government, that Lord Salisbury was incompetent to direct the conduct of foreign affairs, and that his continuance in the direction was a menace of disaster. That he has lost nerve and grown timid and hesitating is of common knowledge, but the history of his actual tenure of the Foreign Office shows it (in full knowledge of the difficulties and advantages of the situation) to have been one of the weakest which the recent annals of English government afford. What must be said in his defence, however, is that the late Government, by its fruitless attempts to arrive at a good understanding with France, and its perpetual and weak concessions to French assumptions, had so gravely compromised the position that Salisbury had little ground to stand on for the preparation of his defence.

The pressure of public opinion on account of the Armenian massacres brought a momentary energy into the decisions of the Foreign Office, and the first act of the Minister was to reëstablish the old accord between England, Italy, and Austria, originally made in 1888, when Crispi and Salisbury were in power, for common action in the Turkish Empire. Italy accepted the renewal of the programme of action eagerly, as Crispi's ambition had always been to bring Italy into a definite alliance with England; but Austria, bound by the agreement and unable to refuse, still accepted with reluctance, arising from the fact that she was not prepared for the raising of the Eastern question, which would have been the inevitable consequence of the actuation of Salisbury's programme. There was, too, in official circles, the further reason for reluctance in the feeling that it was rather for the Austrian Government to take the initiative in a question that lay at its borders than for the English, so far away and animated only by sentimental considerations, which to the Eastern Powers were of so little weight. However, Austria yielded, even if reluctantly, and the programme of the new triple alliance was in substance adopted, as was shown by the immediate and effective pressure on the Sultan to accord the long-promised reforms under penalty of forcing the Dardanelles and presenting the united squadrons before Constantinople. An immediate movement would have met with no real opposition. The fortifications at the Dardanelles were not in a state of defence, though a slight delay would have permitted them to be made so, and Russia was not ready for a movement, while there had been no understanding between Russia and France. The Italian Government had, before renewing the accord of 1888 with England, consulted the Emperor of Germany as to accepting the English proposition to renew, and had received the most emphatic approval, the Emperor giving to King Humbert his imperial word of honor that, whatever might be the consequences of the step, he would back Italy to the last man, practically putting England at the head of a quadruple alliance, and making her the arbiter of the settlement of the Eastern question.

In consequence of this disposition, Crispi ordered the fleet to Smyrna in support of the English, and mobilized a corps d'armée for debarkation in Asia Minor in support of any operations necessary in the Dardanelles or beyond, and the Austrian fleet was prepared for such operation as might have followed, though the naval force brought on the field of action by England and Italy combined was irresistible by any possible opposing force. Certainly at this moment the raising of the Venezuela question by the United States was a grave embarrassment for Salisbury—not, as we supposed, from any fear of the United States, for England even alone has never shown fear of any combination, but because the event of a war between the United States and England is regarded by a large and influential portion of English people as such a disaster to civilization that only the gravest necessity should drive England into it. With the support of Italy, Austria, and Germany, who would have necessarily been England's allies in the case of any aggression by the United States, England had nothing to fear in the long run, except from English sentiment; and in spite of the momentary check caused by the attention of the Foreign Office being absorbed by the Venezuela question, nothing prevented Salisbury from solving the question at Constantinople in a short, vigorous campaign, concluded before the American diversion could have come to a head.

At this juncture, however, the French Government intervened with solicitations for postponement, in view of a combined action of all the Powers, with an apparently amicable pressure which Salisbury was not strong enough to resist; and the naturally to be anticipated long discussions began, with interminable delays, with preparations and final intervention on the part of Russia, and the ulterior consequence of a secret treaty between the Tsar and the Sultan, which gave the former the effectual protectorate of the Turkish empire. The position now became impregnable, except in the event of a general war, for which Salisbury had not the nerve nor England the desire. The opportunity was lost, but, what was much worse, the opportunty for future coöperation of Germany with England was also lost. The contingent consequences of the weakness of Lord Salisbury were soon felt in two directions. The German Emperor, exasperated at the way in which Salisbury had trifled with and betrayed the Triple Alliance in its representatives, Italy and Austria, especially the former, became hostile to England, and, to atone for having abandoned Russian interests, became their most strenuous supporter. It was clear to him that no reliance could be placed on the policy of Salisbury, and the Emperor was compelled to become the supporter of all the plans of the Tsar, in order to efface recollection of his concession to the policy of England. This extremely awkward position, in which he had been placed by his desire to come into practical contact with England, sufficiently explains his subsequent animosity towards Salisbury; for it was against him rather than England that the imperial animosity was felt.

The real disaster, however, arising from Salisbury's weakness (and, it must be admitted, his want of good faith) fell on Italy. The French Government had, on the second

advent of Crispi to power, made him direct overtures for a more conciliatory policy towards France, promising him distinctly a treaty of commerce and commercial advantages if he would withdraw from the accord with England in Morocco and Egypt. These propositions Crispi refused, and this refusal was the signal for the active undertaking of the Franco-Abyssinian intrigues against Eritrea. The accession of Italy to the English Oriental policy, reversing the tendencies of the former Italian ministry, which was entirely pro-Russian, carried Russia over to the new policy in Abyssinia, the result of which was the war on Italy that resulted in the disaster of Adowah. In vain Crispi appealed to England for at least a diplomatic support at the Abyssinian capital; Salisbury, grown still more timid, withdrew even the slight support of the Italian claims which Rosebery had offered; and England permitted the crushing of her only faithful ally to be carried out without even a diplomatic remonstrance, while Italy was punished for her adhesion to England, with the tacit consent of the English ministry. It is safe to say that, under similar circumstances, Lord Rosebery would have behaved differently, for Kimberley had already practically admitted the justice of Italy's demands before the Liberal ministry fell. The immediate cause of the fall of Crispi was the disaster of Adowah, but there were agencies at work, also indirectly due to the defection of England, which placed his ministry in a most critical situation even before the battle of Adowah.

The exasperation of the German Emperor next fell on Italy, already practically abandoned by England—for the movement up the Nile which was made immediately after the disaster of Adowah had no connection with that affair, but was made at the request of Crispi under apprehension of the co-operation of the Dervishes with the Abyssinians and the capture of Kassala by the former, and was much more in the interest of Egypt than of Italy. The Italian Government held that position only at the disposition of the Egyptian. On the other frontier, where the Italian ministry had requested permission to pass by English territory to make a diversion in favor of the Eritrean forces, Salisbury refused cynically the slightest moral support. The preservation of Kassala was necessary to Egyptian interests, and therefore the movement into the Sudan was made. Whereas Germany's policy in maintaining allied relations with Italy had been primarily to make that country a bond for securing England's at least passive adhesion to the Triple Alliance as the gage of European peace, with the advent of strained relations with England the renewed necessity for a more cordial understanding with Russia became the motive of the diplomacy of the Emperor, and Italy (especially under Crispi, who was strongly antagonistic to the understanding with the Tsar, established by Rudini in 1891 and renewed in 1895 after Adowah) lost all importance to Germany. When Crispi, therefore, coming to power after the fall of Giolitti, intimated to Germany that he should denounce the treaty of the Triple Alliance in order to secure in the new negotiations for its renewal better terms for Italian interests, the Emperor sent orders to the Quirinal to dispense with Crispi. This was the signal for the unloosing of all the intrigues of court and cabal (always hostile to that minister) against the ministry, and the instant result was to paralyze the direction of the affairs of Eritrea, where Crispi had insisted on superseding Baratieri, seen to be utterly incompetent for the increased burthen of an extended command. The immediate and disastrous result was the precipitate action of Baratieri, informed of the pending arrival of Baldissera, who would outrank and supersede him (a solution arrived at as a compromise between the dismissal desired by the ministry and the confirmation in the command insisted on by court and cabal), and the attack, contrary to the orders of the ministry, on the impregnable positions of the Abyssinians, the outcome of which had been by all the authorities foreseen, and by the opponents of the ministry desired as a demonstration of the ruinous policy of Crispi and a pretext for his dismissal.

Now we begin to perceive the sinister results of the cynicism of Lord Salisbury in reference to Italian interests in Africa. Instead of an ally on the upper Nile holding in check both Abyssinia and the Dervishes, England has opposed to her the greatly increased power of the Negus, supported and directed by France and Russia; the Italian Government, under the same influences, disposed to evacuate Eritrea; the already effected occupation by the French of Fashioda, on the upper Nile; and an up-stream fight to establish the desired communication between the upper and lower Nile valleys—the prime object of the Sudan expedition with all its sacrifices and embarrassments. This is an incomplete summary of the results of a single blunder in the foreign policy of Lord Salisbury, the refusal to support by his diplomatic pressure the interests of his ally, even in a case in which those of England were identical with those of the ally. If the English public were not indifferent to the opinion of other publics, it would not be possible for a government, Conservative or Liberal, thus totally to disregard the moral obligations of an alliance not formally consecrated in a written treaty. It will be difficult for England to find again even an Italian Government ready to enter into an alliance without some guarantee against being left to suffer the penalty of its complaisance.

I have already admitted the grave fact that the preceding ministry had compromised the situation, but not to the relative degree that Lord Salisbury, in the speech he has just made, has implied. It is true that the inertness of Gladstone, and, following him, Rosebery, had consented to aggressions in Siam, and to the adoption of extreme measures in Madagascar which were in violation of the engagement of the Republic; but Kimberley had given his successor an example of fidelity to Italy in his recognition of the right of Italy to claim the good will of England at Zeila, which Salisbury withdrew from; and, on the Makong, England was the guardian of Siamese interests which she had no right to sacrifice for peace's sake. One does not take such responsibilities on himself without the determination to uphold them, and the weakness of the Liberal ministry is no justification for the repetition of the same mistakes for which public opinion had so strongly condemned their predecessors. It is useless to palliate the weakness of Lord Salisbury by accusing Gladstone of having had no foreign policy. It was on this very ground that Gladstone was attacked, and yet Salisbury has surpassed Gladstone in his concessions, or, more properly, recessions, for he has been beaten back simply by the French aggressions. Tunis is the most flagrant case of Salisbury's omissions. The occupation of this province was effected by the consent of England, accompanied by the indifference of all the other Powers except Italy, to which it is a most grave menace, but with the express and distinct promise on the part of France that it should not be made a military station, nor should it be annexed. The fact is that it has been made a formidable military port, menacing all the defences of Italy, and commanding the passage from Gibraltar and Alexandria in the most effective manner. The recent treaty between England and France condones all the latter's violations of her engagements, and abandons Italy as completely as could be done under an understanding on a peace footing. X.

Correspondence.

COLLEGE ENGLISH ONCE MORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Judging by the communications which have reached me, the article in the *Nation*, some time since, reviewing the recent report of the committee on English of the board of Harvard Overseers, has attracted no inconsiderable attention. The same is true of another article of similar character in the Springfield *Republican* of November 15. Evidently, not only those engaged in the secondary education, but the professors and other instructors of English in the various universities, take a lively, and what seems likely to prove a most fruitful, interest in the discussion.

As a rule, these letters and communications dwell on two sides of the problem. The first is what may, with those engaged in the secondary education, be called the practical side; the second, the literary side. Of those who look at the question from its practical or school-teachers' side, the minds of most seem still working over the time problem. They say, and with much force when the matter is looked at from the point of view of the system in use: "Puzzled as we already are to fit boys for college at the average age of nineteen even, where are we to find the necessary time to assume 'English A' as part of the preparatory training? We are not now able properly to cover the acreage of Latin, Greek, French, history, etc., already assigned. The written translation of the classics, for instance, though confessedly much more exact and, as a training, severe than the oral translation, is far less rapid. If, then, written translation is to supersede, to any considerable extent, oral translation, we cannot cover in the time allotted an equal number of pages of the books which have, somehow, to be gone through. In other words, the exigencies of the college entrance examination are altogether more stringent as respects quantity than quality, and to those exigencies we must adapt ourselves."

This is interesting, as one view of an important subject. The answer is obvious. The scheme suggested by the committee of the Board of Overseers is certainly open to the objection of putting more stress on quality than on quantity. In so far, therefore,

it would seem that it is in possible conflict with the existing college entrance requirements. The issue, as thus presented, is one which the committee would probably not be disinclined to accept.

The other side of the problem I have referred to as the literary side. Quite a chorus of complaint comes up from the instructors in the preparatory schools in regard to the character of the authors and books prescribed. In making selections, those representing the colleges, it is asserted, seem to have followed the classic analogy. For instance, the orations of Burke and Webster have certainly stood the test of time; but it is questionable whether they are calculated to excite a great degree of literary ardor in the immature mind of to-day. Following the principle of analogy, they seem to have been prescribed as the modern exemplars of the school of Dēmosthenes and Cicero. Nevertheless, it is argued, there are those, even among the adult, who find the speeches of Burke and the orations of Webster, like those of Demosthenes and Cicero, severe reading, and reading hardly in touch with current modes of thought and expression. After all, must we not in some degree take conditions as we find them? And does not success in teaching, as in other branches of practical life, depend on the correctness with which we see those conditions and conform ourselves thereto?

This important branch of education is now regulated through what is called a "conference" of colleges, looking to uniformity in entrance requirements. The advantage of such a system is open to much question, especially as respects a department in what may be called a formative or plastic stage of development, as English at present unquestionably is. If its end be to bring about a species of combination in restraint of trade among the institutions of advanced education, so that no one of them shall secure more than its share of the business by putting the standard for admission lower than the others, it presents an aspect of the educational problem in no way edifying. It is again a case of quantity as opposed to quality. If, on the other hand, the result of the "conference" is to establish a rigid uniformity of requirement, it may safely be assumed in advance that it will be a uniformity of the pedantic and the commonplace. *Non tali auxilio*—no real advance in the higher education will come in that way. On the contrary, so far as English is concerned, it would seem most desirable that for the present at least, and probably for some time to come, each institution should reserve to itself the utmost possible latitude for experiment; for only through such liberty of individual action, and a free use of it, can success be evolved out of failure.

One letter in particular has reached me the suggestions in which, on both these aspects of the discussion, seem so germane and so well put that I am tempted to ask you to give wider circulation to them. I will merely say that this letter is written by a recent graduate of one of our principal colleges, now engaged in the English instruction at a preparatory school of highest reputation. In close touch with modern methods and thought, the system he describes might most profitably be adopted by other schools of like character.

"I am glad that in your last two reports, and especially in this last, you attack the neglect of teachers of the classics to insist upon English translations. We do emphasize that the English shall be idiomatic and not 'translation English.' To further this, we have required, this year, in the upper form, the (almost) daily written translation of a Latin or Greek sentence, which shall be in good English. At times the English teachers have read and criticised before the class the examinations in translation. It has been effective.

"May I describe, briefly, the composition work of our two upper classes, the fifth and the sixth forms—the former preparing for the elementary English examination, and the latter for English A?

"The fifth form write weekly themes, from two to three pages in length. These themes are marked and criticised in detail, with references to Hill's Rhetoric, parts of which are studied for this purpose. The first ten minutes of each recitation are often given to impromptu theme writing, and five minutes given to the reading of one or more themes. I avoid the extra work you mention on page 413 [of the reports], by marking, during those ten minutes, the themes of the previous recitation. (The size of the class permits this.) They are then returned.

"The work of the sixth form, insomuch as it corresponds to Freshman English, is of broader scope, and leaves less time for composition. The weekly themes now become fortnightly themes; but they are marked, criticised, and rewritten as in the fifth form. Hill's Rhetoric is studied systematically; certain books of required authors are read, etc. An essay of not less than fifteen pages is required from each boy. As in the fifth form—though not so regularly—there are ten-minute themes at recitations.

"This year I instituted daily themes of one page, the subjects preferably from observation or of opinion. It has not resulted 'in the displacement of some other indispensable study.' There has not been a single case of complaint of the extra amount of work involved; but, on the contrary, there is great interest in it. The themes are daily filed in such fashion that every one can read his own and those of others, and profit by the written criticisms. This innovation—now in practice six weeks; long enough thoroughly to test it—I undertook with some hesitation, for from its extra work on the boys' part I expected protests, but have had none. And the extra work on my part I expected would be tedious and irksome, but greatly to the contrary; for, though some themes naturally are stupid, some commonplace, and some interesting, they are in the main entertaining reading—even, at times, instructive. Improvement, better facility in writing, is already noticeable. I am convinced that the practice of daily writing is possible and beneficial, and that it can be made interesting for both teacher and pupils.

"In conclusion, I must commend your remark on the books now required for college examination. It is unpardonable when, from the vast field of good literature, much of which is adapted for this purpose, a list is selected which requires the detailed and analytical study of such books as Burke's speech on Conciliation with America. Nothing, in my opinion—it has almost been within my observation—can tend more to crush in boys the desire for reading which it is the duty of schools to further, or, if such a desire does not exist, effectually to prevent it being sown."

CHARLES FRANCIS ADAMS.

BOSTON, November 26, 1897.

IN DEFENCE OF FOOTBALL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is to be regretted that you feel it necessary to take the stand you do concerning football. The amelioration and development of the last six years are so patent to the close observer of the sport that criticism which does not record them will no longer be heeded. There has been, unquestionably, a time when the word "brutal" was properly applied to the game, and when it might justly be compared with prize-fighting. In the middle West, at any rate, this time is plainly past. There has been a steady and natural elevation of standards among the general public and among players; honorable sporting ideals now largely prevail, and the time seems not far off when they shall wholly prevail.

Friends and foes of the game alike may as well concede, now as well as later, that football is here to stay. It has ceased to be the peculiar possession of the college and has fairly become the national fall sport. It is not true that football is not a game for boys; if any limitation in that kind be made, it ought to be that it is a sport for boys alone. To boys it gives its maximum benefits in strength, presence of mind, physical courage, self-control, determination, good nature under stress. Among boys well matched in age and strength it is being played all over the country almost without accidents. Among boys especially, football is necessarily without the objectionable features which to-day characterize the college game. The schoolmaster of to-day who values his opportunities for moral training and stimulus has no tool more valuable than the game of football—granting, of course, a proper supervision and control.

Much is made of the danger of accident and of injury, and the dreadful casualties that occasionally occur make this fear appear reasonable. If, however, game after game is played with no injury more serious than a skinned elbow, if hundreds of men and boys play the entire season with no accidents worse than a bloodied nose—and both suppositions stand for verifiable facts—then it must be conceded that the accidents of football are not inherent or necessary, and that the sport really takes a place with yachting, shooting, and bicycling. A fatality or serious accident in any of these sports does not constitute an argument against them, simply because we all know that many persons habitually take part in them without accident; the same statement may be made with equal truth about football.

But those who are interested in this game, not merely on the sporting side—those who, like the present writer, value it for the real and enduring benefits which it brings—might fairly grant a much larger element of risk and yet justify the sport, risk and all. This is not the place, naturally, to enter at length into these arguments. They would, first, be its remarkable educational power in all points of physical prowess and the accompanying mental training; especial stress should be laid on the fact that these are not to be determined in the least by public games, but are found in the regular work and exercise. What I desire to emphasize here is that the training of football will in the long run prevent more accidents than it causes. It is a weak statement of facts to say that half, for example, of the innumerable bicycle accidents would not occur if riders possessed the presence of mind, alertness, and fertility of resource that are to be gained through this game.

At the same time football has its evils; they are not, however, apparent at any game. The immense evil of the sport to-day is the professional aspect which it assumes in the college for two months of every short school year. The crass form of professionalism, buying players and all that, is largely abolished; a more refined and evil form now exists. College authorities, who should strive steadily for a high plane

of thought and life, and who should never consent to less, now consent to and even favor the expenditure of thousands of dollars annually, the hiring of high-priced professional athletes as coaches, and the absolute devotion of hundreds of men, to the exclusion of all more serious interests.

Sport ceases to be sport when placed upon such a basis, and our colleges shamefully abandon their moral leadership when they countenance it for a day. Among high-minded and serious men sport has a place, but it is subordinated to the real concerns of life; it is a recreation and not a vocation. Life is turned upside down when it is permitted to be the be-all and end-all even for a time. In this evil and all its ramifying consequences lies the present demoralizing influence of football; its victims are the hundreds of young men who degenerate into professional athletes because of superior abilities in the game. Let the college professors who form the committees of control, subscribe to athletic funds, and cheer their teams from the side-lines, use their inalienable leadership to better purposes.

FREDERICK WHITTON.

THE DETROIT SCHOOL FOR BOYS,
December 2, 1897.

[We shall not reargue our contention that a game inviting the rudest physical contact of heavy human masses is, quite apart from slugging and other brutalities, unfit for youth. So far are we, either, from accepting Mr. Whitton's amendment that it is preëminently fit for boys, that we regard the aping of their elders by juvenile football players as one of the serious evils of the game. The scope of this remark might be extended to baseball. The influence of professionalism vulgarizes and corrupts downwards—and the irresistible tendency of all intercollegiate games is towards professionalism. We believe this tendency "has come to stay" much more firmly than any game or form of game. Language, manners, mental preoccupation, perverted in one generation, infallibly reflect their debasement in the succeeding. Who can view without alarm the effect on the young of examples in rowdyism, loafing, and gambling such as attend the present excessive devotion to sports under the best auspices? —ED. NATION.]

MISTRANSLATION CONDONED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of the 21st of October last you gave currency to certain damaging statements as to the English translation of Professor Hommel's 'Ancient Hebrew Tradition.'

Fearing, from the interested attack made on the English translation of Maspero's *Mêlées*, that the Higher Critics would use the same methods to discount Professor Hommel's arguments, drawing across the trail the red-herring of a faulty rendering, I had the foresight to send revises of every sheet of the English translation to Professor Hommel, and to take care that the printed volume embodied all his corrections.

The following excerpt from a recent letter of Professor Hommel shows how he regards the charges made by the writer of your article:

"I have been greatly surprised to notice that some English critics of my book (for example, the much-respected Rev. Buchanan Gray, in the September issue of the *Expository Times*) have ascribed certain trivial differences between the English version and the German original to the arbitrary action of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge.

"To this I answer once for all that I read a clear revise of every sheet of the English translation, and that I possess a sufficient knowledge of English—witness my original English 'Assyriological Notes' in the Proceedings of the Society for Biblical Archæology—to warrant me fully in asserting that in no single instance has what I intended to say and to prove in my book failed to find its fitting and intended expression in the English translation.

"As for the trifling discrepancies discovered by my reviewers, they are of such a subordinate character that I consider it quite superfluous to go into them. When, for instance, in the Preface, the words *Aufstellungen der sog. modernen Pentateuchkritik* (assertions of the so-called modern critics of the Pentateuch) were rendered 'cobweb theories of the so-called modern critics,' this slight alteration met with my full approval, since in the text of the book I myself have more than once referred to the theories of Wellhausen in similar drastic terms."

I feel sure that in a spirit of fair play you will give space in your columns to this refutation of the charges made on the 21st ult., presumably by the lady who has on this side of the water been making most reckless assertions on the subject.

Yours faithfully,

EDMUND MCCLURE.

SOCIETY FOR PROMOTING CHRISTIAN KNOWLEDGE,
NORTHUMBERLAND AVENUE, LONDON, W. C.,
November 22, 1897.

[The serious aspect of the case is that Mr. McClure seems totally unconscious of two things: (1) That honest people generally consider small falsifications as objectionable as great ones, and (2) that no charge of falsification could have been made if the changes had not been surreptitious. If the English preface had stated that certain things had been altered or omitted for the safety of English readers, then, whatever course criticism might have taken, one path would have been closed to it. As to Prof. Hommel's testimony, it is charitable to believe that he read his English revise somewhat superficially. The possibility that his knowledge of English is on a par with the translator's knowledge of German, we are not disposed to consider. Surely, Prof. Hommel does not imagine, *e. g.*, that "I brought myself under the displeasure of Wellhausen" is the English equivalent for "Unter dem Banne Wellhausen's mich befindend"! Whether the "discrepancies" are altogether "trifling" we must leave our readers to judge after a careful perusal of the review which has called out Mr. McClure's letter.

Mr. McClure's allusion to Maspero's 'Struggle of the Nations' we are constrained to regard as unfortunate. Does he suppose us to be unaware that the chairman of the general literature committee of the S. P. C. K. has felt it necessary to issue a card officially disclaiming all responsibility for the translator's changes in that work?—ED. NATION.]

A CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is always a pleasure to correct, even in matters of minor importance, any one who has pointed out one's own omissions or shortcomings. We beg, therefore, to call your attention to a slight misstatement in your issue of December 2. In the review of Mr. Parkhurst's 'Song-Birds and Water-Fowl,' your zealous reviewer criticises us for leaving Mr. Fuertes's name off the title-page—a very valid point to make, and an accidental omission which we shall have corrected at the earliest possible opportunity. When he goes on to say, however, that this artist is "nowhere mentioned in the book," he deviates in some degree from accuracy, for on the page in front of the frontispiece which contains an advertising notice of this book and its predecessor, the artist's name is inserted as the illustrator.

The matter would be hardly worth writing about except that the tone of the review is rather calculated to leave the impression that we were intentionally doing Mr. Fuertes less than justice.

Very truly yours,

CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS.

NEW YORK, December 4, 1897.

LITERARY ARCHÆOLOGICAL TREASURES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As may be known to some of your readers, the latest discovery among the thousands of papyri found by our Egypt Exploration Fund at Behnesa, is a portion of Thucydides of the *first century* A. D. The society is now to publish the more important of these literary and historical treasures. The first volume, a quarto of 300 pages, with facsimile plates, will include:

"A fragment of the second or third century, containing most of the first chapter of St. Matthew's Gospel; a leaf containing the Acts of St. Paul and Thecla; portions of a Sapphic poem, probably by Sappho; fragments of Sophocles's 'Œdipus Tyrannus,' of Plato's 'Republic,' of Xenophon's 'Hellenica,' of Isocrates and Demosthenes, and of a lost comedy—about fifty lines; a part of an important treatise on metre—perhaps by Aristoxenus, the chief early authority on metre; much of a chronological work, with dates from 356 to 316 B. C.; a lengthy proclamation by Flavianus Titianus, Prefect of Egypt under Hadrian; an interview between the Emperor Marcus Aurelius and a Magistrate of Alexandria; a roll giving a list of the quarters and streets of Oxyrhyncus, and of their guards, in the fourth century A. D. And perhaps the portion of Thucydides, of the first century, just found."

All subscribers or donors of not less than five dollars will receive the volume, the illustrated 'Archæological Report,' and the annual report with subscriptions, etc. We undertake this work in faith, depending absolutely upon our universities, libraries, and an enlightened public to support it. Patrons contribute $25. Circulars and all information can be had from our Secretary, Mrs. Buckman, 59 Temple Street, Boston, or from Rev. W. C. Winslow, at 525 Beacon Street, Boston. Checks are payable to the

Honorary Treasurer, Francis C. Foster. Prof. Petrie is again our chief explorer.

WILLIAM C. WINSLOW,
Vice-President and Honorary Secretary.

BOSTON, December 1, 1897.

Notes.

A. S. Barnes & Co. announce for the present month 'Interpretations of Life and Religion,' by the Rev. Walton W. Battershall, D.D., and 'A Christmas Accident, and Other Stories,' by Anne Eliot Trumbull, daughter of the late Dr. J. Hammond Trumbull.

An eclectic 'Book of Verses for Children,' from Shakspere and Coleridge to James Whitcomb Riley, compiled by Edward V. Lucas, will be published by Henry Holt & Co.

Shortly to appear from the press of Doubleday & McClure Co. is 'The Science of Political Economy,' by Henry George, which the author had finished not long before his sudden death.

A. C. Armstrong & Son have nearly ready 'Music for the Soul,' from the writings of the Rev. Alexander Maclaren, D.D.

The Oxford University Press (New York: Henry Frowde) is about to issue 'The Odes of Keats,' by the Rev. Arthur Cleveland Downer, with memoir and illustrations; and the text of the Bacchylides papyrus in facsimile, as well as in ordinary Greek and in uncial type.

D. C. Heath & Co. will publish in January 'Gymnastic Stories and Plays for Primary Schools,' by Miss Stoneroad, Director of Physical Training in the public schools of Washington, D. C.

From T. Fisher Unwin, London, will issue 'Australian Democracy,' by Henry de R. Walker; the fifth volume in the "Adventure Series," namely, 'The Voyages and Adventures of Ferdinand Mendez Pinto,' done into English by Henry Cogan, with an introduction by Arminius Vámbéry; 'Wild Life in Southern Seas,' by Louis Becke; and a new rhymed translation from Catullus, 'The Loves of Lesbia and Catullus,' by Mr. Tremenheere.

The Master and Elder Brethren of the Trinity House, London, have requested their Secretary, Mr. Kent, to write a history of the corporation, which dates its establishment from the early years of the sixteenth century. The destruction of records caused by two fires has played havoc with the documents of the corporation, but there still exist at the Trinity House and elsewhere materials for a solid work; and, in the competent hands of Mr. Kent, a good book will be made. The Trinity House authorities have charge of the light-houses, light-ships, pilots, buoys, and beacons of the United Kingdom. The Master is usually a member of the royal family when one is available. The Duke of York holds the position at the present time, having succeeded the Duke of Edinburgh when the latter relinquished the office on becoming an independent sovereign, as Grand Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. The working head of the corporation is the Deputy Master, who is Sir Sydney Webb, a fine old sailor.

The fourth volume, or third supplement, of 'Poole's Index to Periodical Literature' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) almost rivals in bulk the third edition of the original work. It is the first to appear after the death of its founder, whose portrait is fitly here given, together with a brief laudatory sketch of his life by Mr. W. I. Fletcher, editor in chief of the continuation. But happily a nephew of Dr. Poole, Mr. Franklin O. Poole, an assistant in the Boston Athenæum Library, once presided over by W. F. Poole, is now associated on the title-page and in actual collaboration with Mr. Fletcher. Two religious journals, the *Independent* and the *Outlook*, have been indexed for the first time, and the *Book-Buyer*, *Book News*, and *Book Reviews* have been indexed chiefly with references to portraits, accompanied by notices of literary characters. We need say no more of a work whose utility is everywhere known in the studious and learned world. In the five years, 1892-'96, covered by the present volume, three pages are given to India, two and a half to Ireland, three-quarters to Hawaii, one-half to Cuba; one to currency; two to music; one-eighth to Grant, one-quarter to Bismarck and to Darwin; one-half to Napoleon; three-quarters to Tennyson; one page to Browning. Reviews of the principal works of the day are among the valuable references of the Index, together with obituaries of the more elaborate sort, and a thousand miscellaneous topics, political, social, and historical.

Mr. Bernhard Berenson's first book, 'The Venetian Painters of the Renaissance,' having run through three editions in as many years, is now brought out by his publishers, the Putnams, in a large-paper edition, with twenty-four photogravure illustrations from famous pictures of the Venetian school. Some additions to the "Index to Works" have been made, and the text has been relieved of the paragraph numbers and headings; but in the main the book is what it was when we noticed its first appearance, and at present we need dwell only on its handsome appearance and on the well-executed plates. It is noticeable that Paolo Veronese, inadequately treated in the text, is entirely unrepresented in the illustrations. Mr. Berenson considers him hardly a Venetian, but he was one of the greatest of painters, and as he is not likely to be treated of in any other of this series of volumes, it is a pity that something like justice should not be done him here. In general the selection of subjects for illustration leans to the choice of little-known pictures by second-rate men, and while some of them are very lovely and very welcome because not often seen, the total result is a certain lack of proportion. The strangest selection is that of Cima's "Apollo and Marsyas," a childish production which gives no idea of the powers of the author, limited as these were. Neither Bellini nor Titian is shown at his very best, and hardly even Tintoretto. But if it was intended to emphasize the idyllic and Giorgionesque sentiment that runs through so much of Venetian art, the choice of pictures has been admirably made.

The Century Company send us a 'Gallery of One Hundred Portraits' selected from the back numbers of the *Century Magazine*. Some of these are engraved from more or less well-known works of art, and some are from drawings made for the *Century*, but perhaps the larger number are from photographs from life. The persons represented range from Columbus and Washington to the present day, with a large preponderance of the contemporary, and include men and women famous in many lines of activity, nearly half of whom, however, are writers. The portfolio is not for sale at present, except in connection with a subscription to the magazine.

Mr. H. C. Christy's illustrations do not, in our opinion, justify the new edition of 'Hamlet' brought out by Dodd, Mead & Co.; but here is one more copy of the play in fair type and resplendent binding.

Very pretty book-making is 'The Lovers' Shakspere,' compiled by Chloe Blakeman Jones and published in Chicago by A. C. McClurg & Co.; but its scope is not as narrow as its title. This, perhaps, was meant to be intimated by the epigraph from "As You Like It," "Lovers are given to poetry"—which need not be amorous verse. Hence scores of quotations as uninflammable as "The first bringer of unwelcome news Hath but a losing office."

'The Comedies of Oliver Goldsmith,' illustrated by Chris. Hammond (London: George Allen; New York: Frederick A. Stokes Co.), bears comparison with similar treatment of the same works by Railton and Thomson. The full-page pen-drawings are clever and unaffected, and set off the excellent letterpress to advantage.

It is well to have such a "composite photograph" of Wordsworth as we get from the selections of several editors. Certain pieces none can possibly omit, and these furnish the type of the poet, while the individual preference among the less esteemed or less familiar verse lends the adumbrations to the defined physiognomy. Mr. Andrew Lang's 'Wordsworth' (Longmans) is accordingly welcome. It does not gain very much from Mr. Alfred Parsons's initial letters and headpieces; not more from Mr. Lang's introduction, which could have little new to say concerning Wordsworth's theory of poetry and the cause of his woful inequality. The arrangement is to be praised, having a certain chronological purpose and consistency. The binding is ornamental and in good taste.

Another selection, 'Poems by William Wordsworth,' is authored by Prof. Edward Dowden, and forms part of the Athenæum Press Series (Ginn & Co.); plainly made books for working students, and without pictures or ornament of any kind save good typography. The introduction here far outweighs Mr. Lang's; the selection is much more copious, especially of the sonnets; and there are plentiful notes.

The beautiful low-priced Centenary Edition of Carlyle's works issued in this country by the Scribners is continued with the Life of Frederick the Great, the first two of eight volumes. Each contains two portraits, and nothing is lacking to make this form of the great biography attractive in the extreme. More quaint, but, to our mind, less legible are the first two volumes of the *Spectator*, which come to us through the same firm; in form, handy enough, certainly, but with old-style type somewhat too much condensed, and the narrow margins appropriate to the antiquated scheme. The more open lines of Mr. Austin Dobson's preface, in the same type, are both more easy to read and (we believe) to remember. A pallid contrast is exhibited by the modern font employed in Mr. G. Gregory Smith's useful notes. Still, this is a painstaking and in a certain sense a comely edition, very tastefully bound. Dainty, again, is the Temple Edition of Scott published by Messrs. Scribner in connection with J. M.

Dent & Co., London. Here we have 'Waverley' in two pocket volumes delightfully bound in a soft, nearly flexible leather, bearing the stamp of the Scott monument in Edinburgh. The frontispieces are of Scott and of Melrose Abbey. Finally, a wholly domestic "Homestead Edition" of James Whitcomb Riley's 'Poems and Prose Sketches' is begun by this house with 'Neighborly Poems and Dialect Sketches.' There are nine more to come. No one will grudge the genial author whose humorous face serves as frontispiece such an array of fine linen and handsome print. But it is a subscription work, and, like Wordsworth's cloud, must move the purchaser altogether if it move at all.

The current number of the *Portfolio* (Macmillan) is a monograph on "The Earlier Work of Titian," by Claude Phillips, competently written and well illustrated, as is usual with this valuable publication. What will be likely to surprise the lover of Titian is the number of that artist's best loved pictures that are included in his "earlier works," so that one wonders what will be left of equal charm and interest to illustrate the study of his "later work," which we are promised. The surprise is lessened, however, when we reflect that Titian lived nearly a century and painted to the end, and that his "earlier work" therefore includes everything he did up to the time he was fifty. Probably few artists have produced their best work after that age. The last work mentioned here is the "Peter Martyr," and Titian was about fifty-one when it was painted.

Franz Hanfstaengl has begun the publication of a series of "Pictures in the National Gallery, London," which is to appear in ten or twelve parts (the statements in the Prospectus and in Part I. are at variance as to the number); each part to contain about ten full-page and five smaller photogravure plates, and to be accompanied by a descriptive text "written (unofficially) by Charles L. Eastlake, Keeper and Secretary N. G." The classified order of the pictures themselves on the walls of the gallery will be maintained in the publication, and Part I. deals with the early work of the Florentine School. Doubtless later parts, which will deal with the more developed works of the great epoch, will prove more interesting to the general public; but the present instalment will be welcome to students. The reproductions are good upon the whole, though somewhat disappointingly black, and misleadingly so to persons not acquainted with early Florentine art. The National Gallery is so rich that the whole work should be one of great value. It may be well to note that a good catalogue of the gallery exists in Cook's Handbook, published by Macmillan.

A holiday book which the children will like, even if artists do not, is 'Little Grown-Ups,' by Maud Humphrey and Elizabeth Tucker (Frederick A. Stokes Company). Miss Humphrey's water-colors show decided cleverness in many ways, but her children are too like dolls, and she seems to have little or no decorative sense. The result is a bright-colored, bonbon-box prettiness which is hardly artistic, though we have no doubt it will prove popular.

It is to be regretted that more judgment was not exercised before the publication of De Knight's 'History of the Currency of the Country and of the Loans of the United States.' Its issue as a Treasury document will give it the stamp of authority, but the contents deserve no such endorsement. A few books have been consulted by the writer, and Bayley's compilation of 1880 is heavily drawn upon for what relates to the loans; but the result is in no sense a history—it is not even a good account of the mechanism of currency circulation or national borrowings. To find such writers as Sumner and Berkey joined as of equal authority is as comical as is the dependence placed on David Jayne Hill, LL.B. There is no attempt at original research, or even at consulting the usual and accessible authorities, such as Bancroft. Mr. De Knight must have scampered through Sumner and, perhaps, Gouge, though the poverty of matter shows only too clearly that he did not appreciate the possibilities of the question, and has not in consequence been able to realize them. Some of the tables are good, but they may be found in the Register's report each year, and did not require a new setting. When the energy of Government finds expression and measure in the crudest compilations, such as this work, it is only right to call attention to misspent time and money. A mere glance at Bullock's reprint of Douglass's 'Discourse on the Colonial Currencies' shows how far De Knight has fallen short of doing what the opportunity called for, and what could have been well done in the Register's office, where the material undoubtedly exists.

A valuable contribution to physical chemistry is offered by Dr. Wilder D. Bancroft in his brochure of 250 pages on 'The Phase Rule' (*Journal of Physical Chemistry*, Ithaca, N. Y.). The work is a non-mathematical exposition of the phenomena of qualitative equilibrium from the standpoint of the phase rule of Gibbs and the theorem of Le Chatelier. Starting with the definition that a "phase" is a mass chemically and physically homogeneous, or of uniform concentration, the number of phases in a system being the number of such masses, the author proceeds to the discussion of systems of one, two, three, and four components with a clearness and thoroughness on the whole very satisfactory. The entire omission of mathematical treatment will be a disappointment to many readers, though it may perhaps commend the book to a few. Aside from this, Dr. Bancroft's work is a complete and admirable presentation of the subject which will be welcome by all students.

The principal article in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, number ten, is an ethnological study of the West African races, by L. Frobenius. It is illustrated by a series of ten charts showing the distribution through the whole continent of the different kinds of shields used by the natives (as those of skin, leather, and wood), the bows, dress, houses, and masks, to indicate especially the extent of the Malay-Nigritian culture. A supplemental number contains a description of the physical features and the geology of northern and central Persia, by A. F. Stahl. The accompanying maps, which are of unusual excellence, not only show the geologic formation and the relative heights of the country, but also the principal roads, telegraph lines and stations, post-houses, inns, wells, and the places where useful minerals have been found.

Hatcher's explorations in Patagonia are highly creditable to Princeton University, whence the funds for his voyage were chiefly provided, and to the Bureau of Ethnology, which furthered his ends in various ways. He went out first in January, 1896, and returned in July, 1897. He has now set forth on a second expedition, after having left two reports on his observations—one of a more technical nature, on the geology of the region, published in the *American Journal of Science* for November; the other, more popular and descriptive, in the *National Geographic Magazine* for the same month. The deposit that yielded the largest return in fossils is the Santa Cruz formation, a great series of horizontal strata of fresh-water or continental origin. It stretches eastward from the base of the mountains to the sea, and is deeply transsected by valleys. After these valleys had been carved, the region was depressed, and during subsequent elevation heavy morainic deposits were strewn forward from the mountains, and a stony overwash was spread over the plains, while at various levels the sea cut strong shore benches, now seen in the conspicuous terraces by which the plains descend to the Atlantic. The account of the Canoe Indians living on the fiords of the western coast, and of the Tehuelche Indians of the plains, is graphic and instructive. Altogether, the two reports are most interesting.

Dr. Karl Federn is the latest German apostle of Walt Whitman. In the Vienna *Zeit* of October 16 and 23 he sets forth his reasons for imposing Whitman on American opinion as the greatest poet this country has ever produced. More than that, Whitman was "the soundest personality, most abounding in strength and love, most rejoicing in life, since Wolfgang Goethe walked the earth." This is a good instance of the growth of the legend. Five minutes' conversation with Whitman would have made it impossible to mention two such intellects in the same breath. To pass from the reading of Whitman's chummy letters in Donaldson's recent book on 'Walt Whitman the Man' to Federn's "He knew how to make his own the best of the Art and Science of our time," is to experience an acute sense of the ridiculous. Dr. Federn offers incidental translations of Whitman's rhythms, but condemns those which have heretofore appeared in German.

Among the lectures to be given at the Imperial Institute, London, during the current season are the following: "Electric Balloon Signalling Applied to Scientific Exploration in Arctic and Antarctic Expeditions," by E. S. Bruce; "The Mineral Resources of British Columbia and the Yukon," by A. J. MacMillan of Rossland, B. C.; "Canada's Metals," by Professor W. C. Roberts-Austen, F.R.S., and "The Petroleum Sources of the British Empire." At the opening meeting on the 19th of November, a paper was to have been read by Mr. F. G. Jackson of the Jackson-Harmsworth Expedition, upon the subject of "Three Years in the Arctic."

The Elizabethan Literary Society opened its fourteenth session in London on the 10th of November with a paper upon "The Shaksperian Drama Abroad." The lecturer was Mr. Sidney Lee, editor of the 'Dictionary of National Biography,' whose monograph upon Shakspere in the Dictionary has met with such favor that a demand has been made for its separate publication. During the session two dramatic recitals will be given: "Hamlet," by Mr. Henry Herbert, and "Romeo

and Juliet," by Mr. Stanley Philp. But this is not all. Living up to their motto, "Societie is the happinesse of life," ("Love's Labour Lost," act iv., scene 2), the enthusiastic members will also meet at eight o'clock on Friday evenings, to read the plays of Dekker and Lyly. The meetings are held at Toynbee Hall. Any Americans who may wish to join the society can communicate with the Honorary Secretary, Mr. James Ernest Baker, 22 Tavistock Place, Tavistock Square, London.

The Royal Geographical Society proposes to have a special meeting in London during its present session, in connection with the four-hundredth anniversary of the discovery of the Cape Route to India by Vasco da Gama in 1497.

The London *Daily Mail* continues to be a most successful venture in half-penny journalism. Its circulation has recently advanced by 50,000 a day, and now reaches 375,000. It is a bright little paper, and has made its way not only among humble folk, but among the well-to-do classes likewise.

Henceforth all women who wish to pursue their studies in the University of Göttingen must either show by satisfactory testimonials, or prove by an informal examination (a so-called *colloquium*), that they have the necessary preparation. The professors then make a report to the pro-rector, who gives his decision. Other German universities are adopting similar regulations, the object of which is to exclude those who are not fitted to enter with profit to themselves or with honor to the institution. These more rigid rules are a sign of progress, since they indicate a tendency to place women on the same footing as men in their relations to the university.

—We have often spoken of the usefulness of the fiction catalogues issued by the Boston Public Library, and their value is so widely recognized that it is perhaps unnecessary to comment on the announcement that a list of the novels added since 1893 (including many old books) has been published. There are, however, changes of taste in selection to be noted, as well as in methods of cataloguing and printing. As regards the last, we observe a serious deterioration in that, contrary to the almost universal practice, titles, authors, and explanatory words are all printed in the same type. Moreover, we find the cumbrous octavo page retained, though the Brookline experiment has proved the great superiority of the smaller form. Among the blunders which have caught our eye is entry of two books ascribed in the last edition to A. S. Hardy, under Shepherd, S.W. They were written by Mrs. Weitzel, the wife of the late assistant pastor of Plymouth Church. A similar error is putting the books of "Christian Reid" under Fisher instead of Tiernan. Marie Corelli is given the name of "Minnie Mackay," though she protested against being so honored in a letter to the press published in January, 1892. On the other hand, "Leslie Keith" (Miss Johnston) is accepted as a real name, while the two ladies who write as "E. D. Gerard" are entered under Gerard and an incorrect spelling of the name of one of them. Alexandre Dumas the elder and Alexandre Davy Dumas are given as distinct persons. But the oddest statement, considering the criticism which the location implies, is the classification of Gilmore's 'Advance Guard of Western Civilization' as a novel. We notice, also, that many well-known works, though on the shelves, are inaccessible through the title-list. Among these are 'Gil Blas,' 'Verdant Green,' 'Joseph Andrews,' and 'David Grieve.'

—In noticing the successive volumes of the 'Jesuit Relations' (Cleveland: Burrows Brothers Co.) we have so far neglected to comment upon the excellence of Mr. Thwaites's prefaces. It would be absurd to expect an index with each instalment; and until a general table of names and matters is furnished at the end of the work, this brief epitome of the narrative answers perfectly well. Volume ix. brings down Le Jeune's Relation of 1636 to the end of its first part, and covers the closing months of Champlain's life. We look to these letters for something more than a record of missionary progress; we look to them also for a description of the Indians, for notes of natural history, and for tidings of colonial growth. Heretofore we have confined attention pretty closely to what the Jesuits say of the natives and their conversion. The subject-matter of the present volume encourages us to turn towards those social aspects of Canadian life which are illustrated by the Relations. Le Jeune cannot be accused of concealing the real difficulties of the undertaking from his superior at home. He has already in the most graphic manner described the perversity of the savages and the extent of the language difficulty. But at heart he is hopeful, and when anything fortunate happens he makes the most of it. In this case his eighth chapter deals with "The Present State of New France on the Great River St. Lawrence." His first sentence is a Te Deum: "Il me semble qu'en contēplant le progrez des affaires de la Nouvelle Frāce, ie voy sortir une Aurore des profondes tenebres de la nuict, laquelle embellisāt de ses rayons dorez la surface de la terre, se change à la parfin en ce grand Ocean de lumiere que le Soleil apporte." At first the country was a mere storehouse for the skins of dead animals. The subject of private title was unsettled in France; famine and the English equally molested the few colonists; in a word, "les Lys y mouroient en leur naissance." Now, however, the calamities of that time are forgotten in the midst of a mild and peaceful prosperity. Many settlers have come in, the soil along the river is fertile, and in most respects the conditions of life are easier about Quebec than in France. A few libertine spirits have made their appearance, but apparently none so drunken or blasphemous that a short time spent on the *chevalet* proved a futile corrective. Le Jeune is always enthusiastic over the St. Lawrence. One panegyric of Champlain and another of the beaver are among the striking passages of his report for this year.

—There has been much dispute about the authorship of the curious little Latin treatise called 'A Question of the Water and of the Land,' generally attributed to Dante. It upholds, with thoroughly mediæval arguments, the proposition that the earth is everywhere higher than the surface of the sea. It came to light only in 1508, when it was published in Venice, under Dante's name, by Moncetti, an Augustinian monk with some pretensions as a mathematician and astronomer. No manuscript of it is known to exist, and Moncetti, who took the liberty of correcting Dante's handiwork *diligenter et accurate*, was a tricky flatterer, whose word has no value whatever. That the treatise was really written by Dante, however, is the ground taken by Charles Hamilton Bromby, who is the first to translate it into English (London: David Nutt); and his view is in accord with the trend of the latest opinion among scholars. Gaspary, in his 'Italian Literature' (i., p. 522), says that "a forger of the sixteenth century who could so write in Dante's manner and with Dante's words," seems to him a great wonder. Still more recently Dr. Edward Moore, whose opinion in these matters has always great weight, has indicated, in his 'Studies in Dante,' a feeling that the manner of using Aristotle and other authorities in this little treatise is so similar to what we know to have been Dante's, as to raise a strong presumption in its favor. The work has therefore now more interest for Dante students than it had a generation ago, and it is a favorable time for a translation of it to appear. We cannot say that we think Mr. Bromby has made the most of his opportunity. To be really valuable, such a translation should have been accompanied by an abundant apparatus, at once expository, historical, and scientific. Mr. Bromby's attempts in these directions can hardly be called serious. The translation appears to be generally accurate enough, though it is in places intelligible only after references to the original (but this is a fault of how many translations!). All Dante's works, great and small, have now been printed in English versions, and we hope some publisher of a good translation of the 'Divine Comedy' will undertake to collect them, and issue them in an edition uniform with that of the great poem.

—A work that for nearly a thousand years —say from A. D. 850 to 1750—enjoyed a popularity almost unparalleled, appears (who knows but for the last time?) in an English dress. It is 'The Consolation of Philosophy of Boëthius,' translated into English prose and verse by H. R. James (London: Elliot Stock). It is on the whole a satisfactory piece of work, though the versification is hardly easy; and makes a pretty book, which anybody will like to put on his shelves. Mr. James mentions that before his there have been "nearly a dozen" English and Anglo-Saxon versions. This statement is probably based on an inspection of Watts and Lowndes, but we can enumerate more: First, King Alfred's; second, Chaucer's; third, that of John Waltionem, or Walton, 1525; fourth, Lydgate's, 1554; fifth, that of "George Colvile, alias Coldewel," 1556; sixth, that of I. T., 1609; seventh, that of S. E. M., 1654; eighth, that of H. Coningsby, 1664; ninth, that of "A Lover of Truth and Virtue," 1674; tenth, Lord Preston's, 1695 (revised 1712); eleventh, Warburton's partial translation; twelfth, W. Causton's, 1730 (improved by Bellamy, 1768); thirteenth, that of the Rev. Philip Ridpath, 1785; fourteenth, R. Duncan's, 1789; fifteenth, that of J. S. Cardale, 1829 (from Alfred's paraphrase). In English no one version has gone through many editions. In French, that of Père René de Ceriziers, published in 1636, appeared in its twelfth edition in 1647, and was the leading one for very many years after that. The translation of Léon Colesse was also often reprinted. That of the dramatist Judicis de Mirandol received a prize from the Academy in 1861. In Italy the translation of the poet Varchi was printed every few years

from 1551 to 1798. In Spain that of Villegas, 1665, is highly extolled. Of versions earlier than Chaucer's, two, into High German and French, are of great linguistic importance. There was one into Hebrew, and a second into French by the author of the 'Roman de la Rose.' Leibniz abridged the work for his private edification. But even Leibniz evidently found the first two of the five books the best, the later ones being too much occupied with metaphysico-logical subtleties. By a noticeable coincidence, along with Mr. James's edition we receive from David Nutt, London, a sumptuous yet modestly tasteful reprint of our No. 5 above, viz., Colvile's 'The Boke of Boecius, called the Comforte of Philosophye, or Wysdome,' but without "the Latin added to the mergentis." The style is simpler than most of the Elizabethan of a generation later, and is pleasing. The metres are in prose; but the translator's marginal glosses afford some compensation. This elegant volume is the fifth of the "Tudor Library," and is edited by Ernest Belfort Bax. Two hundred and fifty copies of it have been printed at the Chiswick Press. Mr. Bax, in an introduction, seems to think that the Christian books attributed to Boëthius may have been written by his son. They are, however, almost unquestionably earlier than the celebrated Boëthius, and are probably by that Boëthius whose wife was Elpis.

—Carlo Tivaroni has completed his critical history of the Italian Risorgimento by the publication of the second and third volumes of his 'L'Italia degli Italiani' (Turin: Roux, Frassati & Co.). We noticed the leading characteristics of this work on the appearance of the first volume, and need only repeat here that it is indispensable for any one who wishes to have the latest material concerning the history of Italy's struggle for independence. Tivaroni preserves throughout a critical and sober spirit, and is able to deal with Mazzini, Cavour, and Garibaldi without the prepossession which usually converts Italian writers into blind partisans of one of them and equally blind enemies of the others. Likewise, he has not allowed the epic qualities of that romantic struggle to divert his attention from its practical and often unideal details. He brings his story down to the entrance of the Italians into Rome in 1870, and then devotes 400 pages of his last volume to a series of monographs on the men of the Risorgimento, including some thirty of the leaders of second rank, besides Victor Emanuel, Cavour, Garibaldi, and Mazzini. We must again express regret that the usefulness of so valuable a work must be greatly restricted owing to its lack of proper indices, headlines, divisions into chapters, and other appurtenances of intelligent publications. Tivaroni belongs to the school of historians who affect to disdain putting their material in artistic form, and who abhor the quality of readableness, as men of science abhor being "popular." It is indeed strange that conscience, which impels such men to spare no time or fatigue in collecting their material, deserts them when they come to present it. They forget that the moment they sit down to write, they place themselves within the sphere of literary laws which will not budge for all their claim of being impartial and scientific. Sig. Tivaroni carries his method out to the smallest details. Ignoring footnotes, he wedges into his text the titles of the books he refers to, but usually fails to give the necessary volume and page. We have come upon one sentence thirty-three lines long (about 350 words), punctuated only by commas, and consisting of original and quoted descriptions of Cavour's personal appearance (iii., 413-14). For a writer to be content with so primitive and awkward a style is to throw away all the helps to perspicacity which the art of writing has invented. We fear, therefore, that, although Sig. Tivaroni's history is a real storehouse of information, it cannot be easily consulted, and will never be widely read; but students must perforce labor through it. It should be added that his 'L'Italia degli Italiani,' embracing the years 1849-70, completes his still more extended history, which goes back to the middle of the eighteenth century. The whole is the most important monument of historical erudition produced in Italy in our time.

RECENT BRITISH POETRY.

It is interesting to find Mrs. Browning, in her lately published letters (under date of October 1, 1844), defending the American poets from the charge of effeminacy, and pointing proudly in their vindication to the now forgotten Cornelius Mathews and his 'Poems on Man.' Even at that day, it seems, there was a demand for something "virile" and "masculine"; and the poets of fifty years ago, who created American literature and who knocked down slavery, were not considered to meet this demand. "Emerson," says Mr. J. J. Chapman, "undoubtedly sent ten thousand sons to the Civil War," and it would be difficult to tell how many more were sent by Whittier and Lowell, while a single such poem as Longfellow's "Psalm of Life" educated a generation in courage; but it is not apparent that the poetry of the whole race of "masculine" poets, from Mathews to Whitman, ever furnished a recruit. Every real art-critic from Joubert to Ruskin has pointed out that the test of great works must be in combining delicacy with power: *Où il n'y a point de délicatesse, il n'y a point de littérature.* Those who fail to see this are like those foreigners who pass by the masterpieces of the world as brought together in the Salon Carré at the Louvre, and go into ecstasies over the row of bulky and florid Rubenses in the gallery just outside.

Mr. George Meredith is one of the poets habitually approved for the "masculine" quality. It is to his credit that he has banished from his 'Selected Poems' (Scribners) the most exaggerated and fantastic. To get rid of large words and involutions is beyond him, but these are at least minimized, and the work stands at its best. His exquisite observation of nature is here, and his yearning after a high philosophy of life; yet the result is not adequate, for he has neither the joy of the pietist nor the placidity of the philosopher. Browning and Tennyson, each in his way, scored a triumph and attained to peace. Mr. Meredith does not attain it, but he at least points out the way towards it. We must accept science, must look facts in the face, must tolerate no lies; and this is as far as we can go; we must accept things as they are and talk no nonsense. If this seems insufficient in an age which has produced Emerson's "The Problem" and Browning's "Rabbi ben Ezra," that is not Mr. Meredith's fault; he does what he can. In one thing only he has equalled or even surpassed Browning, the continuous and absorbing movement of a narrative, and this in only one poem, doubtless his masterpiece, "The Nuptials of Attila." That this takes its movement and even its form out of Hodgkin's rhymed version of the Latin prose of Jornandez, is perhaps no more of a reproach than for Shakspere to borrow the theme of "Hamlet" or Goethe the tradition of Faust; although it doubtless brought some shock to those who for the first time came upon the original. We have long since paid tribute to this fine poem, with the bold sweep of its opening—

> "Flat as to the eagle's eye
> Earth hung under Attila."

As if to show that the strong can give forth sweetness, the author himself selects also the following example of the domestic muse (p. 61):

MARIAN.

I.

She can be as wise as we,
And wiser when she wishes;
She can knit with cunning wit,
And dress the homely dishes.
She can flourish staff or pen,
And deal a wound that lingers;
She can talk the talk of men,
And touch with thrilling fingers.

II.

Match her ye across the sea,
Natures fond and fiery;
Ye who zest the turtle's nest
With the eagle's eyrie.
Soft and loving is her soul,
Swift and lofty soaring;
Mixing with its dove-like dole
Passionate adoring.

III.

Such a she who'll match with me?
In flying or pursuing,
Subtle wiles are in her smiles
To set the world a-wooing.
She is steadfast as a star,
And yet the maddest maiden:
She can wage a gallant war,
And give the peace of Eden.

'Poems by the late John Lucas Tupper, selected and edited by William Michael Rossetti' (Longmans), form the memorial of a young poet and artist who was a member of the once-famous Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood. His poems, such as they are, do not now carry the weight which they perhaps bore to the readers of the *Germ*, but the following wild, imaginative picture (p. 15) is worth giving, as having been extremely admired by Dante Rossetti, who declared that if Poe had written the poem it would have enjoyed world-wide celebrity. It seems curious, however, that Rossetti did not miss Poe's music:

EDEN AFTER SIXTY CENTURIES.

There are rows of poplars
Down the garden walks;
There are cedars standing
On the dewy lawns;
They have waited many
Mornings of the Spring;
Many swallows fly there,
Many birds sing;
And now is Summer.

Here be great white lilies
Leaning down their stalks.
The roses, like lamps,
Standing on their stems,
Burning out their spirit
From morning unto even,
Are dying and born,
And all the perfume given
Is given to waste.

The flowers upon the trees
Are mixed with withered flowers,
And black shrivelled seeds
Of last year's growing.
There is no knowing
How long time ago—
If there were hours
And flowers did grow—
A hand took the flowers.
. . . . . .

The palm tree is weeping,
The gums ever dropping,
The long lawns sleeping,
Nothing is dying,
Growth is not stopping,
Cumbered with nothing,
The low lawns are lying
In their green clothing.

He must be coming.
These must be waiting.
Are the bees not humming?
Are they not translating
The golden pollen
From flower to flower?
Are they not debating
In converse sullen
About the hour?

We owe also to the editorship of Mr. William Rossetti a volume by his sister Christina entitled 'Maude: Prose and Verse; 1850' (Chicago: Stone). It is a tale for girls, interspersed with poems, most of which have been previously published, though the story itself was never before printed; and it was written in the author's nineteenth year. Maude is a young girl represented as foolish, vain, and sinful, and she dies penitent in the last chapter. Most readers will probably concur with the editor when he says (p. 5): "If some readers opine that all this shows Christina Rossetti's mind to have been at that date overburdened with conscientious scruples of an extreme and even of a wire-drawn kind, I share in their opinion. . . . So far as my own views of right and wrong go, I cannot see that the much reprehended Maude commits a single serious fault from title-page to finis."

If any one wishes to see a real reproduction of Poe, he will find it less easily in Tupper than in Francis Thompson's 'New Poems' (Boston: Copeland & Day), in such a poem as the "Mistress of Vision" (p. 8):

Where is the land of Luthany,
And where the region Elenore?
I do faint therefor.
"When to the new eyes of thee
All things by immortal power,
Near or far,
Hiddenly
To each other linkèd are,
That thou canst not stir a flower
Without troubling of a star;
When thy song is shield and mirror
To the fair snake-curlèd Pain,
Where thou dar'st affront her terror
That on her thou may'st attain
Perséan conquest; seek no more,
O seek no more!
Pass the gates of Luthany, tread the region of Elenore!"

But those who founded high hopes on Mr. Thompson's earlier poems, and thought that under improved conditions his really fine mind would clarify itself and yield sweeter and more pellucid waters, must be still left in uncertainty. The habit of the weird, the involved, the distorted, has gone too far, and, in this volume as in the other, the traits of sweetness and simplicity are quite exceptional. What can be said of an author who, even now, fills his pages with lines so needlessly and defiantly repulsive as these, under the name of "An Anthem of Earth" (p. 89)?

The incredible, with bloody clutch and feet
Clinging the painful juts of jaggèd faith.
Science, old noser in its prideful straw,
That with anatomising scalpel tents
Its three-inch of thy skin, and brags—"All's bare,"
The eyeless worm, that boring works the soil,
Making it capable for the crops of God;
Against its own dull will
Ministers poppies to our troublous thought,
A Balaam come to prophecy—parables,
Nor of its parable itself is ware,
Grossly unwotting; all things has expounded
Reflux and influx, counts the sepulchre
The seminary of being, and extinction
The Ceres of existence: it discovers
Life in putridity, vigour in decay;
Dissolution even, and **disintegration.**

Here the controlling thought, when we come to it, is good, but how altogether unpleasing the process! Yet who would believe that the same pen could write these sweet and gracious lines—the prayer of a little child (p. 97)?

EX ORE INFANTIUM.

Little Jesus, wast Thou shy
Once, and just so small as I?
And what did it feel to be
Out of Heaven, and just like me?
Didst Thou sometimes think of *there*,
And ask where all the angels were?
I should think that I would cry
For my house all made of sky;
I would look about the air,
And wonder where my angels were;
And at waking 'twould distress me—
Not an angel there to dress me!
Hadst Thou ever any toys
Like us little girls and boys?
And didst Thou play in Heaven with all
The angels that were not too tall,
With stars for marbles? Did the things
Play Can you see me? through their wings?
And did Thy Mother let Thee spoil
Thy robes with playing on *our* soil?
How nice to have them always new
In Heaven, because 'twas quite clean blue!
Didst Thou kneel at night to pray,
And didst Thou join Thy hands, this way?
And did they tire sometimes, being young,
And make the prayers seem very long?
. . . . . .
And did Thy Mother at the night
Kiss Thee, and fold the clothes in right?
And didst Thou feel quite good in bed,
Kissed, and sweet, and Thy prayers said?
Thou canst not have forgotten all
That it feels like to be small,
And Thou knowest I cannot pray
To Thee in my father's way—
When Thou wast so little, say,
Couldst Thou talk Thy Father's way?

The Queen's Jubilee in London, which undoubtedly kept the poets and philosophers in the background, brought forth only one strain of vigorous verse during its passing; this being the poem of a man too thoughtful and too accomplished, we regret to say, to be widely known beyond his immediate circle. Mr. Theodore Watts-Dunton (formerly Watts) is indeed known to some Americans as the former literary critic of the *Athenæum*, or as the writer of the fine essay on Poetry in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' or as the author of some of the finest sonnets in the English language, or, finally, as the friend and house-mate of Mr. Swinburne; but he offers one of the repeated illustrations of the truth that some of the rarest qualities, whether of wits or wines, are not readily transportable across the ocean. His first published book, indeed, is his 'Jubilee Greeting at Spithead to the Men of Greater Britain' (London: Bodley Head), in which there is as racy a flavor of salt air as in anything of Kipling's, with a far finer touch. But we turn by preference for quotation to these two noble closing sonnets, addressed not to children of the Empire alone, but to a wider public (p. 30):

THE BREATH OF AVON.

(To English-speaking Pilgrims on Shakspere's Birthday.)

I.

Whate'er of woe the Dark may hide in womb
For England, mother of kings of battle and song—
Rapine, or racial hate's mysterious wrong,
Blizzard of Chance, or fiery dart of Doom—
Let breath of Avon, rich of meadow-bloom,
Bind her to that great daughter sever'd long—
To near and far-off children young and strong—
With fetters woven of Avon's flower perfume.
Welcome, ye English-speaking pilgrims, ye
Whose hands around the world are joined by him,
Who make his speech the language of the sea,
Till winds of Ocean waft from rim to rim
The Breath of Avon: let this great day be
A Feast of Race no power shall ever dim.

II.

From where the steeds of Earth's twin oceans toss
Their manes along Columbia's chariot-way;
From where Australia's long blue billows play;
From where the morn, quenching the Southern Cross,
Startling the frigate-bird and albatross
Asleep in air, breaks over Table Bay—
Come hither, pilgrims, where these rushes sway
'Tween grassy banks of Avon soft as moss!
For, if ye found the breath of Ocean sweet,
Sweeter is Avon's earthy, flowery smell,
Distill'd from roots that feel the coming spell
Of May, who bids all flowers that lov'd him meet
In meadows that, remembering Shakspere's feet,
Hold still a dream of music where they fell.

'Opals,' by Olive Constance (Bodley Head), has a striking poem on the music of Dvorák (p. 73); and Dollie Radford, in her 'A Light Load' (Mathews), has her usual clear, sweet touch. Mrs. Radford represents, with her husband, that rare combination to which the Browning letters are just now directing attention—the marriage of two poets—and with such results as this (p. 46):

HEART AND HOME.

Oh, what know they of harbors
Who toss not on the Sea!
They tell of fairer havens,
But none so fair there be

As Plymouth town outstretching
Her quiet arms to me—
Her breast's broad welcome spreading
From Mewstone to Penlee.

And with this home-thought, darling,
Come crowding thoughts of thee—
Oh, what know they of harbors
Who toss not on the Sea?

Among all the countless books of English poetry there is but one which gives to the American a single vivid glimpse of the average rural Englishman of the lower class; slow of comprehension, slow either to begin fighting or to leave off, yet able to die unflinchingly for friend or for country, by land or sea. That book is "A Shropshire Lad," by A. E. Housman (Bodley Head), a work which strikes one at first as being limited in compass and perhaps a bit commonplace, but proves itself at last to have just the commonplaceness of the primitive human heart. In a series of simple lays, the longest but a page or two, and the gayest tinged with sadness, it gives a continuous kinetoscopic view of the one man, the Shropshire Lad. In the vigorous verses we quote he is on his way to London (p. 53):

As through the wild green hills of Wyre
The train ran, chasing sky and shire,
And far behind, a fading crest,
Low in the forsaken West
Sank the high reared head of Clee,
My hand lay empty on my knee.
Aching on my knee it lay:
That morning half a shire away,
So many an honest fellow's fist
Had well nigh wrung it from the wrist.
Hand, said I, since now we part
From fields and men we know by heart,
For strangers' faces, strangers' lands—
Hand, you have held true fellows' hands.
Be clean then; rot before you do
A thing they'd not believe of you.
You and I must keep from shame
In London streets the Shropshire name:
On banks of Thames they must not say
Severn breeds worse men than they.

American scholarship may take some satisfaction in the editing, by Dr. F. I. Carpenter of the University of Chicago, of the volume, 'English Lyric Poetry,' in the Warwick Library (London: Blackie). His preliminary essay is not merely studious and thoughtful—not merely full of good phrases, as when he characterizes the Elizabethan lyric as "a holiday lyric," or speaks of the "self-conscious artlessness" of Herrick—but it has method, solidity, and clearness, and is withal wholly readable. How far Dr. Carpenter is responsible for the text and the proof-reading is not made clear; there are, however, defects in both. In Peele's fine poem "The Man at Arms," instead of "age his arms," we should read "old age his arms" (p. 58); in Vaughan's beautiful

"They are all gone into a world of light," the flown bird does not sing in a "fair well," but in a "fair dell" (p. 25); and the famous song "O waly, waly," should not close with Allingham's version, "And the green grass growing over me," but with the far more impressive line accepted by Professor Child, "For a maid again I'll never be."

'Poems by A. and L. [Arabella and Louisa Shore]' (Richards) is mainly a reprint of some that were previously published under the same initials, one or both of their authors being now dead. They consist in part of dramas which show undoubted strength, although far less than is to be seen in those of the other two gifted English women who masque under the united name of Michael Field; and in part of war lyrics called forth by the Crimean war. It is a curious commentary on contemporary feeling that the war which these poets described, forty years ago, as (p. 341)

"No more the passionate triumph of an hour,
But the grave victory of world-redeeming power,"

should be thus characterized in a note by the present editors: "We are less inclined to dwell on them [the war lyrics] because we have learned to regard the Crimean war, in spite of the triumph of our soldiers, not as a just cause and a glorious achievement so much as a deplorable blunder" (p. 335). But that one or the other of these two sisters had also a very light touch, is seen in this graceful translation from Coppée (p. 356):

MORCEAU À QUATRE MAINS.

The windows open on the park
Where the tall trees, from glade to glade,
With arching foliage greenly dark,
Bathe all the summer lawns in shade.

I turn about to rest anew
My head in yonder easy chair,
When, lo! the landscape still I view,
Reflected in the mirror there.

Idly I smile, as o'er and o'er
Two parks to right and left of me,
Now through the glass, now thro' the door,
Repeat each other, tree for tree;

And, by a pretty sort of chance,
The two young sisters sit apart,
Complete in dainty elegance,
To play the music of Mozart.

Just as the landscape double seems,
The other's copy each appears,
And the same golden jewel gleams
Repeated in the four small ears.

Their eyes upon the keys are bent,
So I may scan, as I repose,
The same rose in their tresses blent,
And on each mouth too the same rose.

And, sometimes, rising from my place,
I steal to the piano near,
And lean upon the ebon case
To see them rather than to hear.

Mr. Alfred Ainger, in editing a definitive edition of the 'Poems of Thomas Hood' (Macmillan), has perhaps conferred a doubtful service on the fame of that most interesting man. Most of the poems collected, especially of the more humorous order, can excite but a feeble interest in the modern reader; and a single thin volume would readily contain all those on which Hood's permanent reputation will rest. Such a volume would coincide practically with that published by Longman in 1827—Hood's first and last volume of serious verse, 'The Plea of the Midsummer Fairies, and Other Poems.' Mr. Ainger tells us in his preliminary memoir that this book fell all but dead from the press, and that the author bought up as many of the "remainder" copies as he was able, to save them from the butter shops. The fate of Thoreau's 'Week' was scarcely more pathetic. It seems almost incredible that the exquisite minor poems contained in this volume—as "Fair Ines," the "Ode to Autumn," and that remarkable sonnet on "Silence," so often attributed to Poe—should have so thoroughly escaped notice. The neglect was largely due, perhaps, to Hood's acquired reputation as a joker, an impression so controlling that people actually distrusted his more serious words, and Mr. Ainger tells us in his memoir (p. lxxvii) that Palgrave, in the first edition of his 'Golden Treasury,' actually omitted from the tender poem, "The Death-Bed," the touching stanza—

"Our very hopes belied our fears,
Our fears our hopes belied.
We thought her dying when she slept
And sleeping when she died"—

and explained in his note that this was because it was "ingenious," and that ingenuity and pathos were mutually destructive. It is a comfort to think that in a moment of returning sanity this stanza was replaced.

The myriad readers of the 'Golden Treasury' of the late Sir Francis Palgrave could but greet with pleasure the final publication of the long-promised second series (Macmillan), containing selections from the work of authors who were excluded from the first series as living in 1861. The place of the delayed addition has been partially filled for years, as far as the American edition of the 'Golden Treasury' is concerned, by an excellent compilation made by Mr. John Foster Kirk, and appended as Book Fifth in the Philadelphia edition of 1884; but it was of course interesting to see what Prof. Palgrave finally substituted. He apparently intended, in 1861, to include American poets in his range, for he mentioned in his preface of that date the names of Lowell and Bryant; but this plan was fortunately abandoned—we say fortunately, because it would have made the field too large, and the increasing divergence between English and American themes and properties would have introduced new complications. Even as it is, the reader must acknowledge with regret that the new series fails to command, at first glance, the confidence inspired by the first one, while it can hardly avoid including much that is beautiful. The editor had the whole range of contemporary and recent British verse to draw upon, except that he was not permitted—a serious prohibition, truly—to use anything by Mr. Swinburne. Yet the only living authors from whom he actually drew are the Duke of Argyll, Gerald Massey, Sir Lewis Morris, Frederick Tennyson, Aubrey de Vere, and Richard Wilton. He could not, perhaps, have been expected to include the very latest-born of the Muse, but he did not insert one word by Sir Edwin Arnold, Alfred Austin, Philip James Bailey, Austin Dobson, or George Meredith among the living, or by Alford, Faber, Sterling, or William Morris among the dead. Yet more amazing to relate, he took but one solitary extract from Landor, while finding room for ten from Patmore, twelve from Barnes, fifteen from Christina Rossetti, and seventeen from Arthur O'Shaughnessy. Surely an editor who thus selected his Golden Treasury must have followed the suggestion of Emerson, and have written upon the lintels of his doorpost "Whim!"

THE ENGLISH STAGE.

An Account of the Victorian Drama. By Augustin Filon. Translated from the French by Frederic Whyte. London: John Milne; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

At first sight it may seem curious that one of the most entertaining, appreciative, discriminating, and instructive of recent books upon the English stage should have been written by a Frenchman; but M. Augustin Filon differs from the vast majority of contemporary theatrical chroniclers in being not only a genuine student of his subject, without "axes to grind," but a man possessing good general scholarship, true critical faculty, and a liberal endowment of the sparkling Gallic wit. He has, moreover, the special qualification of long and close familiarity with the proceedings of all the principal London playhouses. The only weak spots in his work are those in which he has supplemented the results of his own keen observation by information drawn from outside sources. So long as he takes Mr. William Archer for a guide, he is in tolerably safe hands, but it is a different matter altogether when he borrows the inspiration of others—Mr. Clement Scott, for instance. What he has to say about the drama of the first half of the century, the days of Macready, Knowles, Kean, and Jerrold and the privileged theatres, is mostly an echo of old voices, with here and there an incisive comment, as when he remarks that the criticism of Hazlitt and Leigh Hunt is rather a comparison of actors than an appreciation or a classification of plays. It is in the pages of Charles Lamb alone that he can find the expression of a general idea.

There is no lack of this power of generalization in M. Filon's narrative or comment when he comes to his own period of the Victorian era. His view covers the whole field, and he describes the salient features in it with unerring instinct and admirable point and vivacity. Nothing could be much better in its way than his survey of what he calls the "abortive renaissance" dating from Macready's Covent Garden experiment. As a Frenchman, of course, he is immensely and justly sarcastic over Bulwer Lytton's travesties of French character in "Richelieu" and "The Lady of Lyons," but this little manifestation of heat does not in the least affect the truth of his pitiless exposure of the pinchbeck quality of these plays, and of "Money," with their false sentiment, conspicuous artifice, indifference to fact, in nature or history, and gross appeals to class prejudices. "A Gothic Democrat," he calls Lytton, who basely tried to flatter the proletariat by pretending to attack the society in whose front rank it was his prime ambition to shine. The assaults are savage, but not reckless, being fortified by plentiful and pungent illustration and delivered with delightful grace and skill. His summary of the general characteristics of the drama of the fifties, of the stock properties, so to speak, which, in various disguises, were presented over and over again with damnable, but unconscious, iteration, is, in spite of its humorous exaggeration, remarkably comprehensive and perspicacious. The paralysis of imagination which then prevailed M. Filon attributes in part to a revival of Puritanism, in a mild form, on the accession of the Queen. It is doubtful whether an Englishman, in full touch with the national humor, would have discovered grounds for this suspicion, but the idea is ingenious, and furnishes occasion for some excellent raillery concerning the vague

functions of the censor and the disastrous consequences of the Phariseeism which winked at the shameless theft of French plays while insisting upon their purification. Poor Mr. Tom Taylor is handled with a contempt which, in his capacity of adapter, he richly deserves, and the ingenious Mr. Boucicault, whose Irish dramas are treated with notable acumen and felicity, is neatly catalogued as "plagiarism incarnate." From the consideration of these and kindred authors, M. Filon proceeds naturally to the subject of British burlesque, a monstrosity of which even Englishmen are ashamed. It does not merit even the contemptuous notice which he bestows upon it, but it was, perhaps, worth while to point out that it has lowered the public standard of decency by its license in the matter of provocative female costume.

But the prevailing note of M. Filon's book is not one of disparagement. On the contrary, he is far more sanguine concerning the future of English comedy—the possibility of future English tragedy does not seem to occur to him—than most contemporary critics. He recognizes the existence and gradual, though halting, development of a representative modern English drama—a noteworthy admission from a writer of his nationality and authority—and traces its origin to the production of the Robertsonian plays by the Bancrofts at the little Prince of Wales's Theatre. He is as wide awake as anybody to the patent defects of what has been called the "cup and saucer" comedy, but, with characteristic discrimination, attaches far more importance to the fundamental truth of individual personages and scenes and the essentially national qualities of the humor. His analysis of "Caste," "Society," "School," and "Ours" is admirable, and he points out, rather mischievously, the revolution which prosperity effected in Robertson's social theories. His chapter about the Grub Street Bohemia of those days, of which the younger Hood, Robert Brough, H. J. Byron, W. S. Gilbert, and Robertson himself were among the principal denizens, is delightful.

One of the most brilliant essays in the volume treats of the work of W. S. Gilbert. It is brimful of the shrewdest analysis and the frankest admiration of that pungent writer's varied abilities, without ever losing sight of his limitations. The criticism of his earlier plays is singularly acute, and the appreciation of that fantastic vein in which he has won his most enduring successes uncommonly keen. No element of the Gilbertian humor, except, perhaps, the peculiar phase of it which finds its amplest expression in "Patience," has escaped him. The concluding sentence in which he sums up his subject deserves quotation. Mr. Gilbert, he writes, has "remained a lawyer all his life, by his professional scepticism, by the variety of his dialectical resources, by his proneness to subtle distinctions and interpretations, by his cleverness in setting up appearances against realities, and words against ideas, but, above all, by his curious faculty for losing good cases and winning bad ones."

The career of Sir Henry Irving is followed with similar perspicuity. It is scarcely too much to say that no juster estimate of the great English actor and manager has ever been printed than that of M. Filon. Everybody will not agree with all that he says of Sir Henry's Shaksperian impersonations, but on the main issue he will encounter few dissenters. Some of his descriptive touches are veritable strokes of genius, as, for instance, when, in speaking of Irving's sympathy with mediæval and ecclesiastical asceticism, he remarks that no other man could have played *Becket* so well as he, with the possible exception of Cardinal Manning. His whole study of the growth of the man, intellectually and histrionically, from the period of "The Two Roses" to the present day, and of the beneficent influence which he has exerted upon his profession, is at once vivid and exhaustive. His final verdict is that Sir Henry must be accepted as the leader, not only of the English, but the European stage.

The closing essays in the book are devoted to a rapid comparative review of the serious or semi-serious playwrights of the last quarter of a century. The most noticeable feature in them is the high place accorded to Tennyson, not only as a poet, but as the possessor of real dramatic inspiration. M. Filon is much too good a critic to confound the theatrical cleverness of a mere designer of situations with the genius that comprehends the soul of a period and the depths of human passions. He draws a subtile but obviously true distinction between the "critical faculty of the historian and the gift of living over again in imagination the emotions of a century long gone to dust," and illustrates his point by citing Michelet, Macaulay, and Carlyle of the one sort, against Holinshed and Lytton of the other. To enforce his argument he quotes scenes from "The Cup," "Harold," and "Queen Mary," and asserts that Tennyson has been deprived of his proper place among the dramatists by the lack of actors capable of interpreting him. After such bold, clear, and forcible criticism as this, it is rather disappointing to find him ranking Mr. Henry Arthur Jones among the pioneers of the new dramatic era, but it is only fair to assume that in this instance his judgment may have been affected by personal friendship. At all events, the name of Mr. Jones appears at the end of an eminently characteristic and bumptious preface. The sections on the plays of Messrs. Pinero and Grundy are much more acute and judicious, and bring into strong relief the differences between the intellectual and artistic processes of the two men.

Being a professed realist—as he undoubtedly is, after the fashion of the Irishman who remarked that he was a teetotaler, but not a bigoted one—M. Filon is a stanch admirer of Ibsen. In this respect he is clearly a docile pupil of Mr. Archer, whose arguments he reproduces in paraphrase. These are familiar, and need no present discussion. But M. Filon raises the point that the secret of the Norwegian's influence upon the English stage is to be sought in the similarity of the characteristics of the Northern races. Undoubtedly there is such similarity of racial instincts, but it would be as well to demonstrate the existence of the influence before trying to account for it. As a matter of fact, Ibsen in England is still "caviare to the general." Moreover, if it be true that his dramatic personages are Scandinavian types, may it not also be true that, except when they are abnormal, they are universal types, or, in other words, utterly conventional? But the social-problem drama, happily, is already at its last gasp, and its ghost may be allowed to pass without further vexation. The fact remains that M. Filon, who wrote these essays for his countrymen, has furnished them with a charming and instructive book, and that Mr. Whyte has translated it with conspicuous brilliancy, achieving the difficult task of suggesting in the English idiom the snap and sparkle of the French style.

The Central Italian Painters of the Renaissance. By Bernhard Berenson. Putnams. 1897.

Under the above title Mr. Berenson continues the series of small but important books which already includes studies of the painters of Venice and of Florence, and which is to include at least one more volume devoted to the painters of northern Italy. The present volume shows all the qualities—the ingenuity, the subtlety of reasoning, and the wide range and thoroughness of knowledge—which mark the author's work, and make him a person to be reckoned with in all future criticism. His main contention here is, that as the Florentines were preëminently draughtsmen and the Venetians preëminently colorists, so the painters of central Italy, from Duccio of Siena to Raphael of Urbino, were above all illustrators and what he calls "space-composers," and, saving exceptions, of whom Simone Martini as colorist, and Luca Signorelli as draughtsman, are the most important, drew or colored only as well as was absolutely necessary to their end, or as well as they were taught by outside influences.

Mr. Berenson always deals largely in psychology, and here it is difficult for the mere artist or art critic to follow him. His identification of the "religious emotion" in art as the "feeling of oneness with the universe" which is evoked in the spectator when the sense of space is conveyed to him, may or may not be sound psychology, but it is certainly ingenious, and serves for an explanation of the paradox that Perugino, the atheist, is always reckoned among the great religious painters. Every one has felt the charm of the serenely spacious backgrounds of the Umbrian "purists," and when we are told that the religious emotion which these pictures evoke is caused by these very backgrounds, we are set wondering if this may not be the truth, in spite of the technical language in which it is set forth. Is not the sense of space perhaps the nearest thing to a sense of infinity which art can convey, and is not the sense of infinity very nearly what we mean by religious emotion?

Mr. Berenson's division of the elements of art into "Illustration" and "Decoration" is more readily comprehensible, though he uses either word in a sense somewhat different from and broader than that to which we have been accustomed. Illustration is, for him, everything in art which is not purely artistic—everything which depends on "the value the thing represented has elsewhere, whether in the world outside, or in the mind within"—thus including beauty itself, and placing "realism" and "idealism" side by side as merely illustration; while Decoration is made to include not only composition and those qualities of color and chiaroscuro which we have all felt to be "orchestral" or musical and independent of imitation, but also the great qualities of form and movement—the significant drawing of the Florentines—which Mr. Berenson considers also directly to affect the mind and senses of the observer without regard to the intrinsic in-

terest of the objects represented. Of these two great elements of art, the illustrative and the decorative, the illustrative is the one that surely appeals to the average mind; but as it is dependent on the value to the mind of things outside the work of art itself, it is subject to changes of taste and interest. Decoration, on the other hand, exists for itself, and is always equally interesting to those who can perceive it. Hence the illustrators who have represented what no longer interests us are dead, and, except by a few, Duccio is forgotten while Giotto lives. But the illustrators who represent our own ideals and our own world are hugely popular, and Perugino and, above all, Raphael, whom we still understand, are the most loved of painters, while hosts of moderns whose art as such is contemptible exist only because they represent what we care to have shown us. Raphael was the greatest illustrator in all art, hence his popularity. He was also the greatest master of composition that ever lived, hence the profound admiration for him of the few artists to whom that part of the purely artistic side of art seems most important. Mr. Berenson would add that he was the greatest master of space in the history of painting, hence his appeal to the religious. By dint of diligent study of the work of others, he arrived at fine drawing and fine color; but in these lines he was not a creator, and is therefore less sympathetic to most painters than the great Florentines or the great Venetians.

Besides the analysis of central Italian painting, certainly most worthy of attention, which we have thus tried to condense, the volume contains, as do the others of the series, an "Index to the works" of the principal painters of the school. This is, as usual, most valuable, and renders a service to Raphael in relieving him of a number of pictures and frescoes, really almost entirely the work of his pupils, which have inflicted much damage upon his artistic fame almost from his own day to this. Perhaps the attribution which will awaken most dissent is that of the "Sposalizio" at Caen, hitherto universally attributed to Perugino, to Lo Spagna. In an article in the *Gazette des Beaux-Arts* Mr. Berenson has given his reasons for maintaining not only that the picture is not by Perugino, but that it is the copy rather than the original of Raphael's celebrated picture of the same title.

The Old Santa Fé Trail: The Story of a Great Highway. By Col. Henry Inman. Macmillan. 1897. Pp. xviii, 493, plates, cuts, and map.

This book is dedicated to and prefaced by "Buffalo Bill" (W. F. Cody), but the author introduces it to us with some of the wildest statements we have ever heard concerning early Spanish explorers. In the following chapters i. and ii. the founding of Santa Fé is treated with similar looseness, both topographically and chronologically. The American trade doubtless began with Lalande and Pursley, who were before Pike in crossing the plains to Santa Fé, as stated; but where is the evidence that they followed what we understand by the Santa Fé Trail, which was not opened until many years afterwards? Our perplexities increase when we next find Ezekiel Williams lugged in on the strength of Coyner's apocryphal if not mythical 'Lost Trappers.' The author puts him also on the Old Trail, though he is started for the upper Missouri and Yellowstone, fetched down the Arkansas, and thus spirited over an immense extent of country. The "Old Trail" must have been as broad as the plains themselves, if anything like this is what the author means by the name; and nowhere in the book is what historians and geographers know as the Santa Fé caravan route traced in its entirety, as surely we had a right to expect. It is touched upon only here and there, in places known to the author personally, with precision and particularity. It is true that Col. Inman gives us a map of the Trail, but this is too small and slight to convey much more than what everybody knew before, namely, that the road went from Missouri through Kansas to the Arkansas near Great Bend, and up the river; then split at Cimarron Crossing, the most direct route being along the Cimarron to the Canadian and so on into the mountains, the other continuing up the Arkansas to Bent's Fort, thence through Raton Pass, etc. The latter branch became the stage route of later days, and is approximately followed by the railroad. The map, moreover, does not always coincide with the text, nor the text with itself. For example, Chouteau's Island is "on the boundary line of United States and Mexico" (Kansas-Colorado border), on p. 40; "not far from" Cimarron, Kan., on p. 42, but well over into Colorado on the map, thus agreeing with p. 75, where it is fixed "at the mouth of Sand Creek" (the present Big Sandy); p. 483 locates Fort Aubrey at Kendall, Hamilton County, Kas., but the map puts Fort Aubry in Colorado. The map starts the Trail from Leavenworth, Kan.; nothing is easier than to reach the Trail from that point, but the Trail started from Independence, Mo. Where Col. Inman is not obviously wrong he needs confirmation to convince us he is right; we shall continue to turn to such old standbys as Gregg's 'Commerce of the Prairie,' and recover the Santa Fé Trail in terms of modern geography by means of the 1895 edition of Pike's Travels, where the route through Kansas is traced in minute detail.

Our criticism of Col. Inman as historian and geographer is so serious that we are glad to end it in such particulars as the above. He has written a most readable and entertaining book, full of incident to the wild life of the plainsman and the mountaineer, in contact and usually in conflict with the Indian. He is a companionable raconteur; stories of adventure lose nothing in his telling, and possibly gain something in dramatic force. The writer is an old soldier who entered the army in 1857, soon rose from the ranks, and was repeatedly brevetted during the war. He served and has long lived amidst the scenes he describes so well, took part in some of the incidents he narrates, and knew personally many of the famous worthies of the early West, from Kit Carson to Buffalo Bill. They are almost an extinct type, and the biographical sketches with which the book abounds have thus more than a transient interest. The desultory style of composition, observing no sequence of events or of locations, makes it hard to say exactly where to look for the best things in the book; we may point to chapters xv. *et seq.*, where appear Uncle John Smith, Uncle Dick Wooton, Old Bill Williams, Tom Tobin, Jim Bridger, J. P. Beckwourth, the feudal if not viceregal Lucian B. Maxwell, the Bent Brothers, and their several forts. All this is good work, well worth doing, especially as the mythopoetic tendency is already operative on more than one such redoubtable individual, to transfer him from the pale of fact to the realm of romance. Col. Inman's best local color is laid on along the Great Bend of the Arkansas, and thence up to Larned, where he is evidently on familiar ground. Thereabouts he can show you the very trail in the worn earth, point to the prosy corral in the place where once rose the famous Pawnee Rock, and tell you, as you look at the site of Fort Zarah from a Pullman car, that it was named for the youngest son of Major-General Curtis, "who was killed by guerillas somewhere south of Fort Scott, Kansas." It is in just such things as this that the value—the strictly limited value—of the book consists. Even such a simple statement as this is vitiated by the "somewhere," to the grief of the fact-hunter, though perhaps to the joy of the idle story-reader. Why not have said that he was Major-General Henry Z. Curtis, killed in action at Baxter's Spring, Kan., October 5, 1863, and saved us the trouble of looking him up in Heitman's Register?

But we promised to have done with serious criticism of something that is best taken for what it is worth, as camp-fire story-telling. A pretty full table of contents atones to some extent for a trifling index; the chapters have taking head- and tail-pieces, some of which are fair portraits; several stirring full-page plates serve to intensify the realism of the scenes and incidents, and the whole appearance of the book is attractive.

Lumen. By Camille Flammarion. Authorized translation by A. A. M. and R. M. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Back in the early forties a little book, scarcely more than a brochure, was published anonymously in England under the title 'The Stars and the Earth.' It was based on the astronomical fact that, owing to the progressive motion of light, an observer on the earth, or at any other point in the universe, would not see a distant planet as it was at the moment, but as it was when the light by which it was seen had left it. The time required for the light to travel from the planet to the observer might be minutes, hours or years, according to the distance. The author amused himself by showing how a being viewing the earth from one of the more distant stars could see the beginning of human history by the light that had then left the earth, and then, by rapidly approaching the latter, could see the whole course of events going on during his journey. "Omniscience, with respect to the past," he concluded, "becomes identical and *one and the same* with actual omnipresence with regard to space." The book was reprinted in Boston in 1868, with an introduction by the Rev. Thomas Hill.

This idea has been now taken up and worked out with much greater detail by Flammarion in 'Lumen,' but without mention of the English prototype of his conceit. "Lumen" is the soul of a man (a Frenchman, of course), who, after his death, in 1865, flies to the star Capella, and then, looking back to his former abode, is surprised to see King Louis XVI. being led to the scaffold once more, and the scenes of

the French Revolution reënacted before his eyes. Possessed of the power of flying to any point in the universe in a few moments, he can so place himself as to see the world as it was at any past epoch. All this he explains to a rather dull and incredulous "Quaerens," to whom he conveys much information about life in other worlds, transmigration of souls, spheres morally better developed than our own, etc. The book will entertain all readers fond of such speculations as these. Those of us who look forward to the Christian's heaven may not relish the idea of our souls passing from one to another of the curious forms of existence which Flammarion supposes on the different stars; sex being changeable, and the vegetable kingdom at one time taking the place of the animal. Lumen speaks of his life just previous to that on the earth as being in the planetary system of Virgo, where the "inhabitants are slightly inferior to ourselves," and expresses his "hope in the course of the next century to be incarnated in a world dependent on a train of Sirius," where "humanity is more beautiful than that of the earth." In his observations he expresses some curious ideas which we leave the reader to find; but we must say that with all our admiration for the "marvels of spectral analyses," we cannot agree with him in considering them of more value to mankind than "the discoveries of Columbus and of Gutenberg." His belief in a previous life is founded principally on his disbelief in the well-established fact of "intellectual heredity." The most distinct impression left by the book is that all knowledge here amounts to nothing, because we are so limited by our senses, and that eternity will be spent in studying "the domains of creation." To those who know how a Frenchman becomes one of the "Immortals," the reference to it on page 217 is very interesting.

The translation, by two ladies, is noticeably idiomatic and agreeable.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alpers, W. C. The Pharmacist at Work. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Barringer, D. M., and Adams, J. S. The Law of Mines and Mining in the United States. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $7.80.
Barrows, Rev. J. H. Christianity the World-Religion: Lectures Delivered in India and Japan. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Carey, Rosa N. Other People's Lives. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Carus, Paul. Buddhism and its Christian Critics. Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co. $1.25.
Carroll, S. W., and C. F. Around the World Geographical Reader. Primary. The Morse Co. 40c.
De Amicis, Edmondo. On Blue Water. Putnams. $2.25.
Drummond, Dr. W. H. The Habitant, and Other French-Canadian Poems. Putnams. $2.50.
Egerton, H. E. A Short History of British Colonial Policy. London: Methuen & Co.
Elster, Ernst. Prinzipien der Litteratur-Wissenschaft, Erster Band. Halle: Max Niemeyer; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Ferry, Jules. Discours et Opinions. Tome sixième. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Field, Eugene. Lullaby-Land. Illustrated. Scribners. $1.50.
Grumbine, Rev. J. C. F. Clairvoyance. Chicago: The Author.
Guerber, H. A. Spyri's Moni der Geissbub. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 25c.
Hamilton, M. The Freedom of Henry Meredyth. Appletons. $1.
Harper, Prof. G. M'L. Sainte-Beuve: Seven of the Causeries du Lundi. Henry Holt & Co. 75c.
Johnson, R. B. Pen Portraits by Thomas Carlyle. London: George Allen; New York: F. A. Stokes Co. 75c.
Judah, Mary J. Down Our Way. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.25.
Karpeles, Gustav. A Sketch of Jewish History. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society.
Lefèvre, Prof. André. L'Histoire: Entretiens sur l'Evolution Historique. Paris: C. Reinwald; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.
Mondan, Georgiana F. German Selections for Sight Translation. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 15c.
Nichols, C. W. A Government Class-Book of the State of Michigan. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. $1.
Nicholson, W. An Almanac of Twelve Sports. Words by Rudyard Kipling. R. H. Russell. $1.25.
Olmstead, D. H. The Protestant Faith; or, Salvation by Belief. Putnams. 75c.
Palmer, Lucia A. Oriental Days. Baker & Taylor Co. $2.
Page, T. N. Social Life in Old Virginia. Scribners. $1.50.
Rea, G. B. Facts and Fakes about Cuba. New York: George Munro's Sons.
Rollins, Clara S. Threads of Life. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.
Robertson, J. M. New Essays towards a Critical Method. John Lane. $2.
Seawell, Miss M. E. Twelve Naval Captains. Scribners. $1.25.
Scott, Sir Walter. Waverley. 2 vols. [Temple Edition.] London: Dent; New York: Scribners. $1.60.
Short, E. L. The Law of Railway Bonds and Mortgages in the U. S. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $6.80.
Shuey, Lillian H. Don Luis's Wife: A Romance of the West Indies. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co.
Sienkiewicz, Henryk. Let Us Follow Him. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Sigerson, Dora (Mrs. Clement Shorter). The Fairy Changeling, and Other Poems. John Lane. $1.50.
Society to Encourage Studies at Home. Cambridge: Riverside Press. $1.
Tales of the West. [Tales from McClure's.] Doubleday & McClure Co. 25c.
Tapper, Thomas. The Child's Music World. Philadelphia: Hatch Music Co. $1.25.
Taylor, M. L. An Imperial Lover. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Van Wagenen, T. F. Manual of Hydraulic Mining. D. Van Nostrand Co.
Walford, L. B. Ira Kildare: A Matrimonial Problem. New ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Wright, Prof. G. F. Scientific Aspects of Christian Evidences. Appletons. $1.50.
Ye Second Booke of Nursery Rhymes. F. A. Stokes Co.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 16, 1897.

The Week.

Blow upon blow has befallen poor Mr. Dingley and his deficit since reaching Washington. Senator Aldrich's grim silence spoke volumes. It was not necessary for him to say anything; what he had publicly predicted about the failure of the Dingley bill was coming to pass. Senator Allison almost gives it up. He admits that the prospects of more revenue are gloomy, though he is willing to give Dingley a month or two more. After that—taxes! But the deadliest stroke Mr. Dingley has had to suffer is in the official estimates submitted by the Secretary of the Treasury to Congress. In them the deficit for the current fiscal year is put at $28,000,000, and that for the fiscal year 1898-'99 is estimated at $21,647,000. That is to say, after giving Mr. Dingley all the time he asks, after waiting not merely a month or two, but a year or two, the Treasury officials report that the Dingley bill is destined to heap deficit upon deficit. In the face of this report the duty of Congress is clear and imperative. It must without delay find the money to pay the Government's bills. We say nothing of the terrible retribution which will overtake the Republican party if it does not at once put its hand to this work. The question is larger than a merely partisan one. To omit to provide sufficient revenue, after the tariff is officially declared to be inadequate, is to do the country a grievous wrong.

The Dingley Deficit is not without its indirect advantages. As an instrument of chastening, its effect upon the Republican party is already apparent and gratifying. We do not hear so much about the superior genius for finance which the Republican possesses by nature. Democratic incompetence remains the awful thing it was, but it is looked upon now with a more kindly eye; a fellow-feeling makes the Republicans wondrous kind, even to the Wilson deficit, and they walk softly as those who are themselves not ignorant of sorrow and deficits. We are all fallible mortals, and the ways of Providence are mysterious. Even Mr. Dingley is not wearing his financier's aureole in public any more. All this is refreshing, as is also the sudden zeal of the Republicans for economy in public expenditure. This even reached the subject of pensions last week. Instead of loud calls for a service pension, which we surely should have heard if the revenue had not been done to death by Dingley, the House resounded with laments over the enormous sum required for pensions, and hard things were said of some of the practices which had swollen the appropriation. Mr. Cannon flatly served notice that a deficit would be inevitable, not only this year but next, unless the severest economy were observed; and he and others had bitter words for the "widders," who seem to be as pestiferous in this pension business as the elder Weller found them in general. A great many wholesome truths were uttered, and the number of "battle-scarred sutlers," as Congressman Allen called them, who rose to denounce the slanderers of the old soldier, was much smaller than usual.

One of Mr. Dingley's plaintive and apologetic statements in his speech on his own deficit in the House last Friday unconsciously betrayed the topsy-turvy condition into which our whole system of public finance has fallen. "No one," he said, "who had anything to do with providing revenue, had any idea that the appropriations would be so large." Exactly. One set of men raise the money, or try to; another set spends it. The two sets have little or no coördination, work independently, vote taxes and appropriations alike in the dark and without definite responsibility, and then are thunderstruck when the balance falls on the debit side! The system, or lack of system, is ingeniously devised to bring about that very thing. It is a method without precedent in private business—except among destined or intending bankrupts—and absolutely without a parallel in the public finance of any country better governed than Turkey. We have fallen into it partly by chance, partly by the grasping after undue power by Congressmen, and partly by our happy-go-lucky way of transacting the public business. But now that its evils are so glaringly exhibited, one would think some effort would be made to return to sanity. Apparently none will be. Down to the close of the war the taxing power in Congress was harnessed, as it should be, to the appropriating power; and an amendment to the rules of the House is all that would be necessary to restore that normal condition. But no one in Congress suggests such an amendment. All Mr. Dingley can do is to appeal to a spendthrift Congress not to be spendthrift.

The *Bulletin* of the American Iron and Steel Association is a protectionist organ which is not reassured by Mr. Dingley's prophesying of smooth things about "the surplus next year." It sharply reminds him:

> "There would have been no present anxiety about a sufficiency of revenue if Congress, when it came to consider the details of the Dingley tariff bill, had clearly recognized the fact that prices for most manufactured products have fallen in this country so low that even moderately protective duties will suffice to prevent any considerable influx of foreign manufactures; in other words, that a tariff which affords adequate protection to American industries can no longer be relied upon to supply sufficient revenue for the support of the Government unless duties for revenue only be also provided."

But this fact was clearly recognized and set forth by Secretary Carlisle in his last annual report, and also by Senator Aldrich in his speech in the Senate. The protectionist newspapers, however, cried "Traitor!" to Mr. Aldrich, and the protectionist Congressmen shut their eyes and stuffed cotton in their ears and went ahead blindly trusting to luck. To trust to luck under the Wilson bill would have been wicked, but to trust to luck under a bill which is producing less revenue than that did was to display a sublime faith in Providence. But Providence was treasuring up its vast designs, as the hymn says, and evidently one of them was to teach Mr. Dingley and his colleagues what deficits they are and what deficits they pursue.

The Washington correspondent of the *Tribune* cannot conceal his grief over "a tendency on the Democratic side to make the acquisition of Hawaii a party question." Still more depressing is the fact that many Southern Senators have "declared themselves opposed to any further territorial expansion," utterly "unmindful of Democratic traditions, which have uniformly favored the enlargement of American territory." Exactly; and how often must we point out that the party of Seward and Giddings and Sumner and Thaddeus Stevens is now standing in the shoes of the old Jingo, filibustering, and annexationist Southern ante-bellum Democracy? It is trying to follow the lead of Confederate brigadiers like Morgan in wresting Cuba from Spain and making it "American territory," as Texas was wrested from Mexico. It is also trying to clutch Hawaii, on the good old Taney Democratic doctrine that the dark-skinned natives have no rights that white men are bound to respect. This is the logical consequence of the prolongation of a party's life beyond the accomplishment of its original aims, until we listen patiently to Boss Hanna admonishing his slaves in Ohio that it doesn't matter if the party candidates do not suit them altogether; they must vote as he, the chairman of the executive committee, directs. Principles and candidates being alike indifferent, under the operation of "the organization," what wonder that "traditions" should become mixed, and that, for example, the junior Massachusetts Senator should now typify all that was evil in

the foreign policy and dreams of the former captains of the Slave Power?

There seems no reason to doubt that, if the annexation scheme shall take the shape of a bill which must pass the House, it will get no support from the Speaker. Mr. Reed has an article in the *Illustrated American* which, without once mentioning Hawaii, is really, from first to last, a strong and cogent argument against its acquisition. During a conversation with the editor upon the policy of adding more territory at present, the Speaker dropped the significant remark, "Empire can wait," and the editor asked him to elaborate the opposition thus concisely expressed to the doctrine that it is the obvious duty of our country to increase its domain. Mr. Reed first shows, by various illustrations from history, that the extension of empires in the past has seemed to plant the seeds of their decay, through the tendency to discord developed by such extension, and then applies to our own nation the lesson thus drawn, that the "source of destruction is the failure of each section of a great country to keep abreast of the others, to think the same thoughts, and to promote always the common interest." He points out that there are now vast differences between the ideas and wants of our separate regions, and that the geographical differences are real and powerful. He urges that "the great aim of a nation should be to use all the appliances for advancing knowledge, to assimilate its peoples to a common standard," and closes with an impressive warning against all annexation schemes.

There are two proposals before Congress for dealing with the seal question. One is to prohibit American citizens from taking seals in any part of the Pacific Ocean at any time. This measure, which seems likely to pass, is intended to have a moral effect; that is, to serve as a reproach to the sealers of other countries, especially those of Canada. We say to them: "Look at us. We have the same right that you have to catch seals on the high seas, but we sacrifice ourselves for the sake of preserving the herd. Now why will you not do the same?" We know what the Canadian reply will be, because we have had it before. They will say: "You kill them on land where you have a monopoly. If you want us to stop killing on the water, in order to preserve your monopoly rights on the land, give us something in exchange. We have capital and labor involved in this industry, and the men who are asked to forego it must be compensated." The other proposal, that of Mr. Johnson of Indiana, is that the seals be all killed the next time they come to the breeding islands. This looks like a shocking proposition. It has the appearance of cruelty. It is repulsive to the feeling of humane treatment of animals, and it will probably be rejected for that reason; but if we can imagine that seals have rights in the premises, it might be asked whether it is more humane to kill, say, 100,000, or whatever the number may be, at one stroke, or kill an infinite number through all future time by keeping them going. The latter method, if practicable, would be the best for the human race, since it would insure us a constant supply of sealskins, but it could not be accounted preferable on the score of humanity to the seals. Mr. Johnson's idea is a very respectable one.

Gov. Black is said to be strongly opposed to the proposal to repeal his unstarched civil-service law, but he may have to consent to it before the session of the Legislature is over. The politicians of his party, all of whom have their men in the service, are very strenuous for its repeal, since in that way alone can they prevent a complete Democratic "clean sweep" in case the Democrats secure the governorship next year. Nothing but repeal is likely to save the Republicans who are in the service in this city from removal when Tammany comes in, for with a Tammany local Civil-Service Board the city regulations will in all probability be made to conform with the Black law. Platt and Black, by opposing repeal, will find themselves in antagonism with all the politicians of their party, and will be accused not merely of turning over the State to the Democrats, but of being unwilling to allow the Boys to retain the means of subsistence. There will be a lively time in the Legislature when the question gets before it, and the Governor, as well as Platt, may conclude that surrender in advance will be advisable in order to prevent the plain speaking about their leadership which would be one of the inevitable results of a party wrangle over repeal.

We trust that it is true, as reported in the *Tribune*, that another Maryland Surety Company has made arrangements to get control of the liquor-bonding business in this city which has hitherto gone to Platt through one of his sons, and thus to deflect a valuable stream of political revenue from Platt to Croker. This is in accordance with the fitness of things. As Croker said after election, the people have decided the "right of persons affiliated with Tammany Hall to go abroad in the pursuit of health and happiness." Of course, that decision carries with it the right to raise the money with which to go. Platt has had two or three years' enjoyment of the revenues from the liquor-bonding business, and it is Croker's turn now. Turn about is fair play in politics. Then, too, the liquor-dealers must get their bonds in the place where the "pull" resides, and that has been shifted from No. 49 Broadway to Tammany Hall. Furthermore, according to Bacon, "putrefaction is more contagious before than after maturity"; and as Platt has putrefied before maturity, while Croker has matured before putrefaction, all liquor-dealers desiring health and happiness should flee from Platt and flock with Croker.

The resignation by Mr. Griggs of the office of Governor of New Jersey to accept the position of Attorney-General of the United States creates a situation in that State which is somewhat complicated, and to assist in the solution of which there is no local precedent, as, under the present Constitution, no such vacancy has ever before been filled. The Constitution of New Jersey does not provide for any Lieutenant-Governor, but directs that the duties of the Governor, when his position becomes vacant for any reason, shall devolve upon the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate in New York State is the Lieutenant-Governor, but in New Jersey the position is filled by the election of one of the Senators by the Senate itself. It is settled that Senator Voorhees of Union County will be chosen President as soon as the Senate meets. Then, on the resignation of the Governor, the duties of the latter office will devolve upon him. What will his position as a Senator henceforth be? The best legal authorities agree that he cannot unite the duties of executive and legislator—cannot, for instance, vote on and sign bills as President of the Senate which he may sign or veto as Governor. At the same time it seems to be conceded that if he should resign his senatorship, he would have no status even after entering the executive chamber as Governor. As a result, there will apparently be a vacancy in Union County's representation in the Senate, which cannot be filled until the election of 1898.

The Washington correspondent of the *Tribune* tells how the whites of South Carolina have succeeded in disfranchising, under the forms of law, almost all the black voters. A new constitution was framed in 1895, and put into effect without submission to the people, which followed the example set by Mississippi five years earlier, and required that an applicant for the suffrage, in order to enjoy the right, must be able to read any section of the Constitution, "or understand and explain it when read." This "understanding" clause was designed in each State to afford a method by which white registration officials might let in ignorant men of their own race, and at the same time keep out all blacks except those with a high degree of intelligence. The system has worked as was expected, and the South Carolina registration-books now contain

the names of about 90,000 whites out of the 99,334 of that race of the voting age, and only about 12,000 blacks out of the 132,949 men of that color above twenty-one years of age. After the 1st of January, 1898, the Constitution requires that an applicant for the suffrage shall be able to both read and write any section of the Constitution, or show that he owns and has paid taxes on property assessed as worth at least $300. Meanwhile, a registration already secured lasts for ten years, so that for the next decade nearly all the whites are assured the suffrage without any further trouble, while only 12,000 blacks now enjoy the right, and it will be very hard for others to get their names on the list.

The time has been when such a device for suppressing the bulk of the negro vote in a State where the black men outnumber the white by tens of thousands would have provoked indignant protests from the Republican party throughout the North. Orators would have denounced the outrage in Congress, and editors would have inveighed against it in the newspapers. We shall hear and read very few protests now. Most Republican Congressmen and most Republican editors will simply ignore the subject. They cannot do otherwise while they support a Republican administration in disfranchising another colored race in another part of the world. There have undoubtedly been hundreds, perhaps thousands, of cases in South Carolina where blacks as well entitled to vote as whites have been denied the right because of their color, but all such cases together do not begin to compare with the number of educated Hawaiians who have been denied all share in the government of the land where they have always lived, by a little band of white men, largely foreigners, simply because of their race.

The right to publish private letters (which the publisher has honestly acquired) against the objection of the writer, was denied by the English High Court of Justice in the recent case of Labouchere vs. Hess and Mrs. Sala. Mr. Hess, the proprietor and publisher of the *African Critic* of London, in his issue of October 5, published an article entitled "The stock-jobbing of Henry Labouchere, M. P. for Northampton and proprietor of *Truth*, and late member of the British South Africa committee." The following paragraph occurred in the article:

"I have in my possession complete proofs that Mr. Labouchere also carried on his stock-jobbing transactions in later years, and, if necessary, I shall be quite willing to publish them; but before doing so I desire to challenge Mr. Labouchere to refute, if he can, the charges already proved against him by me. This is the second day of October, 1897. I will give him until the last day of this year—*i. e.*, three months—to have 'his innings,' as his friends call it, and take such steps to vindicate his character as the aspersions I have cast upon it call for. If by December 31, 1897, he shall not have taken any such measures, I intend, beginning with my issue of January 1, 1898, to commence a series of revelations about his latter-day conduct which, I promise, will pale the exposures already made into utter insignificance."

In a subsequent article Mr. Hess indicated that there would be included in his second batch a letter written by Mr. Labouchere showing why he (Mr. L.) "considers Jews good jurymen." This letter Mr. Labouchere was able to identify as one that he wrote a long time ago to the late George Augustus Sala, who died in 1895. He found upon inquiry that the wife of Mr. Sala had received his correspondence as a gift from her husband, and had sold it, or a portion of it, to Mr. Hess for money, applying the proceeds to her husband's benefit during his last illness.

Mr. Labouchere applied to the court for an order to restrain both Mr. Hess and Mrs. Sala from publishing the letter in question, or any others written by him to Mr. Sala. The defendant (Hess) contended that Mr. Labouchere had published what purported to be a letter written by him (Hess) which had been taken from the records of a lawsuit in the Transvaal. The court held that that fact did not warrant the threatened publication of Labouchere's letter to Sala, since it might have been shown to be a justifiable publication if the case had been brought to trial with witnesses, etc. The defendant contended also that he had a right to publish letters for the purpose of defending his own character. This the court was disposed to concede, but held that the publication of these letters was avowedly for a different purpose, namely, to blacken the character of Mr. Labouchere. The injunction to restrain the publication was then granted. His Lordship, in rendering his decision, referred to what he had understood to be a suggestion that the injunction, if granted, could be evaded by getting some one else to publish the letters. He remarked that Mr. Hess and his friends would stand a good chance of finding themselves in Halloway Gaol if such a course was adopted, and said he would add to the injunction words expressly prohibiting any improper use of the letters. Nor must Mrs. Sala publish any without Mr. Labouchere's consent.

The frank speech of Herr von Bülow, the German Minister of Foreign Affairs, in the Reichstag on Monday week, effectually dispels any slight haze of uncertainty that may have heretofore obscured the purpose of the recent German occupation of Kiao-Chau Bay, which was ostensibly provoked by the murder of the missionaries Nies and Hennie. Crimes of this character are unfortunately of sufficiently frequent occurrence in China to afford clearly defined precedents for the course to be taken in like cases by the particular nationality whose subjects are concerned; the usual redress demanded being the punishment of the culpable and the infliction of a money fine, and these remedies being ordinarily adequately enforced through the menacing presence of a single gunboat at the appropriate time and place. When, therefore, without any previous demand upon the Chinese authorities, Admiral von Diederich appeared with his large force, and planted the German flag on the Kiao-Chau fortifications, it became apparent that the usual precedents were to be disregarded, and that some motive more potent than a desire for the customary redress was latent in the proceedings, especially when these were speedily followed by the despatch of an auxiliary German fleet under Prince Henry, the Emperor's brother.

Some alarmed and puzzled observers of other nationalities, whose interests in Far Eastern matters may thus have been impinged upon, affect to see in this highly significant movement of the Germans merely a temporary occupancy of Chinese territory designed to aid the Emperor in his cherished, but hitherto obstructed, plans for securing naval expansion; as a lever, in short, with which to facilitate him in what New Yorkers would know as "jamming through" the appropriation bills in the Reichstag. It would now seem that consolatory suggestion of this sort is illusion, and that the Germans, being there, intend to remain, and incidentally to enlarge their territory by way of securing additional markets for the goods of the Fatherland. Indeed, late advices indicate that the German forces have also occupied the town of Kiao-Chau, some eighteen miles inland, and we now have Herr von Bülow's announcement, apropos of this general business, that "the time has passed when Germany is content to look on and see other countries dividing the world among them"; when she can philosophically remain "content with a place in heaven." If the Foreign Minister is correctly quoted, it is clear that Germany has grown tired of watching and waiting upon the successful aggressions of others of the Powers in the unfortunate Middle Kingdom, and seeks to forestall whatever comprehensive grab of its territory Russia, England, France, and the new Japan may possibly have in contemplation. Aside from any question of sentiment, the business sympathy of Americans should be with the English in these gathering complications in the Far East. The English alone of the various nationalities concerned throw open any acquired territory to the free commerce of the world, while the Germans, Russians, and French take with them everywhere the odious barrier of a purposely exclusive tariff.

THE MOMENTOUS DECISION.

In discussing the Hawaiian matter from the military or naval point of view, we must remember that the islands are sought as "the key to the Pacific," and that no island can be a "key" without a navy. A navy is to an island what a lock is to a key. Nobody values a key without a corresponding lock, and so, also, an island is for military purposes of no use to a Power which has no navy to defend it. For this reason it would be ludicrous for Great Britain to keep Gibraltar or Malta or the West Indian Islands if she had no navy to protect them. Without a large navy—double that of any other Power—she would hold them at the mercy of any country with a large navy with which she went to war, for that country would immediately attack her outlying possessions, knowing she could not defend them.

This is exactly our case. Taking Hawaii, we at once come into possession of the only outlying territory we have ever had, the only spot of our dominion which a foreign navy could attack with any chance of success. Our coasts we can defend; a landing on them for purposes of conquest, or for anything but destruction, would be absurd. But the minute we acquired an island 2,000 miles from our shores, the enemy's ships would start for it, not because the island was very valuable, but just to humiliate and discourage us, and get at the missionaries and their wealth. We could keep it only by a naval battle, and if we lost the battle, we should lose both our navy and "the key," for men-of-war in these days do not run away when defeated—they simply go to the bottom. Our coasts could then be freely ravaged by the enemy, and shells thrown into our cities, for the navy would not only have to be large enough to defend the island, but to leave a portion behind to watch over our coasting trade and our coasts.

That we shall ever have such a navy is very unlikely. Congress is Jingo by fits and starts. Sometimes it wants a navy and sometimes it does not. It is apt to be frightened by cost when dealing with matters for which there is no pressing necessity, and it is in the highest degree unlikely that it would go on, year after year, maintaining an enormous armament for the security of a group of islands so far away, and inhabited mainly by "dagoes" and "niggers" and sugar men. Hear what Captain Mahan said in this regard four years ago in the *Forum:*

"There is, however, one caution to be given from that military point of view beyond the need of which the world has not yet passed. Military positions, fortified posts, by land or by sea, however strong or admirably situated, do not by themselves confer control. People often say that such an island or harbor will give control of such a body of water. It is an utter, deplorable, ruinous mistake. The phrase may indeed by some be used only loosely, without forgetting other implied conditions of adequate protection and adequate navies; but the confidence of our own nation in its native strength, and its indifference to the defence of its ports and the sufficiency of its fleet, give reason to fear that the full consequences of a forward step may not be soberly weighed. Napoleon, who knew better, once talked this way. 'The islands of San Pietro, Corfu, and Malta,' he wrote, 'will make us masters of the whole Mediterranean.' Vain boast! Within one year Corfu, in two years Malta, were rent away from the state that could not support them by its ships. Nay, more; had Bonaparte not taken the latter stronghold out of the hands of its degenerate but innocuous government, that citadel of the Mediterranean would perhaps —would probably—*never have passed into those of his chief enemy.* There is here also a lesson for us."

Our position is and always has been considered unusually happy, in being a solid block of thickly peopled land like Russia, which no foreign enemy can get at. Our eagerness, therefore, to be vulnerable, to expose points of attack to invaders, is considered, and is, a singular fancy. The truth is, that the case is one of the many in which delusion is wrought by words. The phrase "key of the Pacific" was started by naval strategists in a scientific way, on the hypothesis that we should have a large navy, just as books like Jomini's on the art of war are written for nations having a large army. They are written for France, and Germany, and Russia, and Austria; not for Holland or Sweden. We have a school of very able naval strategists, on our part, who must, in order to make their demonstrations clear, assume the existence of a big navy, and a greedy, expansive foreign policy. These are as necessary to them as figures to a geometrician. In their mouths the phrase "key to the Pacific" has a definite meaning, but it lies in their imagination. As might have been expected, it has been seized hold of by Congressmen, without the smallest comprehension of its bearing, to help them in either hurling defiance at Great Britain or in passing naval appropriations.

In his article on "Hawaii and Our Future Sea Power," from which we have just quoted, Capt. Mahan further says:

"The United States finds itself compelled to answer a question—to make a decision—not unlike and not less momentous than that required of the Roman Senate when the Mamertine garrison invited it to occupy Messina, and so to abandon the hitherto traditional policy which had confined the expansion of Rome to the Italian peninsula."

And again:

"This is no mere question of a particular act, but of a principle, a policy, fruitful of many future acts, to enter upon which, in the fulness of our national progress, the time has now arrived. The principle accepted, the annexation of Hawaii would be no mere sporadic effort, irrational because disconnected from an adequate motive, but a first fruit and a token that the nation in its evolution has aroused itself to the necessity of carrying its life—that has been the happiness of those under its influence—beyond the borders that have heretofore sufficed for its activities."

That is precisely the way to put it. "This is no mere question of a particular act, but of a principle, a policy, fruitful of many future acts." As such it is as important as anything which has occurred in the United States since the adoption of the federal Constitution, and as such it ought to be debated. Considering this, the way in which the subject has been for four years left in the hands of sugar and other speculators, and bandied about as a means of making money for a few sons of missionaries, of keeping England out of an island, of curing lewdness and heathenism, and of securing a lockless "key," is certainly very odd.

At last the promoters have again laid the old treaty, drawn by themselves, before the body selected by themselves, to be "jammed through" in the manner approved by themselves. Having secured the concurrence of the President, for reasons which are marked by the same evasion and concealment of the real facts of the case, and the same word-play that have characterized the whole transaction, they evidently expected to slip it through the Senate without debate. They have failed, and now, characteristically, they are going to try a party vote in both houses, which would enable them to gain their ends by a mere majority. Like Steve Elkins, when trying to make money for "America," they leave no stone unturned.

We think it likely they will fail again, because Congress is becoming more and more aware of the gravity of the scheme. Capt. Mahan has laid it perfectly bare. His illustration from the history of Rome is most apposite. When the Senate directed the Consul to occupy Messina, it launched Rome on a new career, which was to build up the Roman empire, but it sealed the fate of Roman republicanism. The age of Cato, and Scipio, and Gracchus, the age of liberty and law, had come to an end. The age of Marius, and Sylla, and Pompey, and Cæsar, and Augustus, and Caligula had been entered on. The Empire had begun. As soon as provinces began to be acquired by conquest or fraud, the rule of the people ceased, and the oligarchical Senate took charge. The Senate had not been long in charge before the "princeps," or "boss," made his appearance, and told it what laws to pass and how the sham offices should be filled. And the princeps had not been long in command before the soldiers who won and held the provinces, made their appearance and put his office up at auction. And then, in another brief period, the whole fabric built up by so much valor and ambition and love of "expansion," fell into hideous ruin. If it does not point a moral as well as adorn a tale, no event of human history is fitted to do so.

Most of those who are pushing the Hawaiian scheme are simply after what our aldermen call "the stuff." Capt. Mahan gives some of them credit for wishing to carry our life, that has been the happiness of those under our influ-

ence, beyond the borders that have hitherto sufficed for our activities. But he makes a great mistake in supposing that the diffusion of our happiness is any part of their programme. Moreover, although our borders have hitherto sufficed for our activities, unhappily our activities have not sufficed for our borders. We have still a large territory uninhabited, a large population imperfectly civilized or instructed, our new and growing commercial and manufacturing life poorly regulated, our system of taxation unsettled, our old religion half gone, with nothing new to take its place, great political corruption, widespread indifference to the duties of citizenship, no enlightened municipal government. We have none of the old Roman traditions which made the state an object of worship. In fact, for us to start on a career of conquest and annexation of populations to whom we should be compelled to deny the *jus suffragii* from the outset, would be to invite the destruction of this republic at an early date; in other words, the complete failure of "the great experiment."

Moreover, we are under the most solemn obligations to the civilized world not to diffuse our "happiness" or our "life" among other people in the old way. We have for one hundred years made known to all mankind, by every means in our power, that we proposed no annexation by conquest or violence, that we wanted no subject populations, that when we spread we meant to spread, not as Rome spread and as England has spread, through guns and trumpets and over mangled bodies, but through knowledge and trade, and law and liberty, and brotherly kindness; that no other modes of expansion were known to us, and that we were sure none other could bring permanent peace and prosperity. This was the wisdom of the founders of this government. A century of growth has cast no discredit on it, and given us no reason to doubt it. It is still our boast; and in spite of all Jingoes, missionaries, and expansionists, we firmly believe another century will show that they pointed out the true road to glory.

THE SAN DOMINGO PRECEDENT.

Hawaii is now offered to the United States by a government which does not rest upon the consent of the Hawaiian people, which owes its origin to a revolution against the government established by the natives—a revolution that would have failed but for the support of the United States Navy. In like manner, San Domingo was offered to the United States nearly thirty years ago by a President who had usurped the position, whose power was constantly threatened by a rival with better claims to the office, and who was assured the possession of his place only by the presence in the neighboring waters of United States men-of-war. For the time being, the navy of the United States was the navy of Baez, and a despatch from Commodore Green, July 21, 1870, stated that without the support of our ships of war he could not have maintained himself against his own people and would have been obliged to leave the island. Except that Grant's Secretary, Babcock, went a little further in 1870 than Minister Stevens did at Honolulu in 1893, the analogy between the two cases is complete.

The arguments then urged for the acquisition of San Domingo are so nearly identical with those employed in the case of Hawaii now that one needs only to substitute Pacific for Atlantic and make a few similar verbal changes to use President Grant's special message of March 23, 1870, again to-day. San Domingo was desirable "because of its geographical position." It "commands the entrance" to the Caribbean Sea and the isthmus transit of commerce. "Its possession by us will, in a few years, build up a coastwise commerce of immense magnitude," and give us "a controlling influence over the great commercial traffic soon to flow from east to west by way of the Isthmus of Darien." "In case of foreign war it will give us command" of all the West India Islands.

There was the same claim, in defiance of all the facts, that the people of the region which it was proposed to seize, favored the surrender of their land to another Power. "The Government of San Domingo," said Gen. Grant in 1870, "has voluntarily sought this annexation"—that government being one which depended upon the presence of United States vessels for its very existence. "The treaty was unanimously ratified by the Senate and President of the republic of Hawaii," says Mr. McKinley in 1897—this so-called "republic" allowing only 3,000 people to vote, of whom most are foreigners, while a protest against annexation is presented to the United States Senate which is signed by 10,809 men and 10,300 women of the Hawaiian race.

There was the same claim in 1870 as in 1897 that the country in question was too weak to stand alone, and that the United States must take possession to save it from itself. "It is a weak Power," said Gen. Grant, "numbering probably less than 120,000 souls [Hawaii has about 109,000], and yet possessing one of the richest territories under the sun, capable of supporting a population of ten million of people in luxury. The people of San Domingo are not capable of maintaining themselves in their present condition."

There was the same bugbear of foreign aggression in 1870 as in 1897. Gen. Grant declared that the weak people of San Domingo "must look for outside support," and added:

> "They yearn for the protection of our free institutions and laws, our progress and civilization. Shall we refuse them? I have information, which I believe reliable, that a European Power stands ready now to offer $2,000,000 for the possession of Samana Bay alone, if refused by us. With what grace can we prevent a foreign Power from attempting to secure the prize?"

There was the same proud humanitarian appeal in favor of seizure in 1870 as in 1897. Gen. Grant urged that we should take San Domingo because "Porto Rico and Cuba will have to abolish slavery as a measure of self-preservation to retain their laborers"; saying later that the act would "make slavery insupportable in Cuba and Porto Rico at once, and ultimately so in Brazil."

The San Domingo scheme of 1870 failed, and there is not a thoughtful American in 1897 but rejoices that it failed. None of the threatened evils of failure has happened. The people of San Domingo got rid of Baez not long after the United States war-ships were withdrawn from his support, and have maintained themselves ever since quite as well as before. No European Power has ever so much as offered to take Samana Bay. Slavery was abolished in Cuba, Porto Rico, and Brazil many years ago, without the necessity of our possessing San Domingo. Best of all, the American republic escaped the eternal disgrace which would have rested upon it if Congress had not heeded the eloquent protest of Charles Sumner in the Senate of the United States on the 21st of December, 1870:

> "Vain to set forth, as the President's message does, all manner of advantages, 'commercially and materially.' What are these if Justice and Humanity are sacrificed? What are these without that priceless blessing, Peace? I am not insensible to the commercial and material prosperity of my country. But there is something above these. It is the honor and good name of the republic, now darkened by an act of wrong. If this territory, so much coveted by the President, were infinitely more valuable than it is, I hope the Senate would not be tempted to obtain it by trampling on the weak and humble. Admit all that the advocates of the present scheme assert with regard to the resources of this territory, and then imagine its lofty mountains bursting with the precious metals, its streams flowing with amber over silver sands, where every field is a garden of the Hesperides, blooming with vegetable gold, and all this is not worth the price we are now called to pay.
>
> "I protest against it in the name of Justice outraged by violence; in the name of Humanity insulted; in the name of the weak, trodden down; in the name of Peace imperilled, and in the name of the African race, whose first effort at Independence is rudely assailed."

Nor was Mr. Sumner the only New England Senator to give voice to this righteous feeling. Mr. Morrill of Vermont, who still survives to oppose ill-judged schemes of annexation, stood with his Massachusetts colleague in arguing against even the proposition to send a commission to San Domingo, nominally to investigate, but really to report in favor of the scheme. On the 20th of December, 1870, Mr. Morrill delivered a brief but vigorous speech

on the question, in the course of which he said:

"And now it is proposed to initiate a step here that shall bind us to surrender and abandon all of these documents in the Library of Congress, the fruit of vast research for years, to an impromptu commission that shall go down there without any compensation, stay there no longer than they may find it pleasurable to themselves to stay; and then we are to have the final action of both houses of Congress upon a joint resolution for the annexation of San Domingo as a State, which contains but 125,000 people at most to-day, and confessedly illiterate and incompetent to take the charge of any State government whatever. So swiftly are we to have a State equal in power to any one of the original thirteen of which this Union was at first composed. Regarding this measure as one unwise and calculated to inflict vast injury upon my country, I shall oppose it at the threshold. I have never yet seen any experienced legislator that did not meet a question like this at the threshold."

That Sumner and Morrill were sustained by the people of New England appears clearly from a great mass of contemporaneous evidence. Joseph R. Hawley, who had then lately retired from the governorship of Connecticut, and is now a Senator from that State, wrote to Mr. Sumner from Hartford, after a speech on the subject delivered by the latter in executive session, March 23, 1870:

"What little I see concerning your speech on San Domingo greatly pleases me. The course of the Government for several years in these matters is demoralizing and dangerous. I would not have an administration negotiate an acquisition in time of peace without the previous consent of Congress. *We don't want any of those islands just yet, with their mongrel, cut-throat races and foreign languages and religion.*"

Popular support of the San Domingo job twenty-seven years ago was as conspicuously lacking as of the Hawaiian job to-day. Here and there a Republican organ, which either was in sympathy with the ring of speculators and adventurers who cooked up the scheme, or which felt compelled to sustain the Grant Administration through thick and thin, favored it; but Sumner's colleague, Henry Wilson, who voted for it only to avoid a rupture with the President, confessed that nine-tenths of his constituents were opposed to it; and when a popular demonstration was attempted in this city, the managers had to fall back upon the Collector of the Port for chairman, and could summon no speakers who carried greater weight than Congressmen Banks of Massachusetts and Fitch of Nevada.

COMMERCE AND BIG GUNS.

The notion that "commerce follows the flag" is of American or perhaps English origin, but it finds its stoutest advocates at the present moment in Berlin and among those who are demanding a great increase in the German navy. In the Reichstag on Thursday, Herr Hammacher, one of the National Liberals, gave his reasons for thinking that a large navy is necessary, saying:

"The most important thing is the policy of England and the United States. England's policy is evidently directed towards the formation of a Zollverein with her colonies. The United States also undoubtedly wish to protect themselves against our exports, but matters are coming to such a pass that other American republics are joining the United States in order to form a Zollverein. Pan-Americanism is for Germany still more momentous than Monroeism. The United States are not to be considered on the same footing as a single European state, but rather as an entire continent, with regard to production; and my opinion, which is shared by eminent statesmen and has also been expressed recently by Count Goluchowski, is that European states in the coming century will be obliged to coöperate in order to support each other in this struggle for existence with America. Germany alone would be powerless in the conflict, but we must take care that when the hour comes she is in a position to take her part."

This speech presents broadly the conception that commerce is gained, or at all events preserved, at the cannon's mouth, and not by offering one's goods of superior quality or at lower price than one's competitors. The allusion to England and her policy is rather malapropos, since that is the only country in the wide world that offers no obstacles to foreigners who may desire to trade with her or her colonies. Although she has the largest navy in the world, she never uses it to keep German goods out of Canada, or Australia, or India. She does not even use her influence that way. She does not believe that commerce follows the flag, but holds the contrary doctrine that the flag follows commerce, and that it does so whether big guns are carried underneath the flag, or only flour, pork, petroleum, cotton goods, oranges, and bananas.

If proof of this course of trade were needed, it might be found in the commercial marine of Norway, which is second in importance to that of Great Britain, although Norway has no navy worthy of mention. It is true that Herr Hammacher makes particular reference to England's expected policy of a Zollverein, or commercial union, with her own colonies. He cannot be unmindful of the fact that England rejected decisively the policy of a Zollverein in so far as it contemplated commercial advantages to the colonies in their trade with the mother country. But even if she were on the eve of adopting such a policy, how would it help matters for Germany to build more war-ships? Would she send a fleet to any British colony and demand entrance for German goods under penalty of bombardment at the end of eight hours? Such procedure may serve to extort an indemnity, whether right or wrong, from some country that has no means of defence, but such methods would not be resorted to in order to secure a market for German goods even in so weak a country as Hayti. That would be the surest way to cut off and destroy a market for one's goods, even if they were otherwise acceptable.

A British Zollverein is not the only ogre that troubles this German statesman. Pan-Americanism is even worse. He pictures to himself a union of the whole American continent bound together under a common pledge not to trade with Europe. Well, what would be the remedy for that condition, if it were possible? Would more war-ships and heavier guns make us fonder of European goods than we are now? On the contrary, such arguments for transatlantic commerce would simply be met with more ships and heavier guns on this side also, and in the race for naval supremacy we should prevail in the end, for two reasons: we should have the longest purse, and we should be much nearer to the scene of action. In any contest for commercial supremacy on the Western Hemisphere dependent on fighting power, we could beat Germany or any other European Power in the long run.

But where are the signs of pan-Americanism in trade and commerce? We see nothing of that sort in our present policy. We had the beginnings of it in the Wilson tariff. We then admitted wool, hides, ores, and other important products of South America free of duty, and had started on a course which really promised a great expansion of trade with the countries south of us. We have changed all that. We have put up the highest legal barriers ever known to trade with Argentina, and have erected new ones to obstruct our commerce with Mexico, Venezuela, Chili, and Peru. At latest advices, Argentina was studying means of retaliation, and will probably find means to favor Germany at our expense without resort to any kind of artillery except that of tariffs.

The members of the Reichstag, being not exactly fools, will no doubt be able to estimate the value of Herr Hammacher's catchwords. He wants what the Emperor wants—that is, a large navy—and he employs the kind of phrases which have been effective in other times and countries to conciliate and persuade those who must foot the bills. The clear truth is that ships of war do not make markets. They do not open foreign ports. They do not create buyers. There was a time when large parts of the world were in the possession of barbarous tribes, who had no appreciation of commerce of any kind, who had neither ports nor markets. It was necessary to employ force to give civilization a foothold. After that was accomplished, there followed a certain amount of strife between civilized nations for the possession of these lands, but that has all passed away. There is still a limited use for big guns and floating batteries, but not in the business of finding buyers for one's goods. Any market that Germany can acquire with the largest possible navy, she can acquire even better without it. Her naval prowess costs money and detracts from her power to

sell cheaply. What she spends on her navy she cannot spend in cheapening the production of her goods. The same may be said of us and of any other country which cherishes the hallucination that foreigners, whether barbarous or civilized, can be made good customers by putting ourselves in readiness to blow them out of water.

FRENCH AND GERMAN COLONIZATION.

The rage for colonization which has taken possession of the French and Germans within ten years, is not unnatural in view of the spread of the British empire and the success of the British colonies. It is in some sort a revival of the conflicts for the possession of America which marked the last century, and made England cling so desperately to the English settlements on the coast. It has probably also suggested the German attempt to seize a bit of China, and, the reports say, to join in the partition of the Central Flowery Kingdom. The only part of British polity which either France or Germany, however, is competent to imitate, is the conquest of India. For the seizure and government of countries like India and China, very thickly populated and needing only order and security to continue their old life, both the French and Germans have machinery ready—that is, large armies and a host of trained officials. But it is almost certain that such countries can never be sources of profit. All England gets out of India is the salaries of a large number of English military officers and civil servants. India has been very useful in affording a field for many younger sons and well-educated middle-class youth who, within this century, have been, every year, thrown on the world to seek their fortune. England gets no revenue from the country, and is in constant danger of having it become a source of outlay. Nor does she get any revenue from any of her colonies. All she ever tried to do with them was to keep their markets for her own manufacturers, as soon as they had markets. This attempt continued down almost to the adoption of free trade, and it entailed a successful rebellion in this country, another not successful in Canada, and constant rows everywhere else. But England never had machinery, such as the Continental Powers have, for carrying out this policy thoroughly. Her political system is not adapted to it. The rights of the British subject under her own Constitution have always interfered with it, and ruined it in this country. She utterly abandoned it fifty years ago, as far as real British colonies are concerned. The last shred of it appeared two years ago, after the Tory Government came into office, in compelling India to abandon her very moderate duty on cotton goods, in order to open her markets to the Manchester men—a measure which has hardly been defended by anybody. It was just "jammed through."

For this sort of work the French and Germans are well fitted. They are very competent to regulate and castigate a huge population of an inferior race, and the Germans could probably supply a body of first-rate civil servants, as well as a large military force, for the task. The French have no civil servants who want to go abroad. They have a very large body of them in France, but they have no enterprise. They love their home and home comforts, in spite of small salaries, too well to seek fortunes elsewhere, and rely on frugality and saving and small families to make provision for children and old age. The total number of natives who emigrated in the four years ending 1893 was 37,891. Since the Revolution, in fact, the habits of the population seem to have entirely changed. The American colonies, founded by the old régime in the last century, were due in part to the readiness of the cadets of the aristocratic families to seek adventures abroad, and in part to the desire of the Church to make converts, and its great influence on the Government. But the great families are no longer potent in the state, and the Church has lost its power, and the young men of the aristocracy lounge in Paris, or, if very enterprising, write novels. The long wars of Napoleon, too, killed French enterprise. The army absorbed all the braver spirits and got rid of them on the battlefield. In addition to all this, the deaths exceed the births every year. In the one real colony, Algeria, there are only 270,000 French out of a population of 4,500,000, and, of course, a large proportion of these are soldiers and officials. There can hardly be said to be any French population elsewhere, and all efforts to promote emigration have hitherto been fruitless. So that although France claims enormous tracts of territory in Africa, and has some settlements in the East, there is not the least probability that French communities will ever grow up in them, partly because of the climate and partly for want of Frenchmen. The extension of the French area must, therefore, be mainly due to conquests, paid for by the Treasury at home, and involving prodigious loss of young life, which the country can ill spare.

The Germans have by no means so dismal a story to tell, but their efforts to colonize are nearly as futile. They have a large and increasing population and a considerable emigration, but unfortunately they will not go to German colonies. The bulk of the emigrants go to the United States and Brazil, a very few to other places, only a few hundreds to territories under the German flag The reason is very plain. They dislike conscription for the army, militarism, *lèse-majesté*, and general over-regulation. Wherever a German goes to-day under his own flag, soldiers and officials follow to provide him with government and look after his health and security. He finds himself still under paternal rule, and has to acknowledge the superiority of the "hochgeboren." Consequently, German colonization has to contend against the growing desire of mankind to manage their own affairs, vote their own taxes, and arrange their own lives. In other words, the two countries which have no conscription, no large armies, and in which men make their own government, even if it be bad government, are carrying the day and occupying all the waste places of the earth. We are colonizing this continent as fast as we can with self-governing colonies, and are showing no inclination to go to fight Spaniards and "Dagoes" for other territories which we could never occupy. We are doing on American soil exactly what the British are doing in Australia and Africa—setting up communities which decide for themselves how they will live and trade. The French and Germans are led astray by theories which some military men and Congressmen have been trying to spread among us, that markets can be made by armed conquest.

BANKRUPTCY IN THE UNITED STATES.

It seems to be thought that there is good prospect of bankruptcy legislation at Washington this winter, and this means that there is a good prospect of the passage of the Torrey bill. The so-called Nelson bill, which passed the Senate at the special session, is not a bankruptcy bill at all, as it is little more than a piece of machinery for enabling an insolvent to get a uniform discharge, good throughout the United States, which is something he cannot do now. It is consequently a bill to make insolvency easier and simpler, and the consequences of it less lasting than now. It is a bill in the interest of insolvents only, and it pleases only them and their friends in the Senate.

The essence of a bankruptcy bill such as exists in every other country, and existed for ten years after the war in this, is not that it should make an insolvent's life pleasant, but that it should be absolutely just to both creditor and debtor. For this purpose it is necessary that the creditors should have compulsory powers, extending throughout the United States, to bring the debtor who commits what are called acts of insolvency, such as failing to pay commercial paper for a certain period, into court, and force him to surrender his property for distribution. The reason why this is necessary is that otherwise the debtor, remaining in control of his property, can dispose of it in any way he pleases, saving such of his creditors as he pleases

and letting the loss fall on the others. What are called "preferences," under the State insolvent laws, are merely based on a legal recognition of the fact that as long as the law leaves a man in full control and possession of property, it cannot possibly quarrel with him for making what arrangements he pleases with it. It may be said in reply to this, that fraudulent dealing with his property is even under such circumstances forbidden, and may be avoided by creditors, and this is true; but it is very little to the purpose, because, in nine cases out of ten, the proof of fraud is wanting. Hence, in the operation of a voluntary insolvent law, it makes little difference whether preferences are allowed or not; for the debtor, before he decides to make an assignment, will take care to arrange matters so as to deal with his property as a free man, save those whom he desires to save, and, down to the last moment, not give up a cent.

This shows that the argument that a voluntary bankruptcy law (based on the model of the State insolvent laws) would be preferable to the present system if it abolished "preferences," is totally unsound. Let the bankrupt himself fix the time when he will become a bankrupt, and the astuter man of business he is, the more actual preferences and injustice will there be. Hence the compulsory or involuntary feature of the Torrey bill is the vital point on which the controversy turns. It is for this reason that the bill is the one favored by the great commercial and legal corporations and by the House of Representatives. The Nelson bill, on the other hand, has almost no support outside of Congress, and its senatorial support seems to be the result rather of a misunderstanding of the nature of its provisions than of any solid opinion. The more the matter is discussed, the more plain it will be made that, without the creditor's having the power to set the law in motion, there can be no real bankruptcy law. For the just distribution of the assets of the insolvent, his own acts must be the means of fixing him as a bankrupt, and not his own choice. At the moment when the temptation to cheat and prefer and secrete becomes operative, the law must make of the acts revealing this state of affairs proof of insolvency; the debtor is relieved of control and temptation together, the law distributes the estate among the creditors, and the upright insolvent only is discharged.

There is, consequently, no honest and intelligent opinion in the country which can be in favor of the Nelson bill. The only class which can desire it passed is that of the insolvents themselves, and the passage or failure of the Torrey bill may be regarded as a sort of rough test of whether the country likes swindling or honesty best. There are those who maintain that there is a good deal of doubt on this point, and one of their strongest arguments is that, in the three experiments hitherto tried, a uniform bankruptcy act was never allowed to remain on the statute-book longer than was necessary to give the existing body of insolvents at the time their discharge; that object accomplished, it was immediately repealed. This argument can be met only by passing another act and not repealing it.

That dishonest insolvents constitute a large and conspicuous class in the community cannot be disputed. Almost every one has a few among his acquaintances, whom he meets driving in the Park, or observes drinking champagne at Delmonico's. Where they get the means of doing this is explained from time to time in proceedings supplementary to execution, and in the pages of *Puck*. Indeed, the comic papers generally make insolvency one of the high roads to fortune, which would be impossible in a community in which dishonest insolvency was looked upon with horror. But all this does not show that the community at large wants this state of affairs to continue, or to be perpetuated in the laws when an opportunity arises for abating the evil. The swindler at large may be an amusing, yet not a beloved type. Not many years ago, the dishonest trustee was imagined by many people to be a necessary permanent type in American civilization, yet laws have been passed making misuse of trust funds crimes, punishable by heavy penalties, and a number of convictions of notorious rascals have followed, and the embezzlers are now "doing time." The passage of a bankrupt law is not hopeless; and we hold that when the debate on the subject comes off, those who advocate one should not admit that there are two or three different kinds of bankruptcy systems, on which a compromise may be arrived at, but insist upon the truth, that there is only one kind known to the law and practice of civilized nations; the principle of which is embodied in the Torrey bill.

STEVENSON AND HENLEY ON THE LONDON STAGE.

LONDON, December 1, 1897.

In England, when anybody thinks anything needs doing, a society is at once formed. No matter what it is that has to be done, whether it is a ghost to be suppressed or a social millennium established, a poet to be honored or an academy exposed, the Empire to be strengthened or dress reformed, in a society you have the Englishman's solution of all problems, his remedy for all evils. Therefore, no sooner was the stage discovered to be in a bad way—artistically, not financially—than it was inevitable that the elect should band themselves together to set it right again. Indeed, we have had one association after another devoted to the elevation of the theatre, and are threatened with as many more. There was, chief among them, the Independent Theatre, which, at last, giving up London as hopeless, has gone on tour to redeem the provinces. There will soon be a Keltic Theatre, so I am told, with poetry and the now fashionable Irish fairies as allies and Dublin as headquarters. In the meantime, the New Century Theatre is left alone to the herculean task of lifting London from the slough of musical farce and music-hall vulgarity in which it is comfortably wallowing.

This special society began its career a year ago with the performance of "John Gabriel Borkman," for, when it comes to the point, the great grievance of all self-appointed theatrical reformers is that the usual manager who wants, among other things, to make money, refuses to play Ibsen so long as the public refuses to spend money to see Ibsen played. But this year Ibsen, who, to tell the truth, has got to be something of a bore as the model playwright, has been set aside for Stevenson and Mr. Henley; and the performance of their "Admiral Guinea," a drama that concerns itself not at all with social and moral and sexual enigmas, but with sheer romance from beginning to end, is an event of no slight importance, both literary and dramatic. Its production is excellent reason for the existence of the New Century Theatre.

The play is already well known to readers, though not to playgoers. It is published in the same volume with "Deacon Brodie," which some time since had quite a little run here and in America too, and "Beau Austin," which Mr. Beerbohm Tree brought out at the Haymarket Theatre eight or nine years ago. There is more action, more movement, more sustained excitement in the "Deacon," perhaps; "Beau Austin" has more of the stateliness, the picturesque elegance that is the charm of "Prince Otto"; but, of the three, "Admiral Guinea" has always seemed to me the most complete, the most perfectly rounded out, the most poetic in sentiment and language—in a word, the play in which Mr. Henley's influence can most easily be traced, his share in the work of this "pair of friends" who once, in his words,

> "loved to chance
> Their feet in any by-way of Romance,"

can most easily be detected. The dramatis personæ are few: there are the two main figures, the "Penitent and Impenitent Thieves," as Mr. Henley calls them in the Prologue written for the performance, the "Slaver Saint," and the "Blind Pirate," the latter none other than the terrible Pew who has long haunted most of us, even as he haunted the lad Hawkins of 'Treasure Island.' There is the daughter of the Penitent Thief. There is her lover. And that is all, for the landlady of the Admiral Benbow, like the furniture of her inn, is a mere stage accessory. The plot, or story, is as simple, direct, and straightforward as possible. There is in it nothing of the problem play, for a while the mode; nothing of the play in which the action depends upon the development of character; but rather its conditions are those upheld by Dumas *père*—"four trestles, four boards, two actors, and a passion"—conditions that steer very close upon the melodramatic. Indeed, in the hands of any but artists, pure Adelphi melodrama must be the result. But in this case the authors are artists, and you have instead romance, delightful romance.

Pew and *Gaunt*, the one in the intensity of his villany, the other in the intensity of his saintliness, become two great romantic figures worthy to rank with the romantic heroes of other days—with Ulysses and Robinson Crusoe and Gil Blas, and Aramis, Porthos, and D'Artagnan. To bring the two face to face, to contrast them, is in itself an adventure; they meet, and at once "situation is animated with passion, passion clothed upon with situation," as Stevenson loved to find it in the work of other romanticists; at once a drama is created which is "so much emotion in action," as Mr. Henley defines the drama of Dumas. And, as is the central motive, so is each detail conceived in the true spirit of romance, to the very tap-tapping of the blind man, that recurs again and again, like the refrain in a ballad, and gives you the same delicious thrill of terror as when Robinson Crusoe comes upon the footprint in the desert island, or Christian passes through the Valley of the Shadow of Death. And this is only as it should be when you remember that the two dramatists are writers the secret of whose art is that they can make a romance of all things; one, the story-teller who has created for us Long John Silver, and Alan Breck, and the Master of Ballantrae, and Pew himself; the other, the poet, who, even as a child, could, by the magic of imagination, transform the quiet English town of Gloucester into the Bagdad or the Samarcand of the 'Arabian Nights.'

But, to make a work of art, something more than the romantic spirit is needed, and in "Admiral Guinea" we have this something more in the style, the beautiful prose in which it is written. The dialogue has the fine simplicity, the sonorous solemnity, almost the rhythmical swing, I might say, of Mr. Henley's verse. Take *Gaunt's* description of his last awful journey, when the hurricane came, and the negroes in the hold perished like sheep in a storm:

"For several days they were battened down; all the time we heard their cries and lamentation, but worst at the beginning; and when at last, and near dead myself, I crept below—O! some they were starved, some smothered, some dead of broken limbs; and the hold was like a lazar-house in the time of the anger of the Lord!"

Or again, his account of the effect this tragedy had upon his wife:

"She had long been dying slowly; but from the hour she heard that story the garment of the flesh began to waste and perish, the fountains of her life dried up; she faded before my face; and in two months from my landing—O Hester, Hester, would God I had died for thee!"

The play abounds in passages as stately and as musical. And, moreover, it abounds in passages that give you the clue to the philosophy of the authors—men both strong enough to love life, the mere living, to exult in it, to find it ample reward for having been born into this world of toil and suffering. There is no longing here for the poppied sleep, the end of all. *Arethusa*, her lover shown the door by her father, can still take heart: "And Kit and I both live, and both love each other; and here am I cast down! O, Arethusa, shame! And your love home from the deep seas, and loving you still; and the sun shining; and the world all full of hope?" It makes you think of Jaspar Petulengro and his philosophy of life: "There's night and day, brother, both sweet things; sun, moon, and stars, brother, all sweet things; there's likewise a wind on the heath. Life is very sweet, brother; who would wish to die?" There is another speech of *Arethusa's* in which one seems to hear distinctly the voices of Stevenson and Henley alike—Stevenson, who ever felt the zest of the game of chance with death that life was to him; Henley, who could find the poetry of living even in the hospital:

"In this world, you know—you have told me—there is nothing perfect. All we men and women have our sins, and they are a pain to those that love us; and the deeper the love, the crueller the pain. That is life; and it is life we ask, not heaven; and what matter for the pain, if only the love holds on?"

The play being the stirring romance it is, and the dialogue the rhythmical prose, need it be pointed out that none but the most accomplished actors could do justice to it?—and the accomplished actor just now is a rarity in London. But, as is the way with most of the societies working for dramatic salvation, the New Century Theatre would make its performances the opportunity for the rising young genius, as well as for the unrecognized dramatist—unrecognized, that is, by the money-making manager and the general public. "Admiral Guinea" has been intrusted to a company organized for the occasion, of whom one member alone has made a reputation—Miss Cissie Loftus, known hitherto as a pleasant music-hall mimic of other music-hall celebrities; her only qualification for the part of *Arethusa* a refinement of manner and voice which sets one to wonder how in the world it has survived her training. But refinement alone will not kindle into even the semblance of reality the girl who has love, pity, and fear to express. The young lover failed, too, from the very "breeziness" for which the critics have been busy praising him; he came fresh, not from the high seas, but from the Adelphi—a William Terriss, the Cockney's hero, in disguise, he seemed, bringing with him the unmingled atmosphere of melodrama.

But, after all, these are minor characters; it is about *Pew* and *Gaunt* that interest centres, and these two well realized, the others would matter little. But they were not well realized. Mr. Sydney Valentine struggled manfully, conscientiously, with the part of *Pew*, but in such a rôle mere conscientiousness in an actor leaves one cold. He had got himself up picturesquely, though he was not by any means the *Pew* of Treasure Island, the dreadful-looking figure hunched as if with age or weakness, in the old tattered sea-cloak with a hood that made him look positively deformed, a great green shade over his eyes and his nose. It is just possible that Mr. Valentine never heard of 'Treasure Island.' However, his appearance, differ as it might from the original, answered fairly well. The trouble was that never once could he complete for you the illusion, could he help you to see in the actor the real *Pew*, the "figure of deadly farce," the terrible *Pew* from whom all shrank instinctively; the humorous *Pew*, enjoying gayly, if grimly, his own whining "kind Christian friend," his own rich talent for lying; the inexorable *Pew*, sacrificing whatever and whoever it might be to the fury of his lusts and passions—a highwayman of the sea, with a touch of *Macaire* added. One watched unmoved that really awful scene in which the blind man, of a sudden, knows he is not alone in the room he has come to plunder, and cannot see whether it is man or ghost whose stealthy step he hears. In the written play the horror of it overwhelms you; on the stage it left the audience emotionless.

And so with the *Admiral Guinea*, as powerful a character in his way. Mr. Mollison was no less conscientious, and no more able to grasp the subtleties of the part he played. His *Admiral* was a dissenting parson, rather than the "slaver saint," with his sheaf "of humor, passion, cruelty, tyranny, life," steeped in the romance of religion as of old in the romance of his infamous trade, fierce in his struggle for salvation as for gold.

"Shadows for the boards" Mr. Henley calls his *Pew* and *Gaunt*. But shadows of these shadows the actors gave. Fine as a drama may be, it lies in the power of its interpreters to mar it, and this I think the New Century Theatre has succeeded in doing with "Admiral Guinea." Once more, as so often before, with all similar societies, it has been proved that what is lacking to-day is not the dramatist, but the actor. It has been a pleasure to see "Admiral Guinea"; it would have been a greater pleasure still had the presentment of so admirable a romantic drama not been seized as an occasion for young players to air their ambition. The reformation of the theatre has been begun at the wrong end. Good acting can save a bad play, but bad acting must ruin the best.

N. N.

CHUQUET'S NAPOLEON.

PARIS, December 2, 1897.

We may well say at the present time, what one of our great poets said in a famous ode on Napoleon:

"Lui! c'est toujours lui!"

The Napoleonic literature is increasing with an alarming rapidity; and the new historical school, which disdains no document, is finding new documents every day. One of the more prolific historians of the day is M. Arthur Chuquet; he has written no less than eleven volumes on "The Wars of the Revolution." A critic has said of him that he treats history like a pie, and gives us successive segments of it. Time was when a historian would have condensed into one or two volumes the matter contained in M. Chuquet's eleven octavos; but "nous avons changé tout cela," and have substituted the process of extension for that of condensation; we wish to have piles on piles of documents. M. Chuquet has, however, shown himself not incapable of condensation, as he has succeeded in giving a very exact and complete history of the Franco-German war ('La Guerre 1870-1871'); but this volume is probably considered by him only as a guide for future historians. Moreover, the subject was not of a nature to attract the general public very much; the present generation of Frenchmen does not return willingly to the lamentable events of what Victor Hugo called, significantly, "l'année terrible." M. Chuquet has found an attractive subject, which will allow him to begin a new series like that of "The Wars of the Revolution." He is preparing to give us a "Napoleon," and the history of Napoleon is so eventful that we cannot tell how many volumes will be necessary to exhaust the subject. We can, however, form an idea of M. Chuquet's plan by reading his first volume, the only one which has yet appeared. This volume of 494 pages is entitled 'La Jeunesse de Napoléon: Brienne.' It is

devoted entirely to the family and childhood of Napoleon and to his military education at Brienne.

M. Chuquet opens his work with a long chapter on Corsica, the character of its inhabitants, the organization of the island, its struggles with Genoa and with France. Corsica became French in 1769, after the defeat of Paoli, at the battle of Ponte-Novo, and those who remained faithful to the cause of independence were designated by the French agents by the name of banditti. Napoleon was born in the same year, 1769, on the 15th of August (the battle of Ponte-Novo was fought on the 9th of May). His father was Charles Bonaparte; his family, which was of Italian origin, was one of the oldest in Corsica; it was of noble extraction, and was recognized as such after the French conquest (the Republic of Genoa had never been willing to recognize the Corsican nobility). When Boulay de la Merthe proposed, under the Directory, the banishment of all noblemen, Tallien said that this motion would send into exile the conqueror of Italy. Charles Bonaparte was married on the 2d of June, 1764, at the age of eighteen, to Letitia Ramolino, who was probably only fourteen years old. Both were very handsome. Charles was prodigal, fond of pleasure, of luxury; he easily became reconciled to the French. Always in need of money, he spent all his energy in obtaining favors from the Government. Letitia long survived him. At the age of thirty she was still, as Napoleon said, "belle comme les amours." She always retained her Corsican accent. She was very avaricious; during the Empire, many were the stories told about her avarice. "I must put money aside; I may have, sooner or later, seven or eight sovereigns come upon my hands," is one of the phrases attributed to her at the time when she was living at the Tuileries. She saw the wood well measured in the court; forced the daughter of Lucien to go to bed early, to save fire and candles. She was of an heroic nature, and, when she visited Napoleon at Elba, and he confided to her his plans, she did not dissuade him. "Let me forget for a moment that I am your mother; go, and follow your destiny."

Napoleon resembled his mother more than his father. Taine insists much in his great work on the French Revolution on the Corsican character of the Emperor; he represents him as an Italian tyrant who had found a larger field than a small city in the Apennines. M. Chuquet, after his description of the Corsican race and an analysis of its insular character, says:

"Napoleon resembles these Corsicans of the eighteenth century. He is of small stature, has fine eyes and fine teeth. He commits no excesses of any sort; he sits at table almost with regret—a quarter of an hour, a half hour at the utmost. . . . He drinks very little and eats too fast. Very simple in his dress, he wishes to wear the uniform of an officer of his guard. He has the strong clan feeling of all the Corsicans, and becomes a benefactor to all his family. The feeling of gratitude is as strong in him as the love of revenge, the spirit of vendetta. He has the firmness and courage of the Corsicans, the Corsican gravity. Like his compatriots, he is a natural orator—his proclamations, his speeches have a sort of natural fire; but he is a soldier, he is more concise than Paoli; he does not make Latin citations, having been but an imperfect scholar, but he speaks willingly of Cincinnatus or Tarquin. 'In Italy, in Egypt,' says one of his officers, 'he constantly spoke to us of the Romans.' He is superstitious, like his compatriots; he has his 'star'; he nearly faints one day merely because he has broken Josephine's glass, and says that she must either be ill or unfaithful. He is very fond of ghost-stories and likes to tell them. He is uneasy, cannot keep quiet; he cuts all his chairs, his tables with his knife. Like a true Corsican, he looks upon women as inferior beings. He will not allow them to meddle with politics. He scandalizes Madame de Staël by telling her that the woman he prefers is the mother who has the most children. It would be difficult to reconcile his natural contempt for women with his ardent and long passion for Josephine, if love was not often quite independent of respect."

I find in M. Chuquet's volume an account of the relations of Napoleon with the famous Laplace, which well illustrates his qualities as well as his defects. Laplace had been one of his examiners at the military school in Paris, after he left Brienne.

"Laplace acquitted himself well of his delicate task. Of a sad aspect, dressed in a black coat, obliged to use a shade on account of the weakness of his eyes, his gravity was imposing and he seemed severe. He was, however, moderate, polite, kind, and, under the Empire, still kept up the ceremonious ways of the old régime. . . . When he became First Consul, Bonaparte appointed Laplace Minister of the Interior; but this eminent mathematician was, like Gaspard Monge, a mediocre administrator. . . . Napoleon made him Senator, Chancellor of the Senate, grand officer of the Legion of Honor, Count of the Empire. He took his son as artillery officer. He accepted the dedication of the 'Mécanique Céleste,' and admired the perfect clearness of the book. 'It is for me,' he said, 'a new occasion to regret that stress of circumstances forced me into a career which is so remote from the domain of science.' From Vitebsk, in 1812, he thanked Laplace for his 'Treatise on Probabilities,' one of those works which 'perfect mathematics, that first of sciences.' Laplace was a real courtier, and artfully flattered Bonaparte; he encouraged him to make the *coup d'état* of the 18th Brumaire, and he was known to be so intimate with Napoleon that he was deputed by the Senate to sound the General on his acceptance of a ten-years' consulate. On his return from Leipzig, the Emperor was cruel to the academician. 'You are changed,' said he, 'and thinner.' 'Sire,' answered Laplace, 'I have lost my daughter.' 'You are a geometer,' retorted Napoleon; 'submit this event to calculation, and you will find that it is equal to zero.' Nothing can show better the hardness, the insensibility which had been produced in Napoleon by continued wars, the exercise of supreme power, and the spectacle of the servility of men."

The new historical school—to which M. Chuquet eminently belongs, as his volume is saturated with documents of all sorts—is bound to exact truth. We should like to know on what authority M. Chuquet cites this conversation between Laplace and Napoleon, but we are left in complete ignorance on this point. To me the answer of Napoleon seems too stupid to be true; it is in such bad taste and so heartless that it is impossible to believe it, great as may have been the effect on Napoleon of the various causes mentioned by M. Chuquet to explain his change of character.

Let us return to the school at Brienne. Its pupils were all appointed on special recommendations. Bonaparte owed his appointment to the recommendation of M. de Marbeuf. His father had to produce a certificate of nobility. M. Chuquet gives details of the organization of the twelve schools of cadets which existed in France under Louis XVI. After six years of study these cadets were placed as cadets-gentilshommes in the army, and destined to fill vacancies in the sub-lieutenancies. The school at Brienne, established on the 28th of March, 1776, occupied one of the thirteen convents which the Order of the Minims possessed in Champagne; the establishment was confided to the friars, and the life of the pupils was almost conventual. Napoleon's education was severe; he was regarded by his comrades as a foreigner, did not often take part in their plays; "in his quarrels he did not always come out the conqueror. He never complained to the Minims. In his eyes the master was the enemy. He hated the despotism of the monks. . . . Masters and scholars ended by having the same antipathy for this singular child, who lived in a sort of isolation."

Napoleon remained at Brienne for six long years. His favorite study was history; he read and reread Plutarch's 'Lives,' and filled his mind with the memories of Leonidas and Dion, of Curtius and Decius, of Cato and Brutus. He left Brienne, with four of his comrades, on the 30th of October, 1784, under the guidance of a Minim, to go to Paris, where he was to enter the military school of the capital.

He saw Brienne only twice afterwards. In 1805, when he was on his way to Milan, Madame de Brienne, the widow of an ex-Minister of War, asked him to make her a visit.

"On the 3d of April, in the midst of the multitude which had come from all the villages of the neighborhood, he arrived by the inclined road which leads to the esplanade of the château, saluted Madame de Brienne, and took possession of the apartment which was once occupied by the Duke d'Orléans. . . . The next day, Napoleon, escorted by Louis de Canisy, a nephew of Madame de Brienne, whom he had made his equerry and a baron of the Empire, visited the military school. It was a ruin. Suppressed in 1793, sold as national property, the school had been totally demolished in 1799. There remained only the convent. . . . Napoleon galloped over the road to Bas-sur-Aube, and, borne on his swift Arabian, traversed the woods and the villages, and many of the places where he had so often walked with the Minims. He made sixty kilometres in all directions without stopping. On his return he offered to buy her château of Madame de Brienne; she refused. 'Brienne,' he said to her, 'is a great deal to me.' 'And to me,' she answered, 'it is everything.'"

The second visit was made on the 29th of January, 1814. Napoleon had said in 1805, "This plain would be a fine battle-field." And so it became in 1814. He had to take the château by storm, to defend it against a return of Blücher. On the 1st of February a battle was fought and lost. It was the first battle which Napoleon lost on French territory.

Correspondence.

CITIZENSHIP OF HAWAIIANS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of December 2, pp. 432-3, speaking of a supposed election in Hawaii under the Revised Statutes of the United States, you say: "Enough 'outnumbering aliens' . . . would be left to bury him (Mr. Armstrong) in the drifts. The Hawaiians alone could snow him under to the tune of 39,000 to 3,000."

In re Kanaka Nian 4 L.R.A., 726 (1889) the Supreme Court of Utah, then a Federal tribunal, held that an Hawaiian could not be naturalized, but belonged to the same category as Chinese and Japanese, who, as you recognize, are ineligible to citizenship under existing laws as now interpreted. The

decision above referred to has never been questioned, and it is but one of the numerous group of authorities which apply literally the language of the Federal statute and exclude from naturalization all save "whites," "Africans," and "persons of African descent." Annexation would, of course, no more change this rule than did the purchase of Alaska permit its Indians to be naturalized. Whatever, therefore, may be said of annexation, it clearly would admit to citizenship (and hence to the suffrage) no race or class not already eligible.

Very respectfully yours,

CHARLES S. LOBINGIER.

OMAHA, NEB., December 6, 1897.

[Despite the decision quoted, the suffrage could be conferred on Hawaiians by act of Congress; and the most unblushing tramplers on Hawaiian rights have not proposed to do more than deprive its natives of the right to vote by some sort of legislative juggle. But the opinion cited emphasizes both the outrage and the peril involved in annexation—the outrage in robbing of the suffrage a people accustomed for forty years to electing their representatives, and the peril to us in taking in one more mass of aliens without the defence of the ballot.—ED. NATION.]

"THE MOST VALUABLE BOOK IN THE WORLD."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: At a friend's house, a day or two ago, I happened to be turning the leaves of the *Outlook* for November 6, when my eye caught an article having the above title, and containing such choice bits of unintended humor that I cannot refrain from calling to one or two of them the attention of such Gothic scholars as may not see the magazine.

The article was written in Stockholm, and gives a very brief account of the Codex Argenteus. The writer was permitted by "Dr. Andersson, the professor in charge of the volume on the day" he called, to make photographs of its cover and of one page, which are reproduced in the article in question. The writer says:

"I asked Dr. Andersson for the book and chapter of this page, and he began at once to decipher it; but it is an immensely difficult thing to do. . . . He had not time to decide the location of the page. . . . He sent me, however, a week later, the translation from the third to the seventh verses, inclusive, of St. Mark."

This "translation," together with the letterhead of the University Library, he then also photographed, and it is reproduced in the magazine article, but there called "Dr. Andersson's transliteration into Swedish of the page printed opposite." Now, whether we call it a "translation" or a "transliteration" is of no consequence—it's a little difficult always to remember just what the difference is; at any rate, we are assured that it is Swedish, and corresponds to the Gothic of the opposite page. One is tempted to ask whether this is the Swedish that the writer used in engaging lodgings and in ordering his meals during his stay in Sweden. With Dr. Andersson he probably spoke English. Well, it may be a small matter, but it is worth mentioning that what the library assistant sent our writer was the most ancient Gothic we know anything about; in fact, it is exactly such a text of the Gothic Bible as may be found in any college library—though there may be some charm in having it with the exactness of photographic reproduction, in the handwriting of Dr. Andersson, which looks a trifle more learned than the print that we are familiar with.

It might also be mentioned in passing that Dr. Andersson seems to have forgotten just which page he let his American visitor photograph; at any rate, he sent him a transliteration of the page containing, as he says, Mark 7:3-7, while the reproduction of the photograph presents us with Mark 3:26-32!

But, of course, all this is beside the point. "In the midst of this present-day activity and life, when people, at least on our side of the sea, live so intensely in the present," pedantic accuracy is not needed or wanted. It is the spirit that is essential. Here is an ancient manuscript that, as every visitor to the Upsala Library observes, is highly prized. He is told that it is one of the earliest manuscripts we have of the Bible, that it is in the tongue of our ancient Teutonic ancestors, and that it has great philological value. The opportunity is too good a one to be neglected. There is no need of a knowledge of Gothic or of Swedish; the kodak is applied, a few notes are copied from Baedeker, and our literary or clerical American on his vacation hies him to the summit of one of the ancient burial mounds near Upsala, there to gain inspiration wherewith to clothe the article that is forming in his brain:

"No more peaceful sight ever spread before one's eye. . . . Dainty blue flowers are abloom on the crest of the hills of the gods, and the only sound is that of the distant tinkle of a bell where the herds are gathering for the night; there is no show of mailed men and savage battle-axes and rows of shining spears, no sound of rude speech, no call to battle, no challenge to the test of strength in the ferocious drinking-bout. The sun is slow sinking in the west; and far to the south, sharply defined against the rare blue of the Swedish sky, rise the great dark towers of the cathedral of Upsala standing their sentinel watch of the centuries over the silver-bound, purple-paged, priceless book in its oaken case in the steel-clad safe of the ancient home of Scandinavian learning."

With such a result as this—such a burst of mingled poetic reminiscences—who would dare raise his rude voice and ask impudent questions as to facts? Thou vain lover of the truth, go waste thy days in thy fruitless search, and let us glory in the glitter of what seems to be.

G. H.

DRAWING AS A COLLEGE REQUIREMENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Drawing has found a place on the list of Harvard entrance requirements. Candidates for admission to the Lawrence Scientific School may, beginning with 1898, present themselves for examination in the elements of free-hand drawing.

It would seem that what is good for the technical school would also be good for the college. Where the elective system prevails, there is no hard-and-fast line drawn between classical and scientific students. At Harvard very many of the courses in the Lawrence are open to the college, and the candidate for A.B. may be found doing exactly the same kind of work as the candidate for B.S. Some knowledge of drawing is equally important for both.

Further, the opinion may be hazarded that a great many students, not especially destined to scientific or mathematical pursuits, would be greatly benefited by a preparatory course in draughtsmanship. The argument, which I have frequently heard advanced, that the value of it as manual training would be great to persons given over wholly to intellectual studies, does not seem to me to amount to much, for in draughtsmanship mere manual dexterity is of little account; the aim of drawing is seeing. Yet precisely for its intellectual value, drawing may well claim a place in the preparatory school. It demands absolute clearness of vision, a thorough-going insistence upon certain large truths of construction and values. It gives training in clear thinking.

Aside from this general consideration, the subject directly concerns the departments of the fine arts and of archæology. Electives in the history of art attract an increasingly large number of college and university men, of whom a majority go to their subject absolutely without preparation. Ignorant of the first principles of drawing—"Le dessin c'est la probité de l'art"—they fall easily into a weak dilettantism of which the most common and disagreeable manifestation is an unintelligent contempt for all the later achievements of art. It may be doubted whether any student is fit seriously to pursue the study of the history of the arts without a fair knowledge of design.

It will perhaps be allowed a schoolman to suggest the conditions under which drawing, as a new comer into the preparatory school, would have to be received. Such a course as is found in many high schools and academies—a weekly exercise of an hour's duration, spread out over four years—would simply weaken the work in other departments, and fail to accomplish any results in the way of draughtsmanship. Drawing, as it seems to me, should be put into the same group with the chemistry or the advanced physics of the Harvard requirements. Only those schools that have good facilities for teaching it should be expected to offer it, and the manner of preparation should be somewhat similar. That is to say, the work ordinarily should be concentrated into a single year, preferably that before entering college. As much time should be spent upon it as upon a stiff laboratory course, such as advanced physics is supposed to be. Two hours a day through the year would be a reasonable expectation.

To work out the details of such a course would be interesting. Suffice it here to say that an artistic art-teacher would hardly be content with merely meeting such requirements as the Lawrence has set up. The human figure, despite the fact that all artists agree that only through mastery of it can there be good draughtsmanship, is quite ignored. Correct delineation of architectural forms and of machinery is perhaps all that scientific students need, but it must be remembered that the greater includes the less. The big facts about the human frame ought to be in the possession of every one who essays to draw. Furthermore, composition receives no attention, though it is of more moment to the average person of culture who will never be a professional artist than any other department of art. It is every year assuming a larger place in the

art schools; it would seem to deserve some consideration in secondary-school drawing.

Whatever defects, however, may appear in the course prescribed by any particular institution, every movement is to be welcomed that will help give to art standing-room in our secondary and higher education. It may be hoped that Harvard College and other colleges will eventually follow the example of the Harvard Scientific School.

FREDERICK WILLIAM COBURN.

BROCHURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your review of 'Lumen' to-day you say, "Back in the early forties a little book, scarcely more than a *brochure*, was published, etc."

A book is either a *brochure*, or it is not. It does not cease to be one when it is big. The 'English Dictionary' is coming out in *brochures*. Of course you are aware that the word means simply an unbound volume. Your reviewer, however, seems to think that the term has some relation to the size of a book; and as such an erroneous impression seems not uncommon, you may think it worth while to call attention to this small matter. If we must use French words in writing English, let us use them with precision. G. H. F.

PHILADELPHIA, December 9, 1897.

[We fear our correspondent is overwise. Littré defines the word, for Frenchmen, as "*Petit ouvrage de peu de feuilles*, et qui n'est que broché." Hatzfeld, Darmesteter, Thomas define it as "*Petit ouvrage contenant seulement quelques feuilles d'imprimerie trop peu nombreuses pour former un livre.*" Dr. Murray, who (with doubtful propriety, we apprehend) marks the word as not naturalized, defines it as "*A short printed work, of a few leaves*, merely stitched together; a pamphlet." In fact, "brochure" is an English synonym for "pamphlet," in contradistinction to a sizable book worthy to be bound if not actually bound. We did not italicize it, as our correspondent has done, and have no apology to make for using a French word in writing English. We should as soon think of apologizing for the use of "bouquet" in place of "nosegay."—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

The fourth volume of Prof. Bury's edition of Gibbon's 'Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire' is soon to be issued by the Macmillan Co., along with volumes three and four of "Gossip of the Century," being 'Social Hours with Celebrities,' by the late Mrs. W. Pitt Byrne, edited by her sister, Miss R. H. Rusk.

Dodd, Mead & Co. have in press 'Address on Christianity,' lectures by the late Dr. Henry Drummond, and 'The Monkey that Would Not Kill,' children's stories by the same author.

The A. D. F. Randolph Co. will publish immediately 'The Scarlet-Veined, and Other Poems,' by Lucy Cleveland.

'To London for the Jubilee,' the correspondence of the Toronto *Mail and Empire*, by "Kit," editor of the woman's page in that journal, will soon be reprinted in book form by George N. Morang, Toronto.

George Routledge & Sons will shortly bring out a new edition of their 'Guide to London.' To the 20,000 Americans living in London, and the many thousands more who visit that metropolis, such a guide is a requisite. In this instance, they will have the benefit, as cicerone, of the Rev. Robert Gwynne, Vicar of St. Mary's, also known as the Greek Church, Charing Cross Road. Mr. Gwynne is admirably qualified for the work of editor.

Further announcements from T. Fisher Unwin are Dr. Birkbeck Hill's 'Letters of Dante Gabriel Rossetti to William Allingham, 1854-1870,' with illustrations; 'Modern France, 1789-1895,' by André Lebon; 'Sir Thomas Maitland,' by Walter Frewen Lord; 'The Buccaneers and Marooners of America,' by Howard Pyle; and 'The Work of Charles Keene,' by Joseph Pennell.

Mr. Gerald Duckworth, stepson of Mr. Leslie Stephen, has taken No. 3 Henrietta Street, Covent Garden, London, W. C., and will begin a publishing business after Christmas under the style of Duckworth & Co., in collaboration with Mr. A. R. Waller, editor of Florio's Montaigne in the Temple Classics.

One of the most sumptuous books of the season is Gaston Vuillier's 'History of Dancing from the Earliest Ages to Our Own Times' (D. Appleton & Co.). It is a quarto volume beautifully printed, and adorned with more than 400 illustrations, largely possessing an antiquarian interest as copies of curious old prints, caricatures, posters, etc., along with many reproductions of classic art and of modern paintings of balls, *fêtes champêtres*, and the ballet. All this fits the work for the parlor-table and insures a temporary diversion in turning the leaves. M. Vuillier's text does not pretend to scientific authority, and is perhaps hardly to be called continuously readable. It is a chronicle not severely literary in form, touching superficially the matters brought together by the writer's diligence. It is naturally strongest on the subject of French dancing, but begins with primitive man (whose possession of the dance is denied on p. ix, and affirmed in a note on p. 1), and gives special sections to Spanish and modern Greek dancing. The first edition went no further, but Mr. Joseph Grego has added two chapters on dancing in England, which much improve the book, while not affording any sharp contrast to M. Vuillier's desultory style. An index also has been prepared for this edition.

The *de luxe* edition of Owen Meredith's 'Lucile,' just issued by Frederick A. Stokes Co., falls short of the distinction we attach to this epithet. The letter-press of the poem, with its broad margins, is irreproachable indeed, without, however, being exactly elegant, and it is marred by Mr. C. McCormick Rogers's trivial pen-drawings. On the other hand, the full-page water-color designs by Madeleine Lemaire seem rather crude chromolithography, and would not of themselves deserve high praise, accomplished as this artist is in her proper field. On the whole, we are better pleased with the binding than with any other part of the manufacture.

'The Making of Abbotsford, and Incidents in Scottish History,' by the Hon. Mrs. Maxwell Scott (Macmillan), is a title which promises to give us something new about Sir Walter. Unfortunately, the name of his home is only a lure to lead one far afield into early Scottish hagiology and more recent Catholicism. Out of 363 pages, Mrs. Scott devotes 22 to Abbotsford, and these we are bound to term extremely thin. Nearly, if not quite, half the space is filled up by excerpts from Lockhart's 'Life' and Scott's own 'Letters on Demonology and Witchcraft.' The connecting narrative is unmarked by any special features worthy of praise. One is a little mystified by the appearance of such a paper at all; the more so when it proceeds from modern Abbotsford. Some light is thrown upon the puzzle by the consideration that this sketch was prepared for Mr. William Gibb's 'Abbotsford and its Treasures.' Whatever may have been its value in that context, we feel sure that it will cause some disappointment now. An erroneous impression of contents is conveyed by a taking title. Whether the three essays next following 'The Making of Abbotsford' may be considered to fall within the definition "Incidents in Scottish History," will depend largely on the reader's point of view. Their subjects are "Barbour's Legends of the Saints," "The Life of St. Margaret," and "St. Magnus of the Orkneys." We should class them under the literature of edification, though some parts of the setting are historical. The bulk of the book is occupied with short studies of topics which are very apt to interest Scotch Roman Catholics, and would interest the general public if their treatment but disclosed full and independent research. Mrs. Scott has, in almost every case, based her abridgment on certain sources which she candidly avows, but which, uncriticised and unsupplemented, are poor material for the historian. We do not feel called upon to estimate her account of Mary Stuart beyond saying that it seems typical of her method. One seldom meets such light-hearted neglect of what can be urged on the other side. The Marquis of Bute has aided Mrs. Scott in the preparation of her article on "St. Magnus of the Orkneys." To those who have read his rectorial address at St. Andrews, this collaboration will not appear strange.

It is but three years ago that we reviewed the concluding (fifth) volume of Creighton's 'History of the Papacy from the Great Schism to the Sack of Rome,' a work of high rank for English readers and students, which has just been reissued by the Longmans in six convenient duodecimo volumes, with a general index, and we can only recommend it anew. Its bibliographical and documentary utility is very great.

In keeping with their publication of Mrs. Browning's Letters, the Macmillan Company have very fittingly brought out the first complete edition of her Poetical Works, in a single volume. It is the inclusion of her youthful performances which distinguishes this collection from its predecessors; and the only omission is of the earlier translation of the "Prometheus Bound," which Mrs. Browning wished atoned for and obliterated by the later. The arrangement of the poems is chronological by volumes as originally published, but with a text of the author's final revising. Mr. F. G. Kenyon has thus edited with discretion, and Mr. Roger Ingpen has furnished a valuable chronological list of Mrs. Browning's works, and the index. We should add that this volume includes two prose papers—one on the Greek-Chris-

tian Poets, the other on 'The Book of the Poets,' both dating back to 1842.

An excellent idea, and well carried out, is that of the 'King's Story-Book' (Longmans), prepared, it is to be supposed, by Mr. George Laurence Gomme. He, at all events, furnishes the very sensible introduction, in which he points out that English history and romantic literature are capable of furnishing children as much entertainment as fairy tales, together with some more solid benefits. He has naturally drawn most freely on Scott; but Shakspere is liberally quoted. The field covered is from Hastings to Waterloo, and, while tastes may differ as to some of the selections, they are, as a whole, such as to stir the blood of those who love to listen to the recital of valiant deeds.

The 'Lincoln Literary Collection,' by J. P. McCaskey (American Book Co.), contains some six hundred selections in prose and verse, most of them of a suitable length for memorizing. The collection is named for Lincoln because of the habit attributed to him of committing to memory such poems as he enjoyed. The selections are, on the whole, good; at all events, a sufficient number of good ones can be chosen from so liberal a supply, and the book may well be put in the hands of children. Mr. McCaskey's idea that many of them should be "learned by heart" is, in our judgment, commendable.

One of the most charming of Christmas books for children issued in a long time is 'The Second Book of Nursery Rhymes,' set to music by Joseph S. Moorat, illustrated by Paul Woodroofe (F. A. Stokes Co.). The nursery rhymes are the delicious old English nonsense about the cow that jumped over the moon, pussy in the well, and that sort of thing, and it is high praise to say that the pictures and the music are equal to the verses in quaintness and merit. The illustrations are artistic, and the music is surprisingly good, even in its harmonies, which in books of this class are usually commonplace and machine-made. Another meritorious volume is 'Gems of School-Song,' selected and edited by Carl Betz (American Book Co.). Mr. Betz is supervisor of music in the public schools of Kansas City, and his object in making this compilation was to acquaint the teachers of our public schools with the songs used in the public schools of Germany. Many eminent composers are represented in the list, and there are a number of folk-songs; all being arranged according to their subjects—spring, flowers, home, birds, soldiers, forest, hunters, etc.

We welcome the third volume of 'American Book-Prices Current,' compiled from the auctioneers' catalogues by Luther S. Livingston (Dodd, Mead & Co.). Two sales in particular, in the period covered (September 1, 1896-'97), the Bierstadt and the Roos, gave an opportunity to gauge the values of first editions of American authors. The Sewall collection secured $1,250 for a single book, the Book of Common Prayer of 1788, in which Franklin had a hand; and the Frederickson Library reaped $615 from Shelley's 'Queen Mab,' first edition, with autograph presentation inscription to Mary Wollstonecraft Godwin. For the rest, it was made evident that the Shelley cult is rather feeble in this country.

In his 'Theory of Electricity and Magnetism' (Macmillan), Dr. A. G. Webster of Clark University has aimed "to present to the student the results of the theory as it stands to-day after the labors of Faraday, Maxwell, Helmholtz, Hertz, and Heaviside." This he has accomplished in a thoroughly satisfactory manner. A suitable mathematical introduction clears the way for an unencumbered discussion of the subject. The diagrams, which have been especially prepared for the text, are clear and attractive.

From Longmans, Green & Co. we have a translation, by Dr. C. V. Burton, of Ebert's 'Magnetic Fields of Force, Part I.' In this work the conception of lines of force is used in the exposition of the phenomena of Magnetism, Electro-Magnetism, and Induction, and the subject is treated in accordance with the latest theoretical developments. The treatment is clear and concise throughout, and many experiments are described which well illustrate elementary principles. This method of presenting the phenomena by the logical application of the conception of lines of force makes clear the relationships between various phenomena which are too often overlooked by the student, and enables him to get a more connected and complete understanding of the whole subject.

Dr. Christiansen's 'Elements of Theoretical Physics' has been translated by Prof. W. F. Magie of Princeton (Macmillan). The work presents in compact form a review of many important topics in mathematical physics. By judicious selection of the material, and by considering only what is especially weighty, the author has been able to give a satisfactory discussion in limited space. The treatment is up to date, clear, and vigorous.

Anthony and Brackett's 'Text-Book of Physics' has appeared in a revised edition (Wiley & Sons) from the hand of Prof. Magie. The reviser has adhered to the original design of the authors in presenting the fundamental principles with brief statements of their experimental verification. The principal changes in the revision are: the omission of several demonstrations of minor importance; a rearrangement and enlargement of the Mechanics; the addition of a discussion of the kinetic theory of matter, and a treatment of Magnetism and Electricity by the method of tubes of force, with discussions of hysteresis and the Roentgen radiance. The Mechanics is treated more logically than in the former editions, and the discussion of flux of force furnishes a suitable preparation for the presentation of Electricity and Magnetism by the method of tubes of force. Sound is put in a more natural position, being placed after Mechanics and before Heat, and many minor changes and corrections have been made.

Mr. John Ritchie, jr., librarian of the Boston Scientific Society, has sent, without charge, to a large number of libraries, a "List of Books in English on Travel, Exploration, and Mountaineering, published during the year ending August 31, 1897." The List occupies 13½ single-column pages, very well printed, and the accompanying flyleaf suggests that the publication, if found useful, will be continued. It is an author list, without a subject index, but with a one or two-line critical opinion of each book. It will, therefore, be useful to those whose business it is to choose books for purchase, but the number of persons who would benefit by it would have been vastly larger had the titles been arranged by subjects, with index to authors. We notice a variation from accepted rules of cataloguing in placing De Amicis under A instead of D; but no misprints, except J. I. for I[saac] I. Hayes. In a few cases neither the title nor the cataloguer's comment gives even a hint as to what part of the world is described.

'L'Espagne en 1897,' by Gaston Routier, is the fourth edition of this Paris journalist's book, and is sent us by Lemcke & Buechner. It is pitched in a decidedly dithyrambic key, from "The more one knows Spain the more one loves her" of the beginning, to the final words, "Chapeau bas, messieurs, et salut à l'Espagne!" But despite this rather alarming tendency to gush, the volume has a good deal of statistical and political information which is of undoubted value. The personal details in the chapter on the Madrid press, for example, it would be hard to find so compactly given elsewhere. Frankly journalistic (M. Routier represents, we believe, the *Petit Journal*), the book nevertheless yields many an instructive glimpse of contemporary Spain. Every one in private, says the author, groans over the Cuban war and wishes it ended on any terms; but the same people in public pledge their last peseta and their lives to the defence of the "integrity of the national territory." And they mean it, too.

The current *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* offers nothing of equal interest to Prof. Norton's sketch of the late Prof. Child, and Messrs. Lane and Tillinghast's tributes to the late Justin Winsor. They add much to what has already been written regarding these two personalities (alike indefatigable, but otherwise very distinct), and show that no one hand could do justice to their remarkable qualities of head and heart. A heliotype portrait of Winsor and a portion of Kruell's engraving of Child accompany the articles, and will give posterity a true idea of their appearance. We should like to join the life-examples of these two men of an elder generation to the "Important Suggestions in Athletics" made in another part of this number of the magazine.

It appears from a recent article in the London *Notes and Queries*, that British soldiers no longer fight under a flag, and that the color-bearer's occupation is now gone. The flag of one regiment was laid up last summer in Lichfield Cathedral with some ceremony. In the course of this function the following statement, in a letter from the Commander-in-Chief, Lord Wolseley, was read: "In future it would be madness and a crime to order any man to carry colors into action. You might quite as well order him to be assassinated. The Germans carry the poles on which the colors used to be, so that they attract no notice in action. We have had most reluctantly to abandon a practice to which we attached great importance, and which, under past conditions of fighting, was invaluable in keeping alive the regimental spirit upon which our British troops depended so much." This letter gives a glimpse of a department of military history on which standard authors are taciturn, but ought to speak out. An officer who was in a battle before Atlanta informs the present writer that Sherman there left his horse altogether to his orderly, and was himself dressed in the uniform of a private. How often Sherman or other officers took this expedient for making themselves less conspicuous targets for sharp-shooters, and how often, if at all, in our civil war, regiments fought without color-bearers, members of the Grand Army can tell us.

The "words by Rudyard Kipling" attached to 'An Almanac of Twelve Sports by William Nicholson' (New York: R. H. Russell) do not enhance the worth of a decidedly attractive thin folio. The cleverness of the artist for strong contrasts and effective coloring overbears that of the verse-maker, who is all but bent on being as foolish as he can.

—Among the noticeable illustrated articles in the *Century* for December are one on "Tennyson and his Friends at Freshwater," by V. C. Scott O'Connor, and one on "The Wonderful Morning-Glories of Japan," by Eliza Rubamah Scidmore. If the latter leads to a convolvulus-variegation craze in this country, we shall know whom to hold responsible. The article is worth reading even by those who know little of flowers, for the reflected light it throws on the Japanese character. The Tennyson article contains some reminiscences of the poet's brothers which are certainly worth preservation, as might have been also a well-known anecdote of Septimus that we do not remember to have seen in print, making him reveal himself to a casual and astonished visitor as "not Alfred," but "I, Septimus—the most morbid of the Tennysons." The "Causes of Poverty," by the late Francis A. Walker, is a solid article, in which a good deal of humbug is demolished, as, for instance, the theory that rent is necessarily a progressive cause of poverty. The argument demolished may be stated in a very few words, as follows: Labor-saving improvements increase the production of wealth—for wealth labor and land are required; hence the effect of labor-saving improvements will be to intensify the demand for land, thus increasing rent, which is wrung from the poor. The logical answer to this is obvious: If the demand for land is increased, so may be the demand for labor; hence wages may rise as rent does. And so, as a matter of fact, they do rise. "In those forms of production which specially characterize modern society, the rate of enhancement of the demand for labor tends to exceed, and far to exceed, the rate of enhancement of the demand for land." E. H. House's "Edwin Booth in London" saves from oblivion a conversation about the drama between Charles Reade and Edwin Booth, reproduced from memoranda taken down at the time by Mr. House. It is Reade to the life, even to the little mechanisms of expression, as, "Give our actors a metrical speech to deliver, and—endure it if you can." Of Forrest he says: "A lusty cock on his own dunghill, he runs abroad into his neighbor's barnyard, and gets crowed down for his pains, and then he sulks, and tries to set two countries by the ears." To Reade the stage was a natural element—almost more than literature—and it is interesting to observe the deference with which all his statements and opinions about the details of the dramatic art are listened to by Booth. Reade insisted that the way for an English author to win the American heart was to keep clear of "injustice."

—The *Atlantic* contains a paper by Mr. T. W. Higginson on "Literary London Twenty Years Ago," which seems to carry us back much farther than 1878, the illusion arising from the fact that the principal people mentioned are now all dead and "bound up." He recalls one or two neat pieces of observation by Matthew Arnold. Mrs. George Bancroft had said that she had never known an English scholar who, if he had chanced to dine with a nobleman, would not speak of it to everybody, whereas no German savant would ever think of mentioning such a thing. "Very true," said Arnold, "but the German would be less likely to be invited to the dinner." He also pointed out that the word *mésalliance* was not English, nor was there any word in our language to take its place—the explanation being, of course, that in England intermarriage between noble and non-noble is encouraged. Dr. George Birkbeck Hill brings the correspondence between Swift and his friend Chetwode to a close in a fourth paper, which possesses a good deal of interest. It is curious to find that in 1729 one might, according to Swift, live in England, in the country, "with repute, and keep the best company," for £100 a year; and the editor cites Boswell's account of Peregrine Langton's housekeeping in confirmation of this. Swift as a correspondent, though always candid, was careful to avoid the familiarity which even among friends breeds contempt. In verse he allowed himself a license which leads Mr. Hill to think that the lines,

> "But laughed to hear an idiot quote
> A verse from Horace learned by rote,"

may have been a hit at Chetwode, who, in an undated letter, had referred to the ninth satire. Swift replies that it is "a miracle" to him how his friend "came acquainted with Horace." This is justly endorsed by Chetwode, "a very extraordinary letter, designed, I suppose, to mortify me." The correspondence ends sadly enough. As Thackeray says somewhere, Swift's mind in its sanity is so great that there is something awful in the premonitions of its decay and the gloomy shadow which his fate casts before it.

—*Harper's* article on "A Bird's Egg," by Ernest Ingersoll (with colored plates), is really the most interesting paper in the number, but there is a belated account of the Queen's Jubilee, by Richard Harding Davis, with many illustrations, and a collection of early letters of George William Curtis (contributed by George Willis Cooke), which contains one of considerable interest. It was written from New York in 1844, and explains his earliest views about association and individualism. For a young man of twenty, it shows a remarkable insight, and explains why he began his career out of sympathy with the Brook Farm experiment, though interested in it. "I feel," he says, "that our evils are entirely individual, not social. What is society but the shadow of the single men behind it?" Beginning as an Emersonian individualist, his life and experience made him a practical and political individualist, and it is interesting to see in this letter the germs of the character which made in the end an independent journalist and leader out of a man whose other youthful letters show him so sympathetic, impressionable, and adapted to be drawn into associated action of all kinds. Some of his little imitators who imagine that independence consists in "organizing a movement" against those who are not independent, should study this letter.

—The first part of "The Workers," by Walter A. Wyckoff, comes to an end in the Christmas number of *Scribner's*, and the current paper deals with life in a logging camp. If this is what he represents it to be, such Labor has got very little above the animal stage. His idea seems to be that the only cure for Labor is a sort of ecstatic religious revival. Mr. Wyckoff is now going to show us Labor at work in Chicago and other crowded centres, and there possibly the reader will find a higher type than the country produces. The general result thus far will do little but reinforce the view of those who regard realistic altruism as a virtue which should not go too far afield in search of its objects. Cosmo Monkhouse's article on Sir Edward Poynter gives some interesting reproductions, while "The Posing of Vivette," a poem by J. Russell Taylor, illustrated by A. B. Wenzell, is a novelty in its way.

—The State Historical Society has done something for leavening Wisconsin with a bibliothecal spirit. There are thirty-five free libraries in the State, each of which has more than 1,000 volumes, while the aggregate total is 238,855 volumes. One of these, in Menomonie, founded ten years ago by a lumberman, as a memorial of his daughter, has 6,121 volumes, and is free to all inhabitants of Dunn County. But one of its directors, J. H. Stout, observed that this choice library was of little use to 17,173 inhabitants of Dunn (a vast majority of the population of 22,664) who lived beyond the city limits of Menomonie, and who took out less than 3,000 books in a year. They were scattered over a region two-thirds as large as Rhode Island. In view of these facts, Mr. Stout bought 500 volumes, the most suitable, so far as he could learn, for rural circulation. He divided his purchase into sixteen libraries, each of thirty volumes, packed in a box which would also serve as a bookcase, and gave notice throughout the county, where he had been already known as a philanthropist, that he would send a travelling library for free use to every village, hamlet, and cross-roads where it could be suitably cared for, and as soon as one set of books had lost the gloss of novelty, he would replace it with a fresh series. In May, 1896, his first plant was at sixteen stations, but these during the year increased to thirty-four. Every book in the first ten boxes sent forth was taken out on an average twelve times in six months. The depositories were stores, post-offices, and farm-houses, so sequestered that there was neither store nor post-office in sight. This initiative of Mr. Stout induced the Legislature of the State to make enactments in furtherance of his movement, which everybody wishes had been started sooner. His example has also proved contagious. It has likewise provoked his brethren by the higher birth in Chippewa, Lincoln, and Wood Counties to emulate his endeavor, which was "to do the greatest good to the greatest number." His new departure seems likely to sweep the State like a prairie-fire, and make libraries as multitudinous as saloons. A pamphlet just issued by the Wisconsin Free Library Commission at Madison ('Free Travelling Libraries in Wisconsin') sets forth this history in detail, with many photographic illustrations.

—In a valuable bulletin prepared by Alfred J. Henry, and just issued by the United States Weather Bureau, relative to the rainfall of our country, it is stated that rain probably falls in the United States at one point or another every day in the year. Theories of rainfall are then briefly set forth, as are our limitations to clear understanding of all causes for sudden atmospheric cooling sufficient to produce precipita-

tion, and some of the known forces (chiefly geographic) contributing to abundant rains. As to geographic distribution, a narrow belt of very heavy rainfall extends from Cape Flattery on the north to the middle of Oregon Coast on the south, and inland to the summits of the Coast Range. Precipitation on mountains is always large, though not as yet accurately tabulated. East of the one hundredth meridian the average fall varies from about twenty inches yearly to sixty on the Florida and Gulf Coasts. Local distribution of rainfall is erratic, the catch of two gauges but a few miles apart often showing a total difference of ten or even fifteen inches, a few thunder-storms alone being enough to account for the variation. Unlike ordinary weather conditions, droughts have apparently little progressive movement from west to east, but show a tendency to irregular recurrence in periods of from four to eleven years. The amount of water falling in a "cloud-burst" or "torrential down-pour" has never been accurately ascertained. The great majority of excessive rains of short duration in the United States occur east of the one hundred and fifth meridian, chiefly in summer months. Frequently they appear in connection with afternoon thunder-storms, occasionally happening in the track of West India hurricanes, and are less frequent inland than on Southern coasts. A series of fine weather maps and carefully tabulated results accompany this rainfall bulletin.

THE HOUSE OF BLACKWOOD.

William Blackwood and his Sons: Their Magazine and Friends. Annals of the Publishing House. By Mrs. Oliphant. 2 vols. London: Blackwood; New York: Scribners. 1897.

"A' contributors are in a manner fierce," said the Ettrick Shepherd, himself a contributor whom it would be hyperbolical to call polite. For William Blackwood and his sons the publishing business was a long and severe training in diplomacy, and about the Edinburgh offices there ever hung a strong aroma of warfare. After an Iliad of libel-suits bravely faced and duels averted, they have fitly received their apotheosis at the hands of a contributor, Mrs. Oliphant, whose reverence for the house, its traditions, and its magazine, attains the dimensions of a cult.

The genius for editorship which runs in the Blackwood family first displayed itself in the founder of the publishing house, William Blackwood the First, who, early in this century, began his career as a dealer in old books in Edinburgh. His first publication was a catalogue of his own books, and is noteworthy from the fact that it was the first in which the books were classified, and is still regarded as an authority. The Scotch agency for the great London house of Murray—an honor eagerly sought by every Edinburgh bookseller—gave Blackwood a footing which he was not slow to secure. Those were the days when the authorship of 'Waverley' was still a mystery to the general public. But in Scotch publishing circles it was an open secret, and when James Ballantyne, Scott's literary agent, offered Blackwood a work in four volumes to be called 'The Tales of My Landlord,' the ambitious young publisher knew that it was Walter Scott with whom he had to deal. He writes in a letter to Murray: "I naturally asked him, was it by the author of 'Waverley'? He said it was to have no reference to any other work whatever, and any one would be at liberty to form their own conjecture as to the author" (p. 57). So it was that, for a brief period of triumph, Blackwood became Scott's publisher. Unfortunately he prided himself on "taking an interest in the literary side of my business," and was rash enough to make some criticisms on the 'Black Dwarf,' whereupon his connection with Scott came to an abrupt close with the following expurgated note from the irate novelist:

"DEAR JAMES [BALLANTYNE]: I have received Blackwood's impudent letter. Tell him that I belong to the Black Hussars of Literature, who neither give nor receive criticism. I'll be cursed, but this is the most impudent proposal that ever was made.
"W. S."

Thus did Blackwood's first publishing triumph become a two-edged memory. In the end, it was Scott that suffered. If, instead of returning, in a fit of resentment, to the shaky firm of Constable, he had left his publishing affairs in the reliable hands of Blackwood, he would have been spared the financial ruin that clouded his later years and turned his literary life into a painful struggle with debt.

Susan Ferrier, the novelist, whose vogue in her undiscriminating day was much greater than that of her contemporary, Jane Austen, owed her early success to Blackwood's encouragement. Her first novel, 'Marriage,' published anonymously, as was the fashion, drew a charming tribute from Scott, the last sentence of whose 'Tales of My Landlord' was as follows: "If the present author, himself a phantom, may be permitted to distinguish a brother, or perhaps a sister, shadow, he would mention in particular the author of the very lively work entitled 'Marriage.'" In her estimate of Miss Ferrier, Mrs. Oliphant's love of all things Scotch has run away with her critical sense, and the reading world, which leaves 'Marriage' unread, may well be astonished at her remark that Susan Ferrier and Jane Austen "now occupy a very similar level" (p. 42).

But, for Mrs. Oliphant, as for the firm, the story of William Blackwood's rise in his profession and his publishing adventures is but the prelude to that auspicious day in 1817 when, even as fifteen years earlier, Jeffrey, Sidney Smith, and Brougham, at a casual meeting, had founded the *Edinburgh Review*, so John Wilson, Lockhart, and Blackwood put their heads together and produced *Blackwood's Magazine*—the immortal "Maga." Blackwood's first magazine venture had been unlucky, owing to the incompetence of his editors; and the periodical that rose from its ashes was managed by the three leading spirits, in a committee of which Blackwood was the predominant partner. "Maga" was a Tory rival of the Whig *Edinburgh*, and the politics of both magazines colored the literary articles and the reviews to a degree that we, for whom literature is independent of every criterion save that of taste, can hardly realize. Those were the days when newspapers were few and "not respectable," and men looked to the monthly reviews for political writing. The author might be alien to politics. "The Reviewer," says Lockhart, "does not mind that; when he sits down to criticise, his first question is not, 'Is the book good or bad?' but, 'Is this writer a Ministerialist or an Opposition-tionist?' . . . If the author has a nephew or a cousin or an uncle who is a member of Parliament and votes, that is quite sufficient" for both *Edinburgh* and *Quarterly*.

Mrs. Oliphant has a keen sense of the romance of "the Trade," in the happy *tempus actum* before the author sold his work "per thousand words." Her description of Blackwood's home-coming on the eve of the appearance of the first number of "Maga" is worth quoting:

"He walked home in the keen evening air . . . with the precious little packet under his arm. He went into his house, where all the children—by this time a nursery full—rushed out with clamor and glee to meet their father, who, for once, in his excitement, took no notice of them, but walked straight to the drawing-room, where his wife, not excitable, sat in her household place, busy, no doubt, for her fine family; and, coming into the warm glow of the light, threw down the precious Magazine at her feet. 'There is that that will give you what is your due—what I always wished you to have,' he said, with the half-sobbing laugh of the great crisis. She gave him a characteristic word, half satirical, as was her way, not outwardly moved, with a shake of her head and a doubt. He was always sanguine, but she had no bees in her bonnet. Sometimes he called her a wet blanket when she thus damped his ardor—but not, I think, that night. And the next day all Edinburgh was ringing with the wild, witty, flagrant attacks upon all the nobilities. And the authors were the only men who did not venture to laugh too much over this joke, which convulsed their world" (p. 128).

We Epigoni, far removed from those Titanic enterprises may marvel at the *succès de scandale* achieved by the "Chaldee MS.," which Wilson and Lockhart, with the countenance of the "man in plain apparel," concocted for that famous first number. Mrs. Oliphant thinks it "scarcely necessary to explain" what the Chaldee MS. was, but we imagine that its very title is unknown nowadays to all but students of literature. This satirical composition, at which all Edinburgh shook and far-away London was moved, was an attack in Biblical language on the rival publishing firm of Constable, with a background of Edinburgh notables, including Scott, "that great magician which hath his dwelling in the old fastness." The descriptions of themselves by Wilson and Lockhart clung to them for life. Wilson figured as "the beautiful leopard from the valley of the palm trees, whose going forth was comely as the greyhound, and his eyes like the lightning of fiery flame. And he called from a far country the scorpion, which delighteth to sting the faces of men." But the reader who is interested in those heroic days of literature will count the real scandal the bitter attack on Coleridge and his works which appeared in the same number. It was followed by the famous blundering article on the "Cockney School of Poetry," in which Leigh Hunt was the chief victim, though the writer of the article promises to attack in turn "the younger and less important members of the Cockney School, the Shelleys, the Keatses, and the Webbes." Blackwood was promptly threatened with two libel suits, one in London, brought by Leigh Hunt, the other in Edinburgh, by an advocate who had figured as a "beast" in the Chaldee MS. "All you have to do is to keep your mind in good fighting condition," wrote "Christopher North," from the safe shelter of anonymity to the less fortunate publisher.

The early history of the magazine, on which we have not space to dwell, gives a vivid picture of Blackwood in the character

of Phaethon vainly trying to control his plunging coadjutors. We may, however, remark in passing that, whereas for Mrs. Oliphant "Maga" was the turning-point in the fortunes of the Blackwood house, and a source of undying fame to its contributors, a very different view of its influence has been taken by Mr. Andrew Lang. In his recent 'Life of Lockhart,' Mr. Lang expresses a pious regret that Lockhart blighted his prospects by his association with the magazine. "It is painful for a biographer," says Mr. Lang, "to be obliged to confess his hero's inexplicable attachment to 'the mother of mischief.' But he is well assured that, while Scott did not indeed regard the offences of 'Maga' with our modern horror, still he did most earnestly endeavor, on every occasion, to withdraw Lockhart and Wilson from the cup of her inexplicable sorceries. Alas, to each might have been said:

" 'La laide Dame Sans Merci
Thee hath in thrall.' "

Mr. Lang can find excuse for neither the blame nor the praise of "Crusty Christopher," but his rhetoric is quite misplaced, for it is doubtful whether Lockhart could have done better for himself than he did by that lively career of Edinburgh journalism which indirectly led to his position as Scott's son-in-law, and gave him, later, the editorship of the *Quarterly*. Lockhart's claim to fame rests on his Lives of Burns and Scott, and his youthful indiscretions in criticism are forgotten save by the professional critic. If he blundered over "Shelly" (*sic*) and the Cockney School, we may remember that his criticisms on Tennyson's earlier poems were, in the main, just, as Tennyson acknowledged by his alterations of the passages criticised. In these days of huckstering criticism, when only ink is shed, when the minor poet lives by writing well within the comprehension of his century, and the minor critic lives by praising him, we may spare some indulgence for Jeffrey and Lockhart and "Christopher North," who lived in an age that would not look at Coleridge's 'Lyrical Ballads,' but devoured three editions of Leigh Hunt's 'Juvenilia.' The Blackwoodsmen did not cultivate the gentle art of suffering fools gladly, and in their joy of battle they made some serious blunders. "I now think with deep sadness of the pain my jibes and jokes inflicted," wrote the "Scorpion" Lockhart, later, of his share in that literary horseplay. "The Animosities are mortal, the Humanities live for ever," was Wilson's fine apology to Leigh Hunt.

Blackwood's Magazine was the first to publish a serial novel. Not the least interesting pages in Mrs. Oliphant's 'Annals' are those that describe George Eliot's connection with the Blackwood firm. The larger part of the correspondence dealing with this period has, however, been reserved for the third volume of the 'Annals,' which Mrs. Oliphant did not live to complete. The Blackwoods rejected Thackeray's 'Roundabout Papers,' and declined the 'Hoggarty Diamond,' but their mistakes of this sort were few, and they erred rather on the side of enthusiasm for new writers. Lord Lytton was a constant contributor to "Maga"; we cannot refrain from quoting a note to the firm written by this ladies' novelist, in anticipation of a public dinner in Edinburgh:

"Pray, let me express a hope that the Music Hall will not be crowded with ladies—they always throw a chill upon every audience. Accustomed to talk, it bores them to listen, and their unaccustomed and frigid silence stifles every attempt at a cheer which the laboring orator vainly endeavors to provoke. If those fair refrigerators are to be multitudinous, I hope they will be ranged together, and not interspersed throughout, so as to leave the whole assembly despoiled of any spark of electricity by non-conductors of silk or muslin."

"Now that we are all dead," as Sydney Smith would say, the publication of the letters of the famous Blackwood group, which are of the deepest interest to the historian of literature, can hurt no one's feelings. Even Mr. Gladstone, who, if he cares for these things, can derive little pleasure from the recent biographies of his famous contemporaries, comes off here with nothing worse than faint praise. "I liked him much better than I expected," says John Blackwood. Mrs. Oliphant was herself for forty years a contributor to *Blackwood's Magazine*, and we may fitly conclude our notice of her last work with her own account of an early interview with the representatives of the house to whose history she devoted her last years:

"I had myself gone through many vicissitudes of life when I found myself in the winter of '60 in Edinburgh, whither I had come with my little family of three fatherless children. I was poor, having only my own exertions to depend on, though always possessing an absolute, foolish courage in life and Providence. . . . My contributions sent from Italy, where I had passed a year watching my husband's waning life, had been, as I can see through the revelations of the Blackwood letters, pushed about from pillar to post, these kind-hearted men not willing to reject what they knew to be so important to me, yet caring but little for them. . . . Why I should have formed the idea that in these circumstances, when there was every appearance that my literary gift, such as it was, was failing me, they would be likely to entertain a proposal from me for a serial story, I can scarcely now tell; but I was rash and in need. At the time I was living in Fettes Row, in a little house consisting of the ground floor and the basement below. . . . I walked up to George Street, up the steep hill, with my heart beating, not knowing what they would say to me. There was, indeed, only one thing they could say. They shook their heads. . . . I remember very well how they stood against the light, the Major tall and straight, John Blackwood with his shoulders hunched up in his more careless bearing, embarrassed and troubled by what they saw and no doubt guessed in my face, while, on my part, every faculty was absorbed in the desperate pride of a woman not to let them see me cry, to keep in until I could get out of their sight. I remember also the walk down the hill, and a horrible organ that played 'Charlie is my darling,' and how one line of the song came into my mind, 'The wind is at his back.' . . . I went home to find my little ones all gay and sweet, and was occupied by them for the rest of the day in a sort of cheerful despair. . . . But when they had all gone to bed, and the house was quiet, I sat down—and I don't know when, or if at all, I went to bed that night; but next day (I think) I had finished, and sent up to the dread tribunal in George Street a short story, which was the beginning of a series of stories called the 'Chronicles of Carlingford,' which set me up at once, and established my footing in the world."

Although the "Annals" are as yet incomplete, Messrs. Blackwood have wisely provided Mrs. Oliphant's two volumes with an excellent index. We need hardly say that the book is admirably got up in all respects.

RECENT AMERICAN POETRY.

Goethe's saying that so soon as a man has done anything good, the world conspires to keep him from repeating the process, is well illustrated when a volume of unquestionable merit, such as Mr. Lloyd Mifflin's 'At the Gates of Song' (Estes & Lauriat) is at once handicapped by praises so extravagant as not merely to create a reaction in the minds of more deliberate critics—a result not wholly injurious—but to risk damaging almost irretrievably the standard of the author himself. If a man is told outright that his first book places him at the head of all poets of the nineteenth century, what hope is there that his second book will do him any credit? Great reputations rarely begin in a blaze of triumph; it is during a period of obscurity, *obscuro in ævo*, that the fame of Marcellus grows; it is the Martin Tuppers and Alexander Smiths who go up like rockets. There are fortunately many indications in this book that Mr. Mifflin is more modest for himself than are some of his critics for him, and that he may vindicate some of their predictions if they will only let him alone. Daring he certainly does not want, if printing a volume consisting exclusively of one hundred and fifty sonnets can demonstrate it; neither Petrarch nor Rossetti attempted as much, and we can recall no corresponding attempt except in the case of Mr. Wilfrid Scawen Blunt. Then it is to be remembered that the sonnet, of all forms of literature, has its own laws, imperious and vital; and not only does Mr. Mifflin venture on the dangerous experiment of six-syllable lines (p. 139), but he is often slovenly in his rhymes, though rarely in his measure; nor does he keep closely to the distinction between what is sublime and what is fustian. Both these defects are apparent, oddly enough, in the very sonnet selected by his most ardent admirer as having "no parallel in nineteenth-century English literature, unless it be Hunt's famous sonnet on the Nile," Let us quote this, by way of criticism (p. 23):

SESOSTRIS.

Sole Lord of Lords and very King of Kings,
He sits within the desert, carved in stone;
Inscrutable, colossal, and alone,
And ancienter than memory of things.
Graved on his front the sacred beetle clings;
Disdain sits on his lips; and in a frown
Scorn lives upon his forehead for a crown.
The affrighted ostrich dare not dust her wings
Anear this Presence. The long caravan's
Dazed camels stop, and mute the Bedouins stare.
This symbol of past power more than man's
Presages doom. Kings look—and Kings despair;
Their sceptres tremble in their jewelled hands,
And dark thrones totter in the baleful air.

Compare the magnificent dignity of the closing lines of Shelley's sonnet on a similar subject, "Ozymandias," with the merely melodramatic terrors of the last three lines of Mr. Mifflin's; note the feebleness of sound in the line preceding these; observe the flagrantly false rhymes of "man's" and "hands," with the ungrammatical "ostrich dare"; and see how far the poem is from that perfection of external form which is the first test of a sonnet. In another sonnet selected by the critic for praise almost equally extravagant ("The Flight," p. 49), we find at the very beginning three words used as rhymes which have to a delicate ear three distinct terminating sounds, namely, "stood," "solitude," and "brood." It is useless to point out instances where poets of high reputation (Mrs. Browning, for instance), have used rhymes far worse than these—they doubtless have; but a sonnet is a sonnet; the false stroke which would not show on a statue may be fatal to a cameo.

For the rest, we may say without hesitation

that no recent volume by a new American poet gives so much food for thought or so much real beauty of imagery as this by Mr. Mifflin, and it is not antagonism but good will that dictates these criticisms. The following sonnet seems to us one of the noblest and best sustained of those contained in the volume: its symbolic meaning is clear and elevated, and it rises with gradual swell to a fine conclusion (p. 109):

THE FRONTIER.

O Soldier, treading through the long day's heat,
With tattered banner and with drooping crest,
Now as the sun sinks down thy purpled West;
Thou who hast come so far with aching feet,
Thou who must march and never canst retreat,
Art thou not weary of the bootless quest?
Look'st thou not forward to a time of rest?
Sweet will it be—beyond all telling sweet—
After long marches with red danger fraught;
The wakeful bivouac; the assault and flight—
After thy scars of glory; sore distraught;
To camp afar—beyond defeat and fight—
Wrapped in the blanket of a dreamless night,
Out past the pickets and the tents of thought!

Critics of the rough-and-ready school were, it seems, mistaken in the eagerness with which, a year or two ago, they consigned the sonnet to oblivion. There have appeared almost simultaneously two sets of American translations of the remarkable sonnets which won for the Franco-Cuban Hérédia an unexpected promotion to the French Academy. Part of these appear in the "Library of the World's Best Literature" (xiii, 7277), the translator being Prof. Maurice F. Egan, and the rest in a volume, 'Sonnets of José Maria de Hérédia,' done into English by Edward Robeson Taylor (San Francisco: Doxey). There is something improbable to many minds in the suggestion of a Frenchman, even if only a semi-Frenchman, as being a sonnetteer, although Prof. Egan reminds us that the Provençals claim that the very name came from the recurrent tinkling of their sheep-bells (*sonnette*), and that all Paris was divided between the merits of the two sonnetteers of the seventeenth century, Voiture and Benserade. But no one who reads Hérédia's poems, whether in the original or in the translation, will doubt that in his hands a new quality is introduced into the sonnet—something which neither Petrarch nor Rossetti developed—a fiery enthusiasm, a brilliant touch, and an astonishing command of technical and local vocabulary. Of the two translations, Prof. Egan's is the superior, as showing the more trained poetic touch, and he has also the advantage of measuring himself only against ten picked sonnets, while Mr. Taylor undertakes more than a hundred. On the other hand, Mr. Egan refines more upon the vigorous and daring dialect of the poet, and therefore gives us a little less of his flavor. Each is responsible for some feeble or lax lines, and in respect of rhymes Mr. Taylor is frequently faulty, giving us, for instance, *keen* and *skin*, *tongue* and *long*; *fume*, *boom*, and *foam*; *drear* and *where*; *on* and *own*; *then* and *gain*. In ordinary, loosely jointed lyrics some of these rhymes might pass; but a sonnet, we repeat, is nothing if not perfect, and Mr. Taylor himself claims for his author "technical perfection." Mr. Taylor gives us also quaint words of his own, such as *kissful*, *bashed*, *defeatures*, besides the perilously varied and often technical language of Hérédia himself. Nor can it be claimed that even the latter's artistic taste is perfect, when we find him capable, at least once, of unquestioned bathos. No one recognizes better what the French call veiled climax in the sonnet—the need of leaving each thought at high-water mark in the last line; yet who but a Frenchman would close the fine succession of pictures in "The Sunset" with two lines such as one might expect from a professional rhymer of the Bon Marché or the Magasins du Louvre?

"The sun on rich dark clouds sinks slow away
And shuts the gold sticks of his crimson fan."

Nevertheless, Mr. Taylor's work is well and honorably done, and has given to the English-speaking world the opportunity of some knowledge of one for whom Mr. Edmund W. Gosse has claimed, in his "Critical Kitcats," that he is probably, as to mere execution, the most remarkable poetic artist now writing in Europe.

No anti-climax, certainly, mars the strength of this fine sonnet, descriptive of fiery horses, with their no less savage riders, bathing amid the plunging waves of a rocky coast (p. 146):

THE BATH.

Like handsome antique monster, man and beast,
Bitless and free, the sea have entered in,
Midst the gold mist of acrid pulverin—
On fiery sky athletic group expressed.

The savage horse and rustic tamer with zest
Inhale the salty fragrance as with keen,
Abandoned joy their naked flesh and skin
Are by Atlantic's icy stream caressed.

The surge swells, runs, wall-like is piled,
Then breaks. They cry. His tail the stallion plies
Till azure wave in jets transplendent flies;

And with dishevelled locks and aspect wild
Their smoking breasts in passion they oppose
To foaming billows' lashing, angry blows.

Or this, of the Spanish conquerors (p. 113):

THE CONQUERORS.

As falcons from their native eyry soar,
So, tired with weight of their disdainful woes,
Rovers and captains out of Palos rose,
To daring brutish dreams mad to the core.

They longed to seize the fabled metal ore
Which in Cipango's mines to ripeness grows,
And trade-winds willingly inclined their prows
Toward the mysterious occidental shore.

Each eve, athirst for morrow's epic scene,
The tropic sea with phosphorescent sheen
Bound all their visions in mirage of gold;

Or from the fore-deck of their white carvels,
They watched amazed on alien skies enscrolled
Strange stars new risen from ocean's glowing wells.

Mrs. Harriet Prescott Spofford, in her 'In the House of Titian' (Copeland & Day), brings together the work of her later years under a title which well represents that instinct for color which in earlier years almost overcame her, but which she has now learned to control. In its place there yet remains at times a little film or mist, as of delicate lace, between her and her thought, so that while it charms it does not quite master; nor has she ever wholly equalled the lyric chord she struck in her very first published poem, the song, "In a Summer Evening," which so delighted Lowell forty years ago. In this she resembles Celia Thaxter, who was, like her, a child of the pine-trees and the sea, and who never quite caught up with her first verses, "Land-locked." In Mrs. Spofford's present volume there is a fine ballad—vigorous, fresh, free, and with that originality of rhythm which marks so much of her best work (p. 32):

OFF BRETON COAST A THOUSAND YEARS AGO.

Put the boat round, and head her for the sea!
Did I hear, Damrosée? Did you answer me?
Has the wind so sweet a sigh as that whisper which went by?
Oh, bring the boat about, and head her for the sea!

Soft the old gray towers sink beyond the view,
Clouds of wings above them dark upon the blue;
Oh, the rooks come back at night, however long their flight,
But nevermore, Damrosée, those towers encircle you!

Up blaze the bonfires on the great bluff's side,
Tremblingly the bridegroom hastens to the bride;
With many winters' snows upon his head he goes;
Oh, tremble, dotard, like the lights that in your jewels hide!

Tremble! For the tide between yourself and her
Wide swells, and wider, a purple plunderer!
A thousand spears of light, it strikes your startled sight,
And every spear a foeman! and the great winds stir!

Many a time, Damrosée, have I sailed along the lea,
When nights were still and dark, and when glad gales were free,
Seen your towers shine where they stand, and fair, I said, the blooming land—
Oh, fair and broad!—but my dominion is the sea.

Oh, beautiful dominion, where the wild storms bloom,
Where field on field forever flies the foam-wreath's plume,
Where sleep the silver swells, where the moonlight weaves her spells,
Where sunrise like a spirit bursts from the gray gloom!

See, how far above us the bright sail takes its breath!
See, how far below us the great sea darkeneth!
Oh, Damrosée, wild the bliss, heart to heart and kiss to kiss,
With nothing but a tree's stem between our flight and death!

'Lyrics,' by John B. Tabb (Copeland), is handicapped by the multiplicity and extreme brevity of the poems, and a certain general similarity of tone to those preceding; but there is scarcely one of the small pages that does not contain a thought, and hardly a thought without a gem of originality. The curious resemblance to Emily Dickinson still continues; thus, the following might have come from either of them (p. 97):

INDIAN SUMMER.

No more the battle of the chase
The phantom tribes pursue,
But each in its accustomed place
The autumn hails anew:
And still from solemn councils set
On every hill and plain,
The smoke of many a calumet
Ascends to Heaven again.

Or this (p. 28):

LIVERY.

Old-fashioned raiment suits the Tree:
Tho' flouting winds are fain
To strip the foliage, presently
He patterns it again;
Fastidious of chivalry,
Rejecting as in scorn
All other than the panoply
His ancestors had worn.

Sometimes there is promise of a more lyric and melodious quality than we have before attributed to this poet, as in the following (p. 29):

SLUMBER-SONG.

Sleep! the spirits that attend
On thy waking hours are fled.
Heaven thou canst not now offend
Till thy slumber-plumes are shed;
Consciousness alone doth lend
Life its pain, and Death its dread;
Innocence and Peace befriend
All the sleeping and the dead.

And the author has extended his range so far as to include a few sonnets, as thus (p. 185):

POE.

Sad spirit, swathed in brief mortality,
Of Fate and fervid fantasies the prey,
Till the remorseless demon of dismay
O'erwhelmed thee—lo! thy doleful destiny
Is chanted in the requiem of the sea
And shadowed in the crumbling ruins gray
That beetle o'er the tarn. Here all the day
The Raven broods on solitude and thee:
Here gloats the moon at midnight, while the Bells
Tremble, but speak not lest thy Ulalume
Should startle from her slumbers, or Lenore
Hearken the love-forbidden tone that tells
The shrouded legend of thy early doom
And blast the bliss of Heaven forevermore.

In Mr. E. C. Stedman's volume, 'Poems Not Before Collected' (Houghton, Mifflin &

Co.), we gladly recognize the conscientious workmanship that is invariable with him, but are compelled to admit the presence of that larger element of the occasional and even the mechanical which is apt to mark the later productions of poets, and especially of those as much given as he to laborious task-work in the way of editing and criticising. We find him, however, at his best in the brief lines "On a Great Man Whose Mind Is Clouding" (p. 115), and in this exquisite poem on the deaf, dumb, and blind maiden, Helen Keller. Much as has been written on that rare and beautiful personality, this is the best yet achieved (p. 39):

HELEN KELLER.

Mute, sightless visitant
From what uncharted world
Hast voyaged into Life's rude sea,
With guidance scant;
As if some bark mysteriously
Should hither glide, with spars aslant
And sails all furled?

In what perpetual dawn,
Child of the spotless brow,
Hast kept thy spirit far withdrawn—
Thy birthright undefiled?
What views to thy sealed eyes appear?
What voices mayst thou hear
Speak as we know not how?
Of grief and sin hast thou,
O radiant child,
Even thou, a share? Can mortal taint
Have power on thee unfearing
The woes our sight, our hearing,
Learn from Earth's crime and plaint?

. Not as we see
Earth, sky, insensate forms, ourselves,
Thou seest, but vision-free
Thy fancy soars and delves,
Albeit no sounds to us relate
The wondrous things
Thy brave imaginings
Within their starry night create.

Pity thy unconfined
Clear spirit, whose enfranchised eyes
Use not their grosser sense?
Ah, no! thy bright intelligence
Hath its own Paradise,
A realm wherein to hear and see
Things hidden from our kind.
Not thou, not thou—'t is we
Are deaf, are dumb, are blind.

Messrs. Copeland & Day, whose establishment may be regarded as the Bodley Head of American poets, give us other thin volumes of varied merit from their different bards. Mr. John Vance Cheney, in his 'Out of the Heart of Silence,' offers nothing essentially different from what he has heretofore produced; Miss Hannah Parker Kimball includes in her 'Victory, and Other Poems' a single poem, "The Daughter of Herodias," which, although Browningish and also somewhat repellent, shows a power which she has not heretofore exhibited; while Mr. Richard Burton, in 'Memorial Day, and Other Poems,' shows a distinct advance, in various directions, upon his previous work. One of the most striking of these newer compositions, and one which has historic interest as the only portrayal of a unique and wholly American situation, is the following (p. 16):

THE RACE OF THE "BOOMERS."

The bleak o' the dawn, and the plain is asmoke
with the breath of the frost,
And the murmur of bearded men is an ominous
sound in the ear;
The white tents liken the ground to a flower-meadow embossed
By the bloom of the daisy sweet, for a sign
that the June is here.

They are faring from countless camps, afoot or
ahorse may be,
The blood of many a folk may flow in the'r bounding veins,
But, stung by the age-old lust for land and for
liberty,
They have ridden or run or rolled in the mile-engulfing trains:

More than the love of loot, mightier than woman's
lure,
The passion that speeds them on, the hope that
is in their breast;
They think to possess the soil, to have and to
hold it sure,
To make it give forth of fruit in this garden
wide of the West.

But see! It is sun-up now, and six hours hence is
noon;
The crowd grows thick as the dust that muffles
the roads this way;
The blackleg stays from his cards, the song-man
ceases his tune,
And the gray-haired parson deems it is idle to
preach and pray.

. . . . . .

And over the mete away the prairie is parched
and dry,
A creature of mighty moods, an ocean of moveless waves;
Clean of a single soul, silent beneath the sky,
Waiting its peopled towns, with room for a host
of graves.

The hours reel on, and tense as a bow-cord drawn
full taut
Is the thought of the Boomers all: a sight that
is touched with awe;
A huddle of men and horse to the frenzy pitch upwrought,
A welter of human-kind in the viewless grip of
Law.

. . . . . .

High noon: with a fusillade of guns and a deep,
hoarse roar,
With a panting of short, sharp breaths in the
mad desire to win,
Over the mystic mark the seething thousands pour,
As the zenith sun glares down on the rush and
the demon's din.

God! what a race: all life merged in the arrowy
flight;
Trample the brother down, murder, if need
be so,
Ride like the wind and reach the Promised Land
ere night,
The Strip is open, is ours, to build on, to harrow
and sow.

. . . . . .

So, spent and bruised and scorched, down trails
thick-strewn with hopes
A-wreck did the Boomers race to the place they
would attain;
Seizing it, scot and lot, ringing it round with
ropes,
The homes they had straitly won through fire
and blood and pain.

. . . . . .

While ever up from the earth, or fallen far
through the air,
Goes a shuddering ethnic moan, the saddest of
all sad sounds;
The cry of an outraged race that is driven otherwhere,
The Indian's heart-wrung wail for his hapless
Hunting Grounds.

In 'Aphroessa, A Legend of Argolis,' by George Horton (London: Unwin), the author, who is understood to be an American, seems to us to have done what Keats feared to do, and to have touched too late the beautiful mythology of Greece. In 'Trialogues,' by William Griffith (Kansas City, Mo.), we have a little book which would hardly, one would say, have come into existence had not John Davidson and Kipling gone before it in its very measures. If intended to be simply an imitation, it must be pronounced successful. Mr. Henry Hanby Hay's 'Trumpets and Shawms' (Philadelphia: Arnold) shows a distinct advance upon the rather crowded rhetoric of his earlier work, and interest is added to the volume by a preface from Hall Caine, addressed to the author as to a fellow-Manxman, though now a resident of the United States. Mr. R. W. Gilder scarcely does justice to his growing reputation in coming before the public in such very small volumes as 'For the Country' (Century); but he has the example of Whittier before him in this respect, and the same excuse with Whittier, that he writes as one with a message, which is, in this case, a manly and simple love of country. If to this can be added a touch of inspiration, the result is a fine one, and this was not always present in Whittier, nor is it wanting in Gilder. Even Lowell showed it, we must remember, in only one ode out of his four. Were patriotism all, there is enough and to spare of it in the curious volume of Japanese poems, 'Poetical Greetings from the Far East' (Tokio: Hasegawa), which, rendered successively through a German adaptation by Dr. Florenz and an English version by A. Lloyd, are presented in all the fulness of Oriental paper, and still retain a pleasing flavor of heroism and cherry orchards.

Is it possible that Canada, so long kept in the background and discouraged, has suddenly become possessed of two gold mines—in her Klondike range and in her poets? We called attention, long since, to the prominence rapidly being assumed by Mr. Carman, Mr. Roberts, and Mr. Campbell among the writers of this Continent, and the little book called 'Ballads of Lost Haven: A Book of the Sea' (Lamson) has in some degree restored to Mr. Carman the leadership which he seemed to have risked by dallying too long amid Bohemian bowers. It is a hundred pages of salt sea, without a trace of Kipling, and yet having a sea-flavor as unmistakable as his, and with a finer touch—with less of repetition, less of mere technicality, and a more varied human interest. It has, withal, a quality of grace which is surely legitimate, when we consider that the sea itself, which is the strongest thing on this planet, is also the most graceful. A single poem like "The Master of the Scud" in this volume is, at any rate, enough to make a reputation, and no one who has ever sailed in a coasting schooner or ever watched a mackerel fleet into Gloucester harbor on the edge of a gale, can help being thrilled by the strong movement of the poem we quote (p. 29):

A SAILOR'S WEDDING.

There is a Norland laddie who sails the round sea-rim,
And Malyn of the mountains is all the world to him.
The Master of the Snowflake, bound upward from the line,
He smothers her with canvas along the crumbling brine.
He crowds her till she buries and shudders from his hand,
For in the angry sunset the watch has sighted land;
And he will brook no gainsay who goes to meet his bride,
But their will is the wind's will who traffic on the tide.
Make home, my bonny schooner! The sun goes down to light
The gusty crimson wind-halls against the wedding night.
She gathers up the distance, and grows and veers and swings,
Like any homing swallow with nightfall in her wings.
The wind's white sources glimmer with shining gusts of rain;
And in the Ardise country the spring comes back again.

. . . . . .

The dusk is long and gracious, and far up in the sky
You hear the chimney-swallows twitter and scurry by.
The hyacinths are lonesome and white in Malyn's room;
And out at sea the Snowflake is driving through the gloom.
The whitecaps froth and freshen; in squadrons of white surge
They thunder on to ruin, and smoke along the verge.
The lift is black above them, the sea is mirk below,
And down the world's wide border they perish as they go.
They comb and seethe and founder, they mount and glimmer and flee,
Amid the awful sobbing and quailing of the sea.
They sheet the flying schooner in foam from stem to stern,
Till every yard of canvas is drenched from clew to ear'n'.
And where they move uneasy, chill is the light and pale;
They are the Skipper's daughters, who dance before the gale.

. . . . . .

They love the Norland sailor who dares the rough sea play;
Their arms are white and splendid to beckon him away.
They promise him, for kisses a moment at their lips,
To make before the morning the port of missing ships,
Where men put in for shelter, and dreams put forth again,
And the great sea-winds follow the journey of the rain.
A bridal with no morrow, no welling of old tears,
For him, and no more tidings of the departed years!
For there of old were fashioned the chambers cool and dim,
In the eternal silence below the twilight's rim.
The borders of that country are slumberous and wide;
And they are well who marry the fondlers of the tide.
Within their arms immortal, no mortal fear can be;
But Malyn of the mountains is fairer than the sea.
And so the scudding Snowflake flies with the wind astern,
And through the boding twilight are blown the shrilling tern.
The light is on the headland, the harbor gate is wide;
But rolling in with ruin the fog is on the tide.
Fate like a muffled steersman sails with that Norland gloom;
The Snowflake in the offing is neck and neck with doom.
Ha, ha, my saucy cruiser, crowd up your helm and run!
There'll be a merrymaking to-morrow in the sun.
A cloud of straining canvas, a roar of breaking foam,
The Snowflake and the sea-drift are racing in for home.
Her heart is dancing shoreward, but silently and pale
The swift relentless phantom is hungering on her trail.
They scour and fly together, until across the roar
He signals for a pilot—and Death puts out from shore.
A moment Malyn's window is gleaming in the lee;
And then—the ghost of wreckage upon the iron sea.
. . . . . .
And there when daybreak yellows along the far sea-plain,
The fresh and buoyant morning comes down the wind again.
The world is glad of April, the gulls are wild with glee,
And Malyn on the headland alone looks out to sea.
Once more that gray Shipmaster smiles, for the night is done,
And all his snow-white daughters are dancing in the sun.

We do not wish to take too great a liberty with Mr. Carman by counting him in among American poets after his announcing himself, through an interview in *Black and White* about a year ago, as an "intense imperialist"; but as he has, so to speak, furled his sails and come to anchor in the peaceful harbor of Scituate, Mass., he must take the consequences. It is a great pity that some arbitration treaty could not settle for us the question of literary domicile. Why, for instance, should we habitually claim as American, through the accident of his birth, Mr. James, who probably could not find his way about New York, or Bret Harte, whose very heroes and heroines could not now make themselves at home in California; while on the other hand we do not include Mr. Kipling, who dwells half the year in Vermont, and sails out of Gloucester, and belongs to the American Authors' Guild? In the meantime let us welcome, wherever we find it, that touch of genius which makes the whole world akin.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.—II.

'The Slambangaree, and Other Stories,' by R. K. Munkittrick (R. H. Russell), is a collection of whimsical sketches, most of them very short and very slender, but pleasing in a small way. The title story, though the longest, has little originality—being merely a variant of the plum-pudding nightmare theme—and compares unfavorably with "The Turtle's Story," for instance, which is the last and one of the least in the book.

The ever-dear, kind, tiny, and powerful fairies hold the field in 'Prince Uno' (Doubleday & McClure Company). Children will never tire of hearing and reading about these little people—so small that only years of fruitless search can convince them that they may not some time, by extra good luck, meet one in the woods or garden, and be offered the three magic wishes which bring lasting content.

'Icelandic Fairy Tales' is the title of a thick book, translated and edited by Mrs. A. W. Hall (Frederick Warne & Co.). She has, says the preface, changed and softened some of the incidents to make more suitable reading for children, and doubtless this was needed. There is still enough left, as in all these Northern tales, of savage giants and greedy ogresses to satisfy the primitive instinct for horrors which most children possess and most parents are loath to foster.

The exactly opposite taste, the taste for the prosaic, will be gratified by Amy E. Blanchard's 'Three Pretty Maids' (J. B. Lippincott Company). This is one of those stories which enthusiastic young girls tell each other "might really have happened just so." No doubt self-love has something to do with such praise. If such every-day girls are worth writing a book about, the importance of all commonplace girls is increased. These pretty maids, however, are not unwholesome company, and their wise mothers' and grandmothers' counsels may profit more girls than the three to whom they are addressed.

Though its title-page names a list of books by the same author, Ruth Ogden (Frederick A. Stokes Company), 'Little Homespun' is one of those loose-jointed, halting stories which usually betray the beginner. Not the strictest propriety of tone nor the greatest elevation of moral enforced can prevent the conclusion that, when a writer's fourth or fifth book shows such artistic incompetence, it is time for a faithful friend to advise her to try cooking, making paper flowers, or some other less exacting profession.

A dear old lady, whose husband was notoriously tyrannical and ugly, once stopped a younger woman who was saying something in presence of a discerning child about unhappy marriages. "Unhappy marriages!" cried she, with a glance at the child; "why my dear, you know very well there's no such a thing." A similar warning ought to have been given Dolf Wyllarde, the author of 'A Lonely Little Lady' (Dodd, Mead & Co.). As a piece of writing, the book is better done than many child's stories, but its introduction of unnatural family relations makes it unhealthy reading for any child, except such an unfortunate as Henry James's Maisie, who sadly "knew it all already."

E. R. Herrick & Co. reprint in attractive form, and with liberal illustrations by Blanche McManus, some of Dr. Watts's best known 'Divine and Moral Songs,' under the title 'Childhood's Songs of Long Ago.' This was a happy thought, for the pieces are too good to lose; but it will perhaps be hard to persuade children to take the volume as seriously as some of the "divine" songs deserve, because the pictured children do look so very funny in their antiquated clothes.

A tale of frontier life in that past when the "Far West" was no idle form of words is 'An Oregon Boyhood,' by Louis Albert Banks (Lee & Shepard). This boyhood began in a one-roomed log-cabin little less than a half-century ago, and, in the years that followed, a wide-awake, open-eyed boy saw much that was worth recording. The book is written with quiet dignity, content to do without the sensational.

Why Mr. S. R. Crockett—"and him a minister, too"—should have picked out chapter 36 of his 'Sir Toady Lion' (Frederick A. Stokes Co.) for the invidious comment, "There is no moral to this chapter," is hard to see. Are we to infer that the rest is approved—for instance, Hugh John's "gospel of dasht-mean," which is, that to avoid being "dasht-mean"—a depth of ignominy—you must give and take hard knocks, but never appeal to constituted authority to right your own and others' wrongs? "Too good boys not allowed to read this book" stands for legend on the fly-leaf (an inscription, by the way, which might make it just a trifle lacking in compliment as a gift-book). We imagine a strict *censor morum* would wish to reverse it, and allow only the too good, prim, priggish, inactive fellows to read a book where the rough, careless, and selfish boy receives so much encouragement. That the book is written with technical skill far beyond the ordinary, and is full of good things for the old boys to chuckle over, it is needless to say—no part more so than the immoral chapter. But these touches of nature are most to be enjoyed when boyhood is far enough behind to rob the acknowledgment of former kinship of its shame.

'Mother Goose in Prose' is a large and rather sumptuous book by L. Frank Baum (Chicago: Way & Williams). Perhaps we have been mistaken in imagining part of Mother Goose's charm to lie in the sketchiness of her songs, which have left ample room for childish fancy; and if so, this book, which tells it all out in detail, as why and how the Man in the Moon came down too soon, and shows a picture of him doing it, will fill a long-standing, if not long-felt, want.

The Ruins and Excavations of Ancient Rome; A Companion Book for Students and Travellers. By Rodolfo Lanciani. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1897.

Prof. Lanciani is known in this country chiefly as the author of two popular works on ancient Rome. The one was made up of a course of lectures which he delivered in various American cities in 1886; the other consisted, in part, at least, of articles which had appeared in periodical literature. These were unsystematic books, in which he did not profess to treat a subject with any degree of exhaustiveness. They differ widely from his new volume, which is, as its title shows, a handbook for students and travellers, intended primarily for use in Rome itself. But it would be a mistake to suppose that this is anything like the ordinary guide-book. In fact, Lanciani is incapable of inflicting upon the reader a dull mass of facts, a dry manual crammed with merely useful and necessary information. His imagination is too exuberant, his fancy too free to be confined within such limits. Accordingly, we find here, as in his earlier books, that charm of language and that richness and variety of anecdote which made them such delightful reading. Lanciani has also

a great advantage over the every-day writer of a manual of topography or a guide-book. The latter is generally a mere compiler; but our present cicerone is a man of independent learning, one who was for years in charge of the excavations undertaken by the Italian Government; and to hear from him the story of the ruins of Rome is to listen, like Dido to Æneas, to one who, in telling the tale, can add at every turn *quorum pars magna fui*. He is also a man of wide reading in unusual and mediæval authors, and his browsings in their heavy old tomes or his hunts through the sketch-books of artists of the Renaissance furnish him with many an interesting anecdote of the past and invaluable picture of palaces or temples which might be otherwise lost for ever.

This volume, of a little over 600 pages, is divided into four books. The first describes the fundamental lines of Roman topography —the site, geology, climate, water supply, walls, and roads. The second is devoted to the Palatine hill. Book III. is entitled 'A Walk through the Sacra Via from the Coliseum to the Capitoline Hill.' In Book IV., the rest of the city is described in an order which follows the *regiones* or wards of Augustus. The volume is illustrated with half-a-dozen double-page maps, a number of smaller maps and plans (some taken from the author's great 'Forma Urbis' now in course of publication), and about 200 process cuts, chiefly from drawings and photographs prepared expressly for this book. The work is, as a whole, by far the best which has appeared in English upon its subject; and even professed scholars will find in it much material which is not contained in the larger and more detailed books by German topographers.

Here, then, Lanciani appears for the first time before an American public in his proper character, that of a professional archæologist, treating his subjects in a systematic manner. The book, therefore, while not lacking the attractive style of his earlier writings, is free from that attempt to please a merely ephemeral and uncritical audience which was too often apparent in the others. For example, the sort of over-enthusiasm which led him, in his 'Pagan and Christian Rome,' to find in Tacitus, in Suetonius, and even in inscriptions, evidence that the Christian faith was accepted by various noble families as early as the time of Domitian, is here carefully curbed; and Acilius Glabrio is put in his proper place, in the reign of the Antonine, instead of in the first century. In this book, too, chapter and verse are given for the more important statements, and at the end of the description of each building, or the treatment of each leading topic, a brief bibliography is appended for the aid of those who desire a more detailed knowledge.

Among the best and most original parts of the book may be mentioned the section on the water supply and the drainage of ancient Rome, a real *urbs pensilis subterque navigata*, as Uncle Pliny justly called it; the account of the walls, the various systems of which are described, from the original stockade down to the elaborate fortifications of to-day; of the private houses on the Palatine—for example, Cicero's, which was owned at different times by seven different persons known to history. The chapter on the Sacra Via is also full of interest, although the large plan which accompanies it, otherwise excellent, is turned in the direction exactly opposite to that to which we are accustomed in plans of that locality. Another attractive part is that in which Lanciani describes the early settlements of Antemnæ and the Terremare in order to draw from them a picture of what prehistoric Rome must have been. But the most novel thing in the whole book is his full account of the very recent investigations which have led Italian archæologists to conclude that the Pantheon, as we have it, is not the actual building of Agrippa, but an entire reconstruction made in the time of Hadrian.

The maps and plans, particularly those of the *regiones*, will be found very useful. It is strange, however, that in the midst of so much new work we should find that the general plan of the Palatine hill is a mere reduction of the one which Lanciani published in his 'Guide au Palatin' in 1873; it is naturally now incorrect in details, and, in fact, it does not wholly agree with the smaller plans of parts of the hill printed in this very book.

Lanciani is not always happy in the inferences which he draws from the Latin authors. His interpretation of a passage is apt to be overstrained, if not absolutely false. Thus, there is nothing in Pliny, *N. H.*, 36, 24, 2, to prove that Agrippa himself was actually rowed into the Cloaca Maxima (p. 15), nor any detailed description in Horace, *S.*, 1, 8, 15, of Mæcenas's work in reclaiming the Esquiline (p. 100). It is more than doubtful whether the second ode of Horace's first book has any reference to the flood of the Tiber in 23 B. C. (p. 16). It seems hardly possible that this ode could have been written after the settlement of the Empire in 27 B. C.

Mechanically considered, the volume is on the whole creditable; but it is a great pity that publishers cannot find a paper which will "take" process cuts without being so heavy as to make a book a burden to hold. This one is, for its size, really tiresome. There is a useful appendix in it, containing lists of emperors, popes, painters, sculptors, and architects; tables of money, weights, and measures; and a list of the varieties of ancient marble. There are also two special indexes, but no full general index, which is much to be regretted.

Decorative Heraldry: A Practical Handbook of its Artistic Treatment. By G. W. Eve. London: George Bell & Sons. 1897. Sm. 8vo, pp. 281.

It is a genuine surprise to meet with a treatise on heraldry presenting any novelty of design. With the revival of interest in heraldic studies, the public has been presented with innumerable text-books and guides; but as the rules are few and simple, and the symbols most formal and arbitrary, the various manuals have differed only in respect to the expense of the book. Mr. Eve has started a new idea in trying to extend the scope of heraldry, not only by calling attention to the beautiful examples of former ages, but by attempting to connect heraldry with other forms of decoration used in remotest times, as by the Egyptians, Assyrians, Greeks, and Persians. We cannot concede that his examples have any relation to heraldry, and yet it is interesting to notice the artistic relation between decorations of entirely differing purposes. For example, on p. 69, he figures a design from Serpoula in Chaldea, of immense antiquity. It represents a lion-headed eagle displayed, grasping with its claws the backs of two lions passant in opposite directions. The treatment is entirely heraldic—that is to say, the posture of the eagle is entirely artificial, but distinctly decorative. Yet the emblem, whatever its intent, has nothing in common with personal heraldry, including the hereditary feature. So, again, in the designs upon their coins and gems, the Sassanian Kings bear a most curious head-dress, an inflated ball surmounting the helmet. This seems to have been the peculiar device of the monarch, yet it has no counterpart in heraldry, though these Kings also used in their head-dress a crescent and a star, both favorite heraldic devices. Again, a statue of Sapor I. given by Rawlinson ('Seventh Oriental Monarchy') might almost be thought to represent a European King of the days of chivalry. He wears a mural crown of a strictly conventional type, his sword, baldric, and armored shoes are of a mediæval type; yet there is not the slightest reason to suspect that Persian art influenced that of Europe.

Mr. Eve has done well, however, in bringing forward examples of heraldic designs gathered from the churches and palaces of England and the Continent. The great gain to art by the new processes of photography and photo-engraving is here clearly shown. During the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, heraldry was an art, and occupied a distinct and honorable branch of the arts of sculpture and painting. Now that these masterpieces can be reproduced at trifling cost by engravings, it is to be hoped that Mr. Eve will find followers.

Our author touches new ground, also, in his remarks about heraldic engravers. He points out that the herald-painters possessed the true artistic spirit, keeping within well-recognized limits in their drawings, and yet animating these with life and grace. But when heraldry appeared in print, the decline was rapid and distressing. The illustrations in Gwillim's 'Heraldry,' in the middle of the seventeenth century, are not only poorly engraved, but badly drawn. They are not archaic, but uncouth; an affected coarseness not resulting from mechanical ignorance, but from want of taste. As the art of engraving improved, however, the heraldic taste was steadily vitiated. The Peerages, with their hundred of examples of coats-of-arms, led the fashion; and while the wood-engravers rapidly improved in technique, it was all in the wrong direction. The lion dropped from the realms of heraldry to the level of the menagerie, until the Debrett of 1830 looks like a revised edition of Goldsmith's 'Animated Nature.'

The Victorian era, by its revival of the study of Gothic architecture, arrested the decline of heraldic art, and has witnessed a revival and improvement even more rapid than the fall. Perhaps the turning-point was the publication by John Henry Parker of Oxford, 1847, of Henry Gough's 'Glossary of Heraldry.' Here not only were the illustrations clearly drawn and well balanced, but the figures of animals were distinctly copied from better authorities. Evelyn Shirley's 'Noble and Gentle Men of England' was another example of the new school; and the genealogical magazines, the *Miscellanea Genealogica et Heraldica* and Nichols's *Genealogist*, helped the cause. Above all, as Mr. Eve states, the Peerage

and the Baronetage edited by Joseph Foster in 1880-2 firmly established the new school. The late Dom. Anselm and J. Forbes Nixon were the artists, and their work is most admirable. The revived taste for bookplates is fostering a school of designers of which T. Erat Harrison seems to be a worthy leader.

We cannot conclude without the melancholy reflection that American art has so far done nothing for heraldry. We have State coats-of-arms, and various town and city shields, besides many private examples. Our public attempts are simply atrocious. The national coat-of-arms is simple and appropriate; but the collection of our State shields is a gallery of horrors. Regardless of the evident fact that a national symbol should be simple and distinctive, something for the unlettered to recognize and remember, with hardly an exception our States set forth for a shield a panorama of emblems, full of petty details, utterly unfit for decorative purposes. The thirty-odd cities of Massachusetts have seals of which not over one or two are even passable. Boston has a seal overloaded with inscriptions, but the centre is taken up with a landscape view of the city with vessels and boats in the foreground. And this monstrosity stands when any herald would have jumped at the chance to place instead a tri-mountain, properly delineated with a few bold strokes. Worcester has an admirable seal, a crowned heart, for the "Heart of the Commonwealth." Somerville has a good idea, injured by too much detail, viz., a Minuteman. The remainder of the cities have railroad trains and sawmills, bridges and school-houses, each worse than its fellows. When heraldry as an important part of decorative architecture is recognized and studied in the United States, we may hope to see some of these faults corrected.

The Decoration of Houses. By Edith Wharton and Ogden Codman, Jr. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1897.

One opens a new book on decoration with a weary anticipation, remembering how much has been lately written on the subject for Americans, and to how little purpose; but now the whole style and practice of decoration has changed, and the teaching of the last generation has become obsolete. 'The Decoration of Houses,' a handsome, interesting, and well-written book, not only is an example of the recent reversion to quasi-classic styles and methods, but signalizes the complete reaction that has thrown to the winds, even before the public discovered it, perhaps, the lately accepted doctrines of constructive virtue, sincerity, and the beauty of use. The authors take the new ground uncompromisingly, snap their fingers at sincerity, have no horror of shams, and stand simply on proportion, harmony of lines, and other architectural qualities. "Any *trompe-d'œil* is permissible in decorative design," they say, "if it gives an impression of pleasure." To this have we already come; yet it seems not to have produced harmony between the outside and the inside of their volume.

The thread of their discussion is historical. Its fifty illustrations, taken from Italian, French, and English interiors, with a somewhat omnivorous appetite, are of various interest; but the book is the fruit of study, and of a larger knowledge of examples than has commonly been the case with its predecessors. It is aimed, not at professional readers, but at the public, whom it instructs with many intelligent criticisms and sensible directions, calling their attention to artistic aspects of decoration which have been neglected by writers of the last dispensation. It touches the root of present difficulty when it says, in the preface, that "the vulgarity of current decoration has its source in the indifference of the wealthy to architectural fitness." But, to the authors, architectural fitness means agreeable proportions and combination of lines, and no more.

The temptation of the literature that we have left behind was that any ready-witted writer could discourse magisterially about decoration; and, inasmuch as his material was pure theory, it called for neither experience nor knowledge, nor yet for artistic or technical acquirement; in truth, after the beginning, the writers were mainly literary men and amateurs. Nevertheless there were valuable truths in their writings, and principles which, under due limitation, should have infused freshness, vitality, and manliness into decorative work. If these have been forgotten before they have borne their due fruit, the fault may have been in the narrowness, vehemence, and want of technical enlightenment with which they were urged. But whether we are morally wise, or historically, the things we need for decorative work are taste and instinct for form—qualities which still wait their development among Americans. Till these are evolved, we must either intrust ourselves to professional hands, or be left to vibrate between the dicta of dilettanti on the one hand and doctrinaires on the other.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bamberger, Ludwig. Studien und Meditationen. Berlin: Rosenbaum & Hart.
Banks, Martha B. Castle Daffodil. Boston: Pilgrim Press. $1.
Baum, L. F. Mother Goose in Prose. Chicago: Way & Williams. $2.
Bellaigue, Camille. Portraits and Silhouettes of Musicians. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Berenson, Bernhard. The Venetian Painters of the Renaissance. Illustrated. Putnams. $5.
Bettelheim, Anton. Biographisches Jarhbuch und Deutscher Nekrolog. Band I. Berlin: Georg Reimer.
Blanchard, Amy E. A Dear Little Girl. Philadelphia: G. W. Jacobs & Co. $1.
Blanchard, Amy E. Three Pretty Maids. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Boyland, Grace D. The Old House, and Other Poems and Sketches. New York: E. R. Herrick & Co.
Boyle, Virginia F. Brokenburne: A Southern Auntie's War Tale. New York: E. R. Herrick & Co. $1.50.
Boynton, Rev. Nehemiah. Real Preaching. Three Addresses. Boston: Pilgrim Press.
Brontë, Charlotte. Shirley. London: Service & Paton; New York: Putnams. $1.
Brorup, R. P. Truth and Poetry. Chicago: International Book Co. 40c.
Browning, Elizabeth B. Poetical works. With a Portrait. Macmillan. $1.75.
Burnham, Anna F. A Bunker Hill Failure; or, A Failure That Was a Victory: Boston: Pilgrim Press.
Chapman, F. M. Bird-Life. Edition in Colors. Appletons. $5.
Clark, William. The Anglican Reformation. Christian Literature Co. $2.
Clarke, H. B. The Cid Campeador. Putnams. $1.50.
Cobb, S. H. The Story of the Palatines: An Episode in Colonial History. Putnams. $2.
Cornelius, Hans. Psychologie als Erfahrungswissenschaft. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner.
Creighton, Rev. M. A History of the Papacy. New edition in six volumes. Longmans, Green & Co. $12.
Crockett, S. R. The Surprising Adventures of Sir Toady Lion. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Davis, R. H. A Year from a Reporter's Note-Book. Harpers. $1.50.
Dumas, W. T. The Golden Day, and Miscellaneous Poems. Philadelphia: Levytype Co. $1.
Ebers, Georg. Arachne: Historischer Roman. Leipzig: Deutsche Verlags-Anstalt; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Fitch, Clyde. The Smart Set: Correspondence and Conversations. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Flandrau, C. M. Harvard Episodes. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.25.
Fouqué, F. de la Motte. Undine. Boston: Ginn & Co. 30c.
Garlepp, Bruno. Germany's Iron Chancellor. Illustrated. Akron, Ohio: Werner Co.
Geiger, Wilhelm. Ceylon: Tagebuchblätter und Reiseerinnerungen. Wiesbaden: C. W. Kreidel.
Gladden, Rev. Washington. Social Facts and Forces. Putnams. $1.25.
Gomme, G. L. The King's Story-Book. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Gross, Prof. Charles. A Bibliography of British Municipal History, including Gilds and Parliamentary Representation. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.50.
Growoll, A. American Book Clubs: Their Beginnings and History, and a Bibliography of their Publications. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Harper's Round Table. 1897. Harpers. $3.50.
Harris, W. C. The Fishes of North America. Parts XI.-XIV. New York: Harris Publishing Co.
Heimburg, W. Defiant Hearts. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.
Hichens, R. S. Bye-Ways. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Holmes, Mrs. Mary J. Paul Ralston. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.50.
Howe, M. A. DeW. Shadows. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.
Hubbard, Elbert. Little Journeys to the Homes of Famous Women. Putnams.
Hudson, Prof. W. H. Idle Hours in a Library. San Francisco: William Doxey. $1.25.
Hume, M. A. S. Sir Walter Raleigh. The British Dominion of the West. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Humphreys, A. L. The Private Library. 2d ed. J. W. Bouton.
King, Capt. Charles. Warrior Gap: A Story of the Sioux Outbreak of '68. F. T. Neely.
Kipling, Rudyard. Verses. 1889-1896. [Outward Bound Edition.] Scribners.
Lamont, Prof. Hammond. Burke on Conciliation with America. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Livingston, L. S. American Book-Prices Current. 1897. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Lloyd, Prof. A. H. Citizenship and Salvation, for Greek and Jew. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Lummis, C. F. The Enchanted Burro: Stories of New Mexico and South America. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.25.
Lucky, R. M. The Devil Worshippers. F. T. Neely. 25c.
Lytton, Lord. Harold the Last of the Saxon Kings. [Historical Novels and Romances.] London: Constable; New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
MacDonald, George. Rampolli: Growths from a Long-Planted Root. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Macfarlane, Charles. The Camp of Refuge. [Historical Novels and Romances.] London: Constable; New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Manly, Prof. J. M. Specimens of the Pre-Shaksperian Drama. Vol. II. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.40.
Matheson, Rev. George. Sidelights from Patmos. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.75.
McCaskey, J. P. Lincoln Literary Collection. American Book Co. $1.
McClelland, Ella G. A Daughter of Two Nations. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
McCook, H. C. The Latimers: A Tale of the Western Insurrection of 1794. Philadelphia: G. W. Jacobs & Co. $1.50.
McLennan, William. Spanish John. Harpers. $1.50.
Meredith, Owen. Lucile. Illustrated. F. A. Stokes Co. $4.
Minchin, J. G. C. Old Harrow Days. London: Methuen & Co.
Müller, F. Max. The Upanishads. [Sacred Books of the East. American ed. Vol. I.] Christian Literature Co. $2.50.
Musick, J. R. Hawaii: Our New Possessions. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $2.75.
Nicoll, W. R. The Expositor's Greek Testament. Vol. I. Dodd, Mead & Co. $7.50.
Nordau, Max. The Shackles of Fate. A Play. F. T. Neely.
Oberholtzer, E. P. The New Man: A Chronicle of the Modern Time. Philadelphia: Levytype Co.
Paget, Stephen. Ambroise Paré and his Times. 1510-1590. Putnams. $2.50.
Palmer, Frederick. Going to War in Greece. R. H. Russell. $1.25.
Palmer, W. Hazell's Annual for 1898. London: Hazell, Watson & Viney.
Paton, W. A. Picturesque Sicily. Illustrated. Harpers. $2.50.
Perry, Prof. John. Applied Mechanics. D. Van Nostrand Co. $2.50.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 23, 1897.

The Week.

The fortnight's session of Congress which ended on Saturday seems to have settled one thing about the question of civil-service reform. Despite all the talk about radical legislation on the subject, it is generally agreed that no bill will be sent to the President. Many Republicans of the Senator Gallinger and Representative Grosvenor school would be very glad to support a measure undoing a large share of the work which has been done since 1883, but comparatively few of that party are ready to vote for the repeal of the original act passed in that year. On the other hand, many Democratic Senators and Representatives would gladly vote for repeal, because they either do not believe in the merit system or want to "put the Republicans in a hole," but they do not propose to support modifications which would remove from the protection of the rules a large number of their own party. The general expectation, therefore, is that in the end Congress will do nothing, and the entire responsibility of making any change will thus rest upon the President. This is most fortunate, as it will be much easier to bring public sentiment to bear upon one man than upon the hundreds of Senators and Representatives.

It is most fortunate that the spoilsmen in Congress insist upon a thorough discussion of the whole subject of civil-service reform. Such a discussion is exactly what the advocates of the merit system most desire. They want the office-mongers to have a chance to offer to the public all their objections to the competitive method, with an equal opportunity on their own part to submit the other side of the case. The spoilsmen had their innings in the House, and on December 15 there was presented in the Senate the strongest demonstration ever yet made of the immense saving in efficiency and cost to the Government of the application of the reform. Mr. Carroll D. Wright, Commissioner of Labor, is the most eminent statistician in the United States. His bureau is under civil-service rules, while the Census Office, of which he has also had charge, has not been. Mr. Wright shows from the records that the cost of production in the Census Office for the same amount of matter in its reports is nearly 179 per cent. greater than in the Department of Labor; or, excluding from consideration the enumerators and special agents employed in census work outside Washington, almost 147 per cent. greater. On this latter basis, the saving in taking the last census, if the employees had been selected by the competitive system, would have been nearly $3,400,000.

But this contrast between the Labor Bureau under the rules and the Census Office outside them, is only one illustration of a distinction between the two systems which holds true everywhere. The competitive method since 1883 has been applied to nearly all the employees of the Government in the departments at Washington, outside the Census Office, and to tens of thousands of other federal employees in post-offices, custom-houses, and elsewhere throughout the United States. The efficiency of employees selected on the basis of merit has been so marked that the number required in the various Washington offices grew only from 13,374 to 15,963 in the thirteen years between 1883 and 1896, or less than one-fifth, while during the same period the growth of the business done has been immense, several times as much matter being turned out of the Government Printing-Office now as formerly. Such convincing facts and figures as these will now secure the attention of the people, and they will remove any lingering doubts which may remain in the minds of candid men as to the complete vindication of civil-service reform by the test of experience. The result must be such an uprising of public sentiment against the scheme to overthrow the system, as will make short work of it.

There could hardly be a more striking illustration of the absurdity of our diplomatic system than the treatment of the mission to China. The place has been filled most admirably for a dozen years by Charles Denby, who was appointed early in Cleveland's first administration. He is ready to remain, and the ordinary arguments for retaining a well-qualified minister, who has the benefit of long experience, are reinforced by the critical situation of affairs in China now, and the doubtful outlook for the future. It is the simple truth to say that there is no place in the diplomatic service which at present makes larger demands upon the incumbent, and no place where the highest order of ability and training will be more urgently demanded during the next four years. In such an emergency as this, President McKinley removes the able and experienced representative of the United States in China, and nominates as his successor a young man who not only is without any knowledge whatever of diplomacy, but also is without ordinary common sense, having made himself a laughing-stock at Washington. It really is so grotesque a performance that it would seem incredible if we were not hardened to it by long experience of the spoils system.

The President has nominated Attorney-General McKenna for the Supreme bench as the successor of Justice Field. This has been expected ever since the Californian was selected for the cabinet last winter, as Judge Field's retirement was then known to be impending, and it seemed inconceivable that a man would resign the life place on the circuit bench which he held, for the uncertainties of the attorney-generalship. This intermediate step, as it has all along been regarded, has proved to be a most unfortunate one for Mr. McKenna. As Judge of the Circuit Court on the Pacific Coast, he was little known to the country at large, but the fact that he had reached this position raised a certain presumption in his favor. As Attorney-General, however, he has been called upon to decide a most important question, as to the discriminating-duty clause which was smuggled into the Dingley tariff bill; and the opinion which he rendered was so obscure and blind in its reasoning that it raised the gravest doubts as to his fitness for any high position. There are only nine members of this court, and they ought to be nine of the strongest men that the legal profession has developed in the United States during their lifetime. It is not enough to say of a possible candidate that "he is a good-enough man," or that he has ability enough so that he will probably not bring discredit upon the court. It is an affront to the bar that a lawyer so poorly equipped for the place as Mr. McKenna should be given one of the great prizes of the profession, while it is a misfortune for our highest court that its character should be lowered at a time when it needs rather to be more firmly established in the popular respect.

The bill to prohibit pelagic sealing by American citizens was passed by the House on Thursday. It had previously passed the Senate. So now, for the first time, it is unlawful for Americans to take seals on the high seas. Three or four years ago Secretary Gresham and Sir Julian Pauncefote came to an agreement that the sum of $425,000 should be paid as damages for the seizure of British sealing vessels under the decision of the Paris tribunal, subject, of course, to an appropriation by Congress. The House committee having the matter in charge reported a bill appropriating the money. The bill was defeated mainly by the efforts of Mr. Hitt, the present chair-

man of the committee on foreign affairs, on the express ground that a large part of these claims were those of rascally Americans who were violating the laws of their own country by pelagic sealing, and who had put their ships under the British flag for that purpose. This unsupported statement was swallowed raw by the Republicans of the House and by a sufficient number of Democrats to defeat the appropriation. Now the same Mr. Hitt carries through the House a bill, to do what? Why, to make a certain act unlawful which he said and persuaded the House to believe was unlawful before.

The facts in the case were that Congress had never made pelagic sealing outside the three-mile limit unlawful, but the executive branch of the Government had committed itself to the doctrine that such sealing was unlawful *per se*, and had assumed the right to keep foreigners as well as our own ships out of Bering Sea. When this right was disputed, a clumsy attempt was made in 1889 to pass a bill expressly forbidding the catching of seals in Bering Sea by anybody. Such a bill passed the House, but the Senate amended it so as to limit it to "the dominion of the United States in the waters of Bering Sea," which dominion was simply the three-mile limit known to international law. Now, at this late day, after all the expenditure of wind power and sawing of the air that has been heard and witnessed during ten or twelve years, Congress has found out that pelagic sealing has been a lawful vocation all the time for our sailors as well as for those of other nations, and that all the seizures and warnings and other steps taken by the Treasury Department have been unwarranted usurpations of power. This is a humiliating confession to make, although it need not be so to the present head of that department. It follows, of course, that the reasons advanced for throwing out the bill appropriating money to pay the Paris award, viz., that it included the claims of rascally Americans who were violating the laws of their own country, were wholly nonsensical and unfounded.

Attached to the bill prohibiting American citizens from pelagic sealing is a clause prohibiting the importation into the United States of "fur seal skins taken in the waters mentioned in this act." The purpose of this clause is to make pelagic sealing unprofitable by cutting off the principal market for the skins. This is entirely within our right, and the only objection to the clause is that it is not stringent enough to be fully effective. There is still a sealing industry on or around the Shetland Islands and another off the coast of South America. These are not large, but how are our customs authorities to distinguish between the catch in one place and that in another? The bill, to be effective, ought to prohibit the importation of any such skins whatever in any shape whatever. Very likely such prohibition would render the industry so unprofitable that pelagic sealing would cease without further ado, and save us from any more shirt-sleeves correspondence, to which, we observe, Mr. Foster has made a fresh contribution under date of December 2, charging the Canadians with "unneighborly" acts, in the winning style of former communications.

The executive committee appointed by the Indianapolis convention last February—the same that selected and organized the present Monetary Commission—has decided to call a new convention after the commission shall have made its report. It will be an entirely new body, not a mere reassembling of the individuals composing the old one, and will be chosen by the Boards of Trade and other commercial organizations of the country. It will meet at Indianapolis on Tuesday, January 25. The present executive committee, of which Mr. H. H. Hanna is the chairman, was authorized to receive the commission's report, present it to Congress, and endeavor to secure the enactment of laws in accordance therewith. They thought, however, that it would be a wiser plan to call a new convention of business men similar to the former one, in order to convince Congressmen that the commercial classes are really earnest in their desire to have something done looking towards the withdrawal of the Government from the banking business. Such a convention and the preliminary steps for bringing it together will have the effect also of stirring local opinion and promoting neighborhood discussion, which will perhaps have more influence on congressional opinion than the report of the commission or any abstract document could have. It is a mistake to suppose that Congress, or either branch of it, is against currency reform *per se*. On the contrary, it is in favor of whatever it imagines the constituencies want. Mr. H. H. Hanna's committee is therefore right in taking steps to reach the constituencies before laying the commission's report before Congress.

The convention of Southern bankers at Atlanta on December 15 was in general harmony with the Indianapolis movement. The resolutions, unanimously adopted, ask that the Government be taken out of the banking business and that the banking business be taken out of politics; that the greenbacks and Treasury notes of 1890 be retired and cancelled, and that banknotes be substituted therefor; that banking facilities be extended to the smaller towns; that our various forms of currency, now eight in number, be reduced to two, namely, banknotes and specie; and finally, that the Bankers' Association of each Southern State be requested to appoint a delegate to go to Washington and aid in securing legislation in accordance with the foregoing resolutions. There was no suggestion in the Atlanta resolutions that State banks be allowed to issue notes free from federal supervision.

The cut in wages in the cotton-spinning industry at Fall River, which has been preparing for some time and has excited a great deal of discussion, was announced last week. It is equal to 11 per cent. and a fraction more, and it includes officers as well as employees. It is not yet known what answer the operatives will give, but the step taken seems to have been imperative, the alternative being the closing of the works. This is not a case of a temporary glut of goods, which needs time in which to work them off. The trouble is more deep-seated. It lies in the fact that, for one reason or another, cotton-spinning can be done more cheaply in other parts of the country, and particularly in the Southern States, than in Massachusetts. The nearness of the Southern factories to the raw material is of no consequence in comparison with wages and hours of labor. Southern wages are considerably lower than Northern, and the hours of labor are not 58 per week, as in Massachusetts, or 60 per week, as in Maine, but 66 and in some places 72. The skill and efficiency of Southern labor have been improving steadily. This improvement will go on, and will tell in favor of the Southern mills until hours and wages are equalized North and South. This equalization must be effected in one of two ways, or perhaps in both. Either the Southern must go up to the Northern level, or the Northern must come down to the Southern level.

Is there anything to be said about the Dingley tariff in connection with this cut in wages at Fall River? Not much—the less the better, we think; for the Republican papers, we observe, have very few comments to make, and they allude to the subject as "Fall River's New Wage Scale," instead of Fall River's Wage Reduction. According to the Dingley theory, this ought to be a period of advancing wages. Dingley himself tells us that the country is prosperous and that the prosperity is due to the protective tariff that bears his impress. Whether the country is prosperous or not, is hardly worth disputing about, because it is a question that each man answers for himself. Each one, whether employer or employee, knows whether his capital or his labor brings him a fairly good return or not. It is very certain that if the men of Fall River could be polled they would deny Dingley's thesis stoutly. And yet we cannot say that Dingley has done anything

to cause this cut in wages, but merely that he has done nothing to prevent it. He and his kind are to blame for imagining that they could do anything to prevent it, and they will get punished at the polls in due time for holding out the hope and expectation that they would prevent it. One lesson tariff-wise this event does teach, and that is that protection was not needed to build up the cotton industry of the South. It came to life in spite of the competition of New England. No tariff ever helped it to the extent of one farthing. Nor would it be less prosperous if all tariffs were removed to-day. It stands on bedrock and will outlast all the protective tariffs imaginable.

It is now officially admitted in Havana that Col. Ruiz, the aide of Gen. Blanco, who went out to parley with the insurgents, was shot by them. Whether he had a formal safe-conduct does not appear; but that he and his superiors thought he had what amounted to that, is clear. Otherwise he would not have gone to certain death. The best the Cubans can say is that he was invited to go out and talk "as a friend," but that, the moment he began to refer to accepting autonomy, he violated the understanding, became an enemy, and had to be shot. But this is to put a thin veneer over what is essentially an act of savagery. We should be glad to hear from some of our congressional experts on "atrocity" their opinion of this slaughter of Col. Ruiz. Suppose the case was reversed and it was a Cuban emissary lured within the Spanish lines to be shot down in cold blood. What would happen in that event we know, because we know what happened when the rumor that Antonio Maceo had been ambushed—and so killed—convulsed, or appeared to convulse, Congress and the nation. Several newspapers at once declared war on Spain, in consequence, and interviewed able "jurists" on their right to do so. Yet here is a much more flagrant violation of the laws of war and of civilization, which seems to be unquestionably authentic, while the Maceo story was instantly shown to be an invention; but we hear nothing from Morgan, Lodge is silent, and all the other orators who erstwhile were so eloquent on "Butcher" Weyler and the inhuman Spaniards, are dumb. Other messengers have been sent out on the same errand to various parts of the island, and it is said that not one of them has returned or been heard from. The insurgent officers, it is credibly reported, have offered these agents of Blanco's a simple choice—joining the rebel forces or death. In the face of this condition of things, the ending of the war through a compromise on a home-rule government for Cuba seems impossible. It is a waste of time to go on offering compromise to people who shoot the very men bearing its terms.

How rapidly the great navies of the world are becoming a sort of Frankenstein to the nations that create them, may be seen in an important parliamentary paper, lately published in London, setting forth the total naval expenditures of the leading countries. The British empire, of course, heads the list, with an annual outlay on sea-going force of $126,000,000, or more than one-fifth of the entire revenue. France comes next with an expenditure of $64,000,000; the United States follows with $30,500,000; then come Japan with $29,700,000; Russia with $29,000,000; Germany, $21,000,000; Italy, $20,500,000; and the little fellows straggling along with all the millions they can afford. The document in question also gives statistics relating to the mercantile marine, annual clearances of shipping, and gross foreign trade, which, taken together with the figures of the fighting navy and the sums spent on it, ought to be thoroughly digested by statesmen at home and abroad who prate about "trade following the flag" and commerce won as a trophy of war.

Two main reasons are given for the way in which increasing naval expenditures are thus heaped upon the backs of taxpayers. One is the need of keeping the navy up to date. A man-of-war becomes obsolete in type in a few years. This is Emperor William's plaint; it is not that he wants so many more ships, but that the old vessels must be replaced with those of the latest construction. But by the time these are built, there will be a later construction, and so on, world without end. Then there is the great strategic need of each country's ordering its own navy so as to bear a certain relation to other navies. Here again the frank Wilhelm enlightens us. Germany, he says, must increase her fleet that she may have a naval strength nearer that of France or England. But see how this apparently simple problem in proportion is really insoluble. Germany's new ships will be the signal for France to order more. English naval authorities already say that they will build a new squadron as soon as the Reichstag votes the Emperor his added cruisers. Then he will be again just as badly off, relatively, as he is now, and the work will have to be begun all over, only to prove again just as futile. But the naval contractors like it; they have the advantage over Sisyphus that they get rich while rolling the stone up the hill. Nor does Emperor William fail to use the argument which all other advocates of a fighting navy use—namely, that he wishes only to put himself in a strong defensive position, and so restrain the hot heads who otherwise might attack him. This is what they all say. Not one of them would use a war vessel aggressively. Heaven knows, they would not wrong the weakest by attacking. Now it is obvious that if such vows were put in writing, or in a general treaty, the need of a fighting navy would vanish. All would be bound not to attack, and so no one would be compelled to prepare for defence. But any shipbuilder, we are sure, could expose the fallacy that lurks in this.

The writer of the article in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* of two or three months ago, "Who Will Exploit China?" was more of a prophet than he knew. The calm way in which the various nations are preparing now to treat China as they have long been treating Africa—seizing harbors and islands and marking out "spheres of influence"—is a striking comment upon the "Yellow Terror" which the bimetallists have been parading in Europe, and in this country, too, for a few years past. The Chinese were going to crush Western civilization by industrial competition. They were going to "dump" on our devoted shores bicycles and watches in awful quantities. Of course, it was their silver standard that enabled them to do this, and of course the only way for us to prevent it was by going to the silver standard ourselves. This was the great "Yellow Terror" as put on exhibition in Congress and House of Commons. Well, here are the Powers walking up to the Yellow Terror and finding nothing terrible about it; helping themselves to the Yellow Terror's best with the coolest cynicism. It would be interesting to know the official Mandarin view, at the present moment, of the White Terror.

The news that Russia has at last taken the final step necessary to place herself on the gold standard is as important as the news about her taking possession of Port Arthur, or aspiring to supremacy in Korea, or proposing to continue occupying first place in all that relates to the Eastern Question. It is, in fact, to be regarded as strictly related to all these plans for advancing Russian prestige and power. A great and progressive nation, with intricate and expanding international relations, simply cannot remain a silver-standard nation. The two things are inconsistent. The silver standard is the note of a backward or barbarian people, and Russia is determined to shake off any such imputation. Whether her expansion and immensely heightened power, which now seem inevitable, are to come through peace or through war, the gold standard is a necessity. It means security and stability and a soundly based commerce in peace, and it means the highest purchasing and borrowing power in war—and wars are more and more won or lost by money. But it is quite possible that the silverites may consider the Russian adoption of gold another sign of their own success.

CROSS-EXAMINING THE SECRETARY.

Secretary Gage appeared before the House committee on banking and currency on Thursday, and made a quiet and satisfactory explanation of his plan for currency reform. When we say satisfactory, we do not mean that the advocates of reform ought to be satisfied with it as a finality. Nor do we think that Mr. Gage himself looks upon it in that light, but rather as the best thing that there is any present chance of carrying into effect by legislation. It will always be a question whether this plan, or the more radical one of retiring and cancelling the greenbacks, would be the more feasible in case Congress should prove deaf to all suggestions of reform, thus compelling its advocates to go before the wider forum of the people. On such a question the judgment of the Secretary must be accepted. He is the one responsible for methods of reaching the result at which he aims. If there is a failure it is his failure, and so long as his methods are really towards the desired end, he is entitled to the support of all those who wish to gain that end.

What Mr. Gage aims at was stated by him in very clear and simple terms. It is first to commit the country more thoroughly to the gold standard. The present bonds are payable in "coin," and although the laws require the Secretary to keep the two kinds of coin—silver and gold—at par with each other, some doubt hangs over the public mind, which Mr. Gage would like to remove. Hence his proposition for refunding the public debt in a 2½ per cent. bond payable specifically in gold. Such a refunding, he thinks, would save the Government about $10,000,000 per year in the way of interest. This would be an incidental gain, but it is not the chief end of the bill.

The Secretary's next aim is to make the demand liabilities of the Treasury a manageable quantity, first by separating its functions as a bank from those as a receiver and disburser of taxes, and second by curtailing the amount of the demand liabilities outstanding, and third by doing this in a way which shall not contract the circulation in the hands of the people. The plan involves the collection of $200,000,000 of those demand liabilities in the Treasury and the issue of an equal amount of national bank-notes. He estimates that if this plan could receive the sanction of Congress the Treasury would have no more trouble with greenback redemption, with the "endless chain," or with the maintenance of parity between silver money and gold money.

Here the cross-examination of the Secretary began. Mr. Brosius wanted to know how the parity of the two metals could be maintained if the Government's demand obligations were withdrawn from circulation and accumulated in the Treasury. The drift of this inquiry, as disclosed by subsequent questions, showed that Mr. Brosius and other members of the committee look upon the Government as the fountain of gold, and apprehend that if this fountain is dried up, the public will not be able to get any to pay their foreign debts with. Mr. Gage said very properly that there would still be a sufficiency of demand obligations outstanding for this purpose, but that the public would simply ask the banks for gold when they wanted it instead of asking the Government. Here Mr. Gage's cross-examiners came out strong, and wanted to know what would happen if the banks when called on for gold should refuse to pay it. Mr. Gage said that they must pay in legal-tender money, which would always bring gold. If they did not pay in legal-tender money the Government would seize their assets according to law and turn the same over to their customers. "But how if they pay silver instead of gold?" asked one member. Silver dollars are legal tender; how will the public obtain gold to pay their foreign debts with if the banks pay silver dollars instead of gold or greenbacks?

Mr. Gage's answer was twofold—first, that the banks would not do anything of the kind, because it would not be for their interest to do so; second, that in such a case the obligation imposed on the Treasury to keep the two kinds of money on a parity with each other would be imperative and would be obeyed. Then he gave some illustrations of banking methods out of his own abundant experience, which must have tended to soothe the fears of his friends on the committee. The questions put to him show how the bad education of the greenback régime has indoctrinated the public mind with false conceptions of money. The spectacle of the Government furnishing gold on demand when wanted by the mercantile community for legitimate trade or by the public in a panic, and the difficulty that the Government has experienced in obtaining it, have led many people to think that without the hoard in the Treasury there would be no gold, and that if there were no greenbacks available, merchants would go through the streets wringing their hands because they could get no gold to pay their foreign debts with. This conception ignores several patent facts. One is, that whenever the Government runs short of gold, it applies to the banks for a fresh supply and always obtains it. Another is, that it is no more difficult for a bank to pay gold than it is to pay anything else. In the panic of 1893 they did pay gold as long as they paid anything.

Another fact is, that banks always pay the kind of money that their depositors want, because it is for their interest to be on good terms with their customers. The only instance in recent years when they have refused either to pay gold or to draw gold from the Treasury for their customers, was when they were trying to protect the Government against a panic run. Even in this case they paid greenbacks when they were demanded, with which the depositors could draw gold from the Treasury if they wished. In no instance—not in the severest pinch—was a tender of silver dollars made. Such a tender to an unwilling customer would probably have precipitated a special run on the offending bank and closed it up. At all events, no such thing ever happened. It is within recollection that on several occasions the banks have voluntarily tendered gold to the Treasury, independently of bond sales, tens of millions at a time, with no other purpose than to quiet public apprehensions. And yet men can be found in Congress who think that the banks, rather than pay gold to their customers on demand, would take silver certificates and carts to the Treasury, draw silver dollars $30,000 of which weigh a ton, bring those back to their own vaults and pass them over the counter in payment of checks, with the certainty that every customer so treated would become an enemy of the bank, and would transfer his account elsewhere the next day.

SUBSTITUTES FOR THE PRIMARY

One of the most cheering signs of the times is the steadily increasing distrust of the primary among the better class of politicians. The old delusion that the only way in which to secure more desirable nominations is to "go into the primary," has clearly seen its best days. For the first time almost in the history of the Republican party in this city, the entire Better Element refused last week to be enticed into the machine primaries. Heretofore most of them have weakened at the last moment, and, "for the sake of the party," have consented to put themselves once more into the hands of a lot of political rapscallions who gain possession of the party in order to use it for their personal benefit. What Platt did in the last campaign did not differ in kind from what he has done many times before, but the situation forced him to do it more openly than ever before. There was, in fact, no answer to such questions as these: Should we not have been better off without any organization at all than with the one we had? Would not all Republicans then have voted for Low, and would he not have been elected? Without the regular organization, would Tracy ever have been put in the field, or, if he had been put in the field, would he have polled votes enough to enable Tammany to win?

Going into the primaries with the Plattites and their kind is, in fact, like going into a faro bank with a select

company of honorable gentlemen and proposing to the proprietor and his associates to unite with them to reform the game. You will either be thrown into the street at once with a broken head, or swindled of your money and put out later. The men who run the primary game are in possession, have all the tricks of the business at their command, and can always command support enough to enable them to overcome or outvote any amount of reformers. If by any chance they are defeated in a contest, all they have to do is to appeal to the "regularly constituted authorities" of the party, and their opponents will be set aside as "irregular," and they themselves reinstated in power as "regular." Such is the law of this State, as prepared and enacted under machine guidance, and as interpreted by the Court of Appeals.

Reform of the primary being hopeless, the only course for the advocates of honest nominating methods to follow is to seek such measures as will make the primary powerless. The first step in this direction is to let it alone—leave it, as the Hon. Jacob Worth would say, to "stew in its own juice." Let its nominations stand for what they are—nothing except those of the machine. The next step is to oppose these nominations with really good ones, and in this field there is much opportunity for thought and suggestion. As we have said repeatedly, one method is always at hand, and that is the nomination by petition as authorized by the new ballot laws which are in force in most of our States. Platt has done his utmost to destroy the usefulness of that right in this State, by placing the number of signatures to a nomination petition so high as to be prohibitive in many localities. A systematic effort should be started at once to get these provisions amended. The voters of the State are now aroused to the merits of the subject, and it will do much good to arouse them still further. A refusal by Platt and his legislators to amend the law will be certain to add to the popular disgust with him which has already made his doom certain in the near future.

A method of nomination otherwise than by petition has been devised by Mr. F. M. Brooks, an active anti-machine Republican of Brooklyn, which is worthy of consideration. He proposes the institution of a nominating ballot system, to be put in use at all the polling places on the days of registration. A fixed number of citizens, say fifty or more, according to the importance of the office, could by petition get the name of any man whom they wished to be nominated, placed upon a nominating ballot. They would have to make oath that they belonged to a particular party, and were in sympathy with its principles. The names of all candidates thus properly presented to the Election Bureau would be arranged in order under the various offices and divided into party groups. That is to say, under "Republican" could be arranged all candidates of that party, and under "Democratic" all candidates of that party. When the voter registers he can be handed one of these nominating ballots, and, going into a booth, can mark the candidates whom he would prefer to see nominated. The voting would be continued through all the days of registration, and the box containing the ballots would remain unopened till the close.

Mr. Brooks proposes a law providing for this system, and requiring that the name of the person receiving the highest number of votes in each party for each office shall be the nominee of that party, and have his name printed as such on the official election ballots. He argues that as a larger number of citizens register at every election than vote on Election Day, his system would be likely to secure a very general expression of opinion from the voters, and would thus work naturally to defeat any efforts of the professional politicians to control it.

The first objection which will occur to students of such matters will be that since no effort can be made at the time of registration to ascertain the politics of a voter, there can be no check upon the right of the members of one party to take a hand in the nomination of candidates of the opposite party. The politicians of both parties could, in fact, combine to help one another nominate the candidates of their choice. Of course, the Republican who voted for a Democratic nominee would deprive himself of the opportunity to vote for any Republican nominee, and vice-versa. Mr. Brooks thinks that this fact would act as a sufficient regulation, and it might do so, but there are conditions under which it would almost surely fail to do so. Any man who voted on both sides would have his ballot thrown out.

The plan is worth considering. It would depend for its efficacy, if enacted and put in force, upon the willingness of the people who desire good government to take the necessary trouble to secure it. If they failed to bestir themselves sufficiently to get good names upon the nominating ballots, the professional politicians would get the names of their men there, and would control the system as easily as they control the present primaries. The great merit of the Brooks plan is that it takes the nominating machinery out of the hands of a lot of people in a room. Anything which brings a company of men together in a room to make a nomination produces inevitably a machine of some sort. Somebody has a plan for "running the meeting," and in that necessity, for it is a necessity, lies the germ of the political machine. Nomination by petition rids us of this, and so does nomination by the ballot as proposed by Mr. Brooks.

LITERATURE AND POLITICS.

The question has been raised in *Literature*, by its American correspondent, apropos of Mr. Cabot Lodge, whether a man can be "a successful politician of the partisan type" and at the same time "a conscientiously equipped man of letters," both of which the writer says Mr. Lodge is. We admit that he is a successful politician of the partisan type, but can a man of this kind be "a conscientiously equipped man of letters"? Without meaning to make too much of Mr. Lodge, as an example, we must doubt it extremely. "Successful politicians of the partisan type" are very common both here and in England. Platt, Quay, Gorman, Disraeli, Chamberlain, among others, are of this type, but in all these cases it has been found that this partisanship was incompatible with literary success in any field but fiction. In fiction a writer does not need to be conscientious. Nobody expects him to put any conscience into his work unless he chooses. What he has to do is to make his book sell and not outrage decency. Consequently, it was easy enough for Disraeli to write successful novels, and Chamberlain and Quay might readily compose a 'Utopia' or a 'Voyage to the Moon,' without drawing on any qualities of character except diligence.

But if any of these men chose to write history, or moral or philosophical essays, the question of their sincerity and truthfulness would at once come up. Do they believe what they say? Are they in the habit of making statements for other purposes than diffusing opinions honestly formed and honestly held? Would they knowingly misrepresent a fact for the purpose of achieving concealed ends? These are inquiries which are inevitably made when a man presents himself to the public either as a narrator or as a moralizer. People want to be sure, before they read him, that he has taken pains to ascertain the truth, and that the triumph of this, and not party triumph, is his chief aim. For this reason, for instance, John Morley is held to be a "conscientiously equipped literary man," but no one will claim for him that he is "a successful politician of the partisan type." Mr. Gladstone is a successful politician of the partisan type, but, in spite of his many great qualities, nobody will call him a successful literary man. Disraeli was a very successful politician and novelist, but if he had undertaken to write history or moral essays, the world would have laughed.

The reason is, that it is impossible to become a preacher or a trusted narrator without character, and political success does not make character. There are many successful politicians whom sober-

minded people habitually designate as rascals. Character consists, not of occasional spurts of goodness, or the occasional utterance of ennobling sentiments, but of habitual devotion to one's ideals of truth and justice; and the foundation of all these things is sincerity. Sincerity is the basis of good living. To have the reputation of it people must feel sure that you yourself believe what you utter, through their knowledge that throughout your career you have seemed to do so. It is not enough that, as they say of the New York politicians, you "pull straight this time." They must know you have always been "pulling straight." Suppose Platt were to write a history of New York politics during the last twenty years; who would buy it or read it, except through curiosity or for fun? And yet it might be truthful, and he might say that for this work he was "conscientiously equipped."

The world has found, in fact, that the successful practice of partisan politics involves frequent departures from the truth, frequent misrepresentations, frequent pretences that you hold opinions which you do not hold; the habit of saying in private what you do not say in public; the practice of measuring men's reputations by their value to your own party, and judging measures by the attitude of the party towards them, rather than by their importance to the country. Rightly or wrongly—we think rightly—people believe, on an overwhelming mass of testimony, that the effect of these things on character, when long practised, is destructive; that no man can serve party and serve conscience, and that if he succeeds in politics he does so at the expense of many of the finer qualities of the soul, and more especially of those which enable him to write effectively of duty, or honor, or patriotism.

It is easy enough to apply these canons to Mr. Lodge's case. He pretended to be a silver man, and asked for a discriminating duty on British goods to punish England for being a gold nation. In two years he was denouncing Bryan's silverism, and clamoring for the gold standard for us. He pretended for months to know that Great Britain had encroached on Venezuelan territory, and to know even to what extent in square miles. It now appears he could not have known anything of the kind, because nobody knew it. We cite two plain cases. There are several others which only excite suspicion. But they are sufficient for the public to rule Mr. Lodge out of the category either of conscientious politicians or of conscientious literary men. He is one more illustration of the incompatibility of the position of successful politician and of that of the man who writes for instruction or elevation, or, in fact, for anything but entertainment.

We are far from holding that the career of a demagogue may not be a useful, or even a necessary one. In modern as in ancient democracy, the work of getting people to vote in one way or another, on questions they do not understand, or do not understand fully, must be done by somebody, and it cannot be nice work. It is, of course, as full of temptations as the work of a courtier. It invites flattery, humbug, and misrepresentation in about equal parts, and these are temptations which every man who pursues the calling, cannot be expected always to resist. The utmost we can expect from most men in it is that they shall abstain from the grosser forms of deception, or, in other words, shall be as good as the circumstances will permit, and never go further than seems necessary. An adherence to this rule on the part of leading Republicans would have stopped the silver craze in the seventies. A persistent but unnecessary course of pretending to believe what they did not believe, on the part of the leading men of the party, of whom Mr. Lodge was one, at last produced that shape of dread, "Bryanism."

Indulgent as the public may be to the demagogue, it will seldom or never excuse his setting up for a moralist, or claiming "conscientious equipment" as either an historian or an essayist. It insists on his lying in the bed he has made for himself, on his playing the rôle he has deliberately assumed for himself. No man need be a demagogue unless he pleases. A hundred other ways of usefulness are open to him, especially if he has a fortune. But he must choose, and stick to his choice. The only display of conscience which the world allows him is the proof that he does not "deceive all the people all the time," and that he does the dirty work, which somebody must do, as well as he can. But it does not permit him to walk from the caucus to the professor's chair, and, after having arranged with Barney to euchre Jake, to talk to us of faith, virtue, and knowledge, of the martyrs of duty, and of the heroic souls who "died as the fool dieth," for principle.

THE QUESTION OF CHEAP BOOKS.

English publishers have been for some weeks agitating and organizing to put an end to the practice of selling books at a discount from the list price. Their aim was to introduce in England something like the German system, with the bookseller only a sort of agent or servant of the publisher, and bound to maintain published prices or be driven out of business. After formulating their proposals, the publishers submitted them to the Authors' Society. Without the assent and coöperation of writers, the plan would not, the publishers confessed, be practicable, and, as they wrote, would be "necessarily dropped." The Authors' Society returned an adverse report on November 30, and the plan must, therefore, be considered dropped.

But it opens up the whole question of cheap books and sales at a discount, which is a question having many relations to human nature and morals, as well as to the interests of author and publisher. This is not the first time that a project of this kind has been urged. In the years 1848-52 a very general effort was made in the English publishing world to keep up the prices of books. At that time, too, many authors refused to join the movement. Dickens declined to lend his sanction; so did Carlyle and Darwin and Tennyson. They maintained two propositions: (1) that it was to the advantage of both writer and public that books should be cheap; and (2) that, even if it were not, it would be impossible to prevent evasion of any publishers' agreement that might be made. If booksellers did not cut under list prices, tailors or grocers or stationers would. There is no doubt a deep-seated instinct of the human heart in the shape of a strong desire to buy books, like other commodities, at something "off." "Inside" prices and the "most-favored-nation" discount do, in truth, appeal to a powerful passion in mortal breasts. The ravages of it we have seen in painful form, and we are not sure that we have not at times suffered from them ourselves.

The real difficulty, from the point of view of a close corporation, or iron-clad agreement, among publishers, is that there is no law, human or divine, by which they have the sole right to print and sell books. This truth was set forth with much force by the committee of the Authors' Society. Granting the desirability of keeping up the prices of books, there was no way of compelling a popular author to do it. If he knew that he could sell 20,000 copies at $1, as against only 5,000 at $2, he would have the publishers at his mercy. He could print his book himself, or get a draper or a department store to do it. And if it were said that he would be kept out of the regular channels of the trade, the answer would be that one of the big shops often sells more books in an hour than a country book-store does in a year. It thus appears that book-publishing is, in the nature of the case, not a business which can be monopolized, or made into a Trust, even if the majority of authors were willing to see it done.

Authors are, from their nature, bound to advocate cheap books. They all expect great popularity and unbounded influence; they know they can obtain it only by enormous sales, and enormous sales go with low prices. Hence they cannot really wish prices to be high. Many of them are vividly aware, too, that putting a high price upon their books does not mean that sales will be

made at the fixed rate. The proudest author can imagine a purchaser who would buy him at 87 cents, yet who would pass him by at $1.49. When an author has, like Thoreau, to pack away nine-tenths of his first edition unsold, it is no comfort to him to think that his pile of "collected works" of that sort was at any rate high-priced, that not one volume had been sold at the least per cent. "off." The whole issue taken at a most ruinous discount would please him better.

George Sand, in the account she gave of her publisher, Michel Lévy, the great inaugurator of cheap well-made books in France, touched upon most of the essentials of the entire question. Lévy's root idea was that it was better for both author, publisher, and public, that 50,000 copies of a good book should be sold at four francs than 15,000 at eight francs. George Sand expressed her fears as an author, when the scheme was broached to her. There was a vast clientèle nôt then buying books at all, she admitted, that might possibly be won. But could it be held? Attracted by the good book at four francs, would it not be immediately captured by the poor book at two francs, the vicious book at one franc? Possibly for a time, replied Lévy; but the appetite for reading, once acquired, would inevitably lead in the end to the best reading. His forecast proved correct, wrote George Sand; the *format* Lévy and the *format* Charpentier overran France. But this was to base too much on her individual success. No author can think hardly of a public which buys him largely; and George Sand could not be blamed for believing the great sales of her own works at a low price a proof of the soundness of French taste. But what would she say to the cheap books the French are reading now?

Under present conditions of publishing and of copyright, the argument that lovers of cheap books are not necessarily lovers of poor books has one great advantage—the cheapest books on sale are the best books on sale. In English, at any rate, the expiration of copyright and the cheapening in the cost of production of a book, merely as representing so much paper, ink, and labor, have placed the treasures of our literature within reach of the poorest. Critics and moralists have little to say about the extraordinarily low prices at which extraordinarily good books may now be had, but the fact is of the highest literary and moral significance. It is no doubt hard on contemporary authors to be subjected in this way to the fatal competition of "the dead hand of literature," as it has been called; but the influence of a readable Shakspere complete for fifty cents, of Scott and Thackeray and Emerson and Hawthorne at incredibly low prices, must be enormous and cannot be bad. At any rate, cheap books, like low prices, have come to stay. Make of them what we may, no publishers and no writers, be they bimetallic, symmetallic, or polymetallic, can alter the hard facts.

THE DUTCH ARCHIVES.

ITHACA, December 11, 1897.

About Forefathers' Day the thoughts of students interested in colonial or American continental history turn toward the archives of the little country behind the dykes which had once so much to do with the Western World, both through its own commerce and colonists and because of its being the shelter-land of the founders of New England. Two pamphlets recently published by Mr. Charles M. Dozy, the archivist of Leyden, Holland, one of which is reprinted from the *Revue Internationale des Archives, des Bibliothèques et des Musées*, gives a bird's-eye view of the historical materials and the system of storage and classification in the Dutch archives. The central depot is at The Hague. In 1802 the historian Hendrik van Wijn was nominated archivist of the Batavian Republic. He was charged with making an inventory of the important documents previous to 1648, and ordered to report from time to time the result of his inquiries. It was not, however, until 1814 that the state documents of a date previous to 1794, and, a little later, those between 1794 and 1813, were brought together in one place at The Hague. In 1854 the present building now in use, formerly the old house of the Deputies of Amsterdam in the State of Holland and later the palace of the Prince of Orange, became the depository. Before this formation of the central depot, one could consult the 'Conspectus of the Netherlandish National Archives,' published by Bakhuizen van den Brink, the archivist-in-chief and translator of Motley's histories. Since 1887 Mr. Th. van Riemsdijk, with three assistant archivists, has had charge of the national collection at The Hague.

The Provincial archives have been organized, one after the other, since 1802. By the Constitution of 1798, which abolished the ancient sovereign States, they were declared national property; yet it was not until 1877 that the centralization of the provincial and national archives was made, and their curators were put directly under control of the national Government. This has, however, been fully accomplished, so that all the depositories and keepers are under direction of the general archivist at The Hague. Since 1878 their reports, as well as their proceedings at the meeting of the archivists held annually at The Hague, are published annually in the periodical *Verslagen omtrent 's Rijks oude archieven*. Thus there is already an imposing collection of volumes giving lists of inventories or printed manuscripts, under the title "Overzicht van de inventarissen der oude Rijks-archieven in Nederland." It is the design of the Government to construct in each of the different provinces, eleven in number, commodious buildings to hold the provincial archives, in which buildings the danger of fire will be reduced to a minimum. At The Hague the new building, already begun, is to stand on the land directly behind the present edifice in use, and is to cost when finished 545,000 guilders ($218,000).

The very large masses of documents which have accumulated in the hands of notaries and are now in governmental possession, as well as the records which still remain in more or less danger of loss by fire, damp, or carelessness in the local communal archives, are not yet accessible to the public, though it is probable that they will be before long. All the provincial and national archives, however, are free to students and inquirers. The large cities of Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Dordrecht, and Gouda are still discreditably behind the requirements of the age, making use of old-fashioned, ill-adapted, and not altogether safe edifices for storing their priceless treasures; but at Groningen and Leyden are superb edifices. These latter are built in modern style, with almost every conceivable advantage of light, comfort, ventilation, warmth, and safety; and, I may add from personal knowledge, of courteous assistance for research from those in charge. In addition to the manuscript state records and the great mass of printed matter now accessible in books, are large stores of documents illustrating what we may call the wet side of this very much watered country. Furthermore, the student of charities, sociology, hygiene, organized industry, the military and fire departments, and pretty much all that belongs to the life of a municipality, will find in these provincial and city archives amazing riches. There still await, too, some future Brandt, Gieseler, or Schaff, to say nothing of a possible Motley, Macaulay, or Froude, the records of the Reformed churches, of the Jansenists or Old Catholics, and of the Mennonites—the successors of the Anabaptists. Our own American church historian, Dr. E. T. Corwin of New York, is now at work among the archives of that wonderful Classis of Amsterdam, the mother of Dutch, German, and missionary churches all over the world.

Under the appreciative care of the present Queen Regent, there has been erected to contain the archives of the House of Orange-Nassau a handsome edifice, which is to serve both as a library and as a museum. In its reorganization of the service, the Government has sent to Germany, Austria, and France Dr. P. J. Blok, the present occupant of the chair of Netherlandish History in Leyden University; to Russia, Dr. C. Uhlenbeck; to Dresden and Vienna, Mr. J. L. Berns; and to England, Dr. Hajo Brugmans, to make investigation of documents of importance in Dutch history. This special work has been continued from 1886 to the present time. Several societies, like those at Utrecht and at Leyden, also publish documents of value, particularly such as illustrate literature and language. In 1892 the Society of Archivists was founded, which now numbers forty members and meets annually, publishing also a periodical, the *Nederlandsch Archievenblad*. In this, as well as at their meetings, the technical matters relating to their profession are treated in preference to all others, and historic questions are not raised. At the gathering in 1897, a project for a complete organization of the whole system, general, provincial, and local, throughout the entire country, was to be discussed.

Leyden is to-day the chief city of Rijnland, which is the most important part of Holland for the study of hydraulic engineering and the great enterprises of the Water State. It is also the centre of the textile industry of the country. Its City Hall, where so many of the Pilgrim fathers and mothers

went to declare intentions of marriage, was for centuries the depository of thousands of papers from A. D. 1400. At the end of the sixteenth century, Secretary Jean van Hout gathered together the records of the secularized convents and classified and inventoried them, making a collection of about four thousand pieces. At the beginning of the seventeenth century, David Van Royen collected and inventoried the precious "Kenningbocken," which to-day gives Leyden a unique collection of materials for the history of the Dutch judiciary.

There were few followers of these careful and conscientious public servants until 1886, when Mr. Charles M. Dozy began his work, bringing order out of confusion, and facilitating reference both by the native scholar and magistrate and the local or foreign students—as many American, British, and German men of research can testify. Still, the danger and the lack of space until recently have been deplorable. In 1891 the Krantz family stepped in to solve the double problem of safety and of room for storage, by offering the city of Leyden forty thousand guilders to erect a proper edifice for archives. In the autumn of 1893, the precious papers were removed to their new home. This very handsome edifice, which I have examined and in which I have spent some pleasant hours, stands immediately fronting the canal into which came the rescue-boats under Admiral Boisot, when they brought loaves and fishes to the starving multitude at the raising of the memorable siege in 1574. It fronts Boisot Kadé (or Quay), and it is but a few feet away from the canal down which the English Separatists moved with their boats when, through the Rapenburg Canal and the Vliet (or Fleet), they journeyed from Leyden to Delftshaven on their voyage to America. There is abundant room for the eighteen thousand volumes and portfolios, which hold papers and parchments antedating 1852. Documents written or printed since that year are still at the City Hall on the Broadway; the three thousand notarial registers of Leyden lie at The Hague, but will some day, probably, be where they belong and become accessible to the public. Apart from American political origins and interests, when it is remembered that the Congregationalists, Baptists, and Mennonites, to say nothing of the Quakers, must look to Holland as their cradle-land, and when the work of the Venezuela Boundary Commission is recalled, one can see in this reorganization of the Dutch archives matter of interest to many of our American students of history.

W. E. GRIFFIS.

POLITICAL CHANGES IN JAPAN.

TOKYO, November 19, 1897.

It is only on the principle that the darkest moment is just before the dawn that the optimists of Japan can extract any hope from the present political situation. It is all confusion and disappointment, compared with what existed during and immediately after the Chinese war. Then it was generally believed that political parties were so well organized that they were on the point of realizing a condition of fair equilibrium between their aspirations and the actual government of the country. But some evil sprite seems to have interfered with their good intentions, and to have succeeded not only in putting a stop to further party organization, but in demolishing much of the work already accomplished. At present all who have looked forward to a settlement of the political struggle between the Parliament and Government are convinced that an entirely fresh start must be made.

It is easy to see from the course of affairs during the past year what the inherent weaknesses of the cabinet were. Count Matsukata, the Prime Minister, is a man of the Satsuma persuasion, and gave up more than one-half of his Cabinet to Satsuma influences. The Choshu element, represented by Marquis Ito, which has hitherto joined with the Satsuma party, has been absent from the present Cabinet, and in its place has been an independent element, directed by Count Okuma, who has for years been the advocate of a more liberal form of government. Count Okuma secured the coöperation of the powerful Progressive party, the successors of the old Progressionists, in the last session of Parliament. By a skilful use of patronage and other more hidden methods, the Government broke up the National Unionists and Liberals, and reduced the Opposition to trifling dimensions. In this way it scored a complete success against its opponents in the last session. The Progressives were rewarded for their fidelity to the Government. Some of them were appointed vice-ministers of certain departments, others were made chiefs of certain important bureaus, and not a few received the coveted positions of prefectural governors.

But the Cabinet, while successful in stifling the Opposition in the lower house, could not save itself from internal dissensions. Never was there less likelihood of long cooperation between the two elements of which the Cabinet was composed. The Satsuma men in Japan represent the extreme wing of the Satcho principle. Their boast is their domineering and uncompromising attitude toward opposition of any kind, their military tastes, and their dislike of parliamentarism. Their chosen field has always been the army, in which to-day they have a paramount authority in Japan. It was hardly likely that the extremists of the Satcho faction would find it agreeable to pull together with so liberal a representative of parliamentary government as Count Okuma. The latter is, above all, the champion of the commercial, educational, and in general the civil interests of the country. It was only the overshadowing reputation of Count Okuma in the sphere of foreign diplomacy, and his influence over a large political party, that made it necessary to appoint him to a Cabinet position. From the start, however, he was regarded as a disturbing element by the Satsuma wing. Rumors of a split in the deliberations of the Ministry began to be heard almost as soon as the Government was secure from attack in Parliament.

The present Cabinet has never succeeded in winning any popularity either from the public or the press. It was tolerated, and might have been tolerated much longer without open opposition had it only conducted the public business in a manner that was negatively free from criticism. But, apart from its own internal want of harmony, it seems to have gone out of its way to arouse popular antagonism. One of its mistakes was the appointment to the Educational Department of a man who, though generally respected, was totally without experience in education. It is commonly believed that the whole organization of this department is in need of reform, and, judging from the length of time that the public have been clamoring for a change, no one can help coming to the conclusion that there is room for improvement. The substance of this criticism is, that the higher officials of the department, instead of concentrating their attention on matters within their proper sphere, spend their time in venting personal jealousies and in political wrangling. Another cause of irritation to the public was the action of the Government in removing certain officials of the Audit Bureau of the Treasury. Several auditors of great experience and character were summarily removed without cause, so far as the public could judge, except to make room for new favorites. It was thought that this arbitrary action may have been due in part to a want of docility on the part of these officials to the demands of the Government. But, whatever the reason, the whole proceeding was denounced in the public press as high-handed and inexcusable.

Both these acts, however, were secondary to the so-called Formosa scandal. The administration of this new acquisition has long been a cause of bitter denunciation of the Government by the Japanese press. The conduct of the officials who have been sent to administer the island is far from what it should be, and has estranged the natives more and more from their new rulers. The civil officials are accused of nearly every sin of omission and commission, of venality, negligence, and disregard of popular rights. It had been expected that the present Cabinet would introduce a better régime in the island as soon as possible after the budget was passed by Parliament; but, far from this being the case, the conduct of the present Administration, according to the Tokyo press, has, if anything, deteriorated. Property and life are not protected against brigands, and crime is left unpunished.

One of the administrative officials of the island, who also occupied a judicial position, a certain Judge Takano, was summoned to appear in Tokyo during the month of August or September. As soon as he arrived, he was put on the retired list—a change equivalent to dismissal from the service. He refused to accept the order, and, in returning it to the department, denied the power of the Government to dismiss him. He took the ground that his office was guaranteed him under the constitutional provision that a judge cannot be removed except by the ruling of a disciplinary court. The order was again forwarded to him, but he resolutely refused to accept it. The Government, however, determined to enforce its authority. It took the position that Formosa did not come within the scope of the Constitution, that it was, as yet, without the existence of a disciplinary court, but was under the special authority of a Governor-General not responsible to Parliament—in brief, Formosa must be considered a Crown colony rather than an integral part of the Japanese empire. Judge Takano still refused to bow to the rulings of the Government. The press of Tokyo strongly backed him up and made him the hero of the hour. At a large meeting held in his honor he gave the reasons for his action in a speech of great independence and courage. In a few words he explained the conditions now existing in Formosa, and how the island was in a state bordering on anarchy.

"Laws," he said, "are well administered

when they operate in such a manner that their corrective effect is a hundred times greater than their punitive. Justice tempered with mercy is the first principle to be observed in putting laws into operation. The three millions of inhabitants of Formosa are crying out to-day that they cannot obtain security for their lives and property. The reason for this unfortunate state of affairs is that the local police are not sufficiently strong, and the rebels go about freely by day and by night defrauding honest folk who have no means of resisting them, and whose appeals to the police for aid meet with no adequate response."

In the contention between the Government and Judge Takano it seems that the former was not technically wrong. The Constitution of the empire does not as yet extend to Formosa, and therefore the Government had the right to remove an official who was not so much a judge (*hanji*) as a judicial administrator (*hangwan*). But from the point of view of common sense and tact the Government's position is almost indefensible. It assigned no reason for retiring him, though Judge Takano repeatedly demanded from the Government a statement of its grievances against him. Moreover, its action has excited a general belief that the removal was due to the Judge's zeal in exposing the corruption of certain Japanese officials, thus provoking enmity that sought revenge.

Judge Takano refused to the end to submit to the Government's order of dismissal. He returned to Formosa, where he attempted to resume his duties; but the officers in charge were ready to prevent him by force if necessary. The scene threatened to become dramatic, but ended finally in the Judge yielding to the mere display of force. He is now on his way to Tokyo, and at all the important towns in Japan he is receiving the ovations of the people. The whole incident will furnish material to the opposition parties with which to attack the Government during the next session of Parliament.

In the general breaking up of the two chief opposition parties during the last session of Parliament, the seceders were left without any definite leadership or organization. Some of the deserters from the Liberal party (Jiyuto) formed a temporary union known by the name of the Parliamentary Club. It was evident at the time that this was merely a provisional title. At present they have formed a new organization known as the *Kodo Kai* (Reform Association), under the leadership (it is asserted) of some of the Satsuma chiefs of the Cabinet. Whether this body will actually support the Cabinet during the next session of Parliament is extremely doubtful. Some of the newspapers allege that this new party was established for the definite purpose of opposing the Government measures. Its platform is excellent, but is in no wise different from that of any other party; and as its members are chiefly seceders from the older organizations, it cannot expect to secure much popularity. As it numbers about fifty representatives, it may derive a certain advantage from holding the balance of power between the older parties.

Another band of seceders, mainly from the Liberals, has established a separate organization known as the North Eastern Alliance (*Tohoku Domei Kai*). The platform of this party, too, has all the ordinary planks, and is of the most irreproachable kind. Its only novelties are the increase of the salaries of the minor officials and of the members of Parliament, the extension of the franchise and the privilege of representation to the inhabitants of the Loochoo Islands and the Hokkaido. For a time a suspicion prevailed that the condemnation of clan government in the platform of this coterie was merely a subterfuge to cover its real purposes. But this was removed when the leader declared roundly against the present Cabinet. It is now certain that this small faction, numbering scarcely more than fifteen, will be in the front rank of the Opposition during the next session.

Perhaps the most curious miscarriage of the Cabinet during the past six months has been its failure to secure the confidence of the business classes throughout the country. At a meeting of the Tokyo Chamber of Commerce held in the early part of November, to consider the proposed increase of taxes for the coming year, the President of the Chamber gave a long review of the shortcomings of the Government. Among other things he said:

"Up to 1895, the state budgets used not to exceed 80 or 90 million yen, but, in consequence of the post-bellum undertakings, they grew to 200 millions in 1896, and to 240 millions in 1897. The Ito Cabinet compiled a table of expenditures covering a period of ten consecutive years, and the Matsukata Cabinet amended it, making some increases. According to that table there ought to be a surplus of five million yen on the side of revenue in the fiscal year 1898-9, but, on the contrary, there is a deficit of twenty-seven millions. Such figures naturally inspire grave uneasiness as to the future dimensions of the budget. What is to be the limit? What we understand by regulating the finances is not an increase of taxation. Anybody could make ends meet if there was nothing to be done but to collect additional revenue."

A number of members of the lower house, possibly twenty, for the most part business men, who hold the same views as those expressed in the above lines, have formed a Financial Reform Association, the purpose of which is to oppose all further increase of taxation, and to demand a reduction of expenditures, chiefly of the army. In the last session of Parliament the bill was passed to raise the standing army from six divisions to twelve. The members of this association propose to have the increase limited to nine divisions. If the Government accepts this compromise, they agree to support it, but if they meet with a refusal, they pledge themselves to oppose all Government measures to the utmost. As it is hardly within the bounds of probability that a Satsuma cabinet will yield on this point, the members of this organization will throw their influence with the opposition parties. It is worthy of note that this group has at least an intelligent and practicable platform.

All these coteries, hardly deserving the name of political parties, would not seriously embarrass the prospects of the existing Cabinet during the next session, had only Count Matsukata been able to retain the allegiance of the powerful Progressive party and its acknowledged leader, Count Okuma. This party can count at least one hundred members of the lower house, and, had it determined to support the Government in the next session as it did in the last, it could without doubt easily bring fifty more into line so as to secure the necessary majority. But though the Progressives were liberally rewarded for their support in the past session, they have gradually become more and more dissatisfied. They saw that they were not fully taken into the councils of the Government. They lived merely on the outskirts of the official circle, and the Satsuma chiefs never admitted them into inner combinations. Further, as political managers, feeling the pulse of public sentiment, they knew they had gained nothing from their alliance with those in power. Unless they could in some fashion demonstrate that their union with the Government had produced certain beneficial results, they were doomed to lose influence with their constituents. The newspapers were clamoring for certain reforms in the administration, in Formosa and in the Cabinet itself. After the affair of Judge Takano they assumed a tone of indignant remonstrance. The Progressives saw clearly that they must strike a blow for a reconstruction of the Cabinet, or lose every shadow of respect from the public. They finally decided, at a general meeting held in October, to formulate certain demands and lay them before the Prime Minister. The demands were, essentially, the removal of the extreme Satsuma faction from the Cabinet, the reform of the budget, and the reorganization of the administration of Formosa. The most important of these was the first, as it was believed that a unified Cabinet would soon be capable of introducing a more vigorous policy into the various departments of the Government. On the following day (October 21) a deputation of the Progressives was appointed to visit the Prime Minister. The latter received them with courtesy, and asked them whether they came as political friends wishing to talk over the political situation, or as members of a party. To this they replied that they wished to talk over matters of national importance in a friendly manner. The Prime Minister agreed to meet them on these terms, provided the colloquy was not to be published in the papers, but to remain a private matter. The delegates signified their approval of this condition, and then made known their terms.

On the day following this conference the entire discussion between the Prime Minister and the delegates was printed in the regular organ of the Progressive party, and it was represented that there was no friendly colloquy whatever, but rather that the delegates had submitted their demands in the form of an ultimatum, Untrue as the last statement probably was, yet the general outlines of the conference were correctly reported. The Prime Minister thereupon had but one course to take. He transmitted to the delegates a memorandum to the effect that they had not observed the condition of secrecy imposed upon them; and as it now appeared that they had made certain demands upon him, he could only remind them that he held his position from his Majesty the Emperor, and was under no obligations to follow their injunctions or to admit the advice of outsiders. This answer was sufficiently decisive. The Parliamentary members of the Shimpoto met again, and replied to the memorandum of Count Matsukata that they profoundly regretted the publication of their interview with him, but that this was a mere detail. The upshot of the entire affair was the severance of all party relations with the Cabinet, the resignation of a large number of officials appointed to offices from among the leaders of the Progressive party, and finally the resignation of Count Okuma himself.

The new appointees to the vacancies have been almost entirely of Satsuma proclivities. Never before has Japan had a Cabinet so free from anti-Satsuma influences. But this *pure* Satsuma combination, as the Japanese call it (*Jun Satsu-ha*), has perhaps less support from the press, the public, and the political parties than any cabinet that has held the reins of power since the introduction of Parliamentary government into Japan. Daily rumors are spread abroad of new combinations between the Satsuma clique in power and particular parties and factions, who are to support it in the coming session. But whatever attempts have been made in this direction, they have so far entirely failed. It is almost certain that whatever political parties or individual members support the Government in the next session will suffer in popularity with their constituencies, and no people in the world are more sensitive to changes of public opinion than the Japanese. A general impression exists that the Cabinet will fail in its efforts to secure sufficient coöperation. In this event it will have to resort to dissolution and a new election for relief. An imperial rescript convening Parliament on the 21st of December has been already issued, and, when the session opens, the forces of Government and Parliament will once more oppose each other to decide whether or not clan government shall keep possession of the field. G. D.

Correspondence.

ASSOCIATION FOOTBALL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A few years ago, I felt the necessity of differing from you on the subject of football. But the experience of the last three or four years, while not, perhaps, leading to a complete reconciliation, has led me to believe that your attitude toward the brutalities of the game, as played in America, is one that should receive the attention it well merits. To attempt to do away entirely with a sport which commends itself so heartily to a large community, composed of spectators who are keenly interested in a well-contested competition, and also of that growing number of relegated heroes who once felt the dash of glory on the field, is to rob a large number of citizens of a privilege they have a right to enjoy. But to strip the game of its savage character—better, to substitute something that will satisfy us all, spectators and players—is another thing.

Perhaps my personal experience may be of some value, with this object in view. I began as player, progressed to the position of referee, even being in at the death of a worthy young man, whose life was uselessly sacrificed on the altar of this craze. I have seen many of the so-called famous matches. Chance has been the means of my seeing recently many of the Association games, as played in England and so much despised by us Americans. I am convinced our feeling toward the English game is taken from a lack of knowledge of the game—from never having seen the game properly played, or from having witnessed it with a casual indifference born of the *parti pris* for our development of the Rugby game. I make no mention of the game of Rugby football as played in England, except to concede to national pride that a picked team from our universities could probably hold its own with a team selected from the same ranks here, although eager aspirants for international honors should remember that the great games of Rugby football in England are not played by hastily trained undergraduates. But the Rugby game has its chapter of casualties, and is really popular in only a few sections of England, as compared with the Association game.

To sum up, then, some of the points in favor of the Association game, one can say that, while it is the pastime of small boys, it also can be played with a ferocity that would interest the most blasé habitué of the quondam Springfield games. It engages the attention of athletes in every county of England, who can scarcely wait for the cricket season to close to open with the football. It is witnessed by thousands of interested spectators, who accord it every kind of enthusiasm, and that, too, from men who are as fond of the exciting as we are. It is full of opportunities for fine plays, by pass-kicks and head-punts, and it is eminently suited to our kind of temperament, which finds its most picturesque athletic expression in alertness and running. In the hands of American management, it has possibilities beyond what even the English give to the game. But its great point, of course, is its freedom from the brutal element connected with the Rugby game. As the game is strictly football, practically the whole of the play is done with the feet and legs. Consequently, all attention is concentrated upon those parts of the player's body. The moment a foul is made with the hands or by tripping, or anything unfair occurs, it becomes at once visible, and the whole field cries out, and the referee's whistle brings to light the offending party. Too frequent a repetition of unfairness calls for a vigorous protest, and the offending member is removed. And to be debarred from playing in a league game or a cup tie is sufficient denial to make even the most irascible smother his wrath. As so much of the American game consists in being hurled to the ground, and the attendant consequences, we are naturally shy about playing after the frost has set in, and thus only a limited period can be devoted to the play; whereas the season might be prolonged even through the whole winter.

Finally, the Association game is a worthy substitute for what has surely grown to be no longer a fair, healthy competition; and rather than give up football entirely, we might easily adopt it, while we should be spared those gruesome and silly appendages—the doctor and his appliances—which, necessary and desirable in their proper place, are a burlesque connected with a sport, and render us open to the charge of seeking a cheap notoriety at a small cost. Should we really be so keen over our splints and ambulances if we thought serious danger was ahead of us? Edward Brooks.

Studland, Wareham, Eng., December 7, 1897.

CONGRESSMAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Allow me to enter a plea in behalf of the accurate use of the word Congressman. Naturally, the word means 'member of Congress,' and applies with equal propriety to a member of either branch of our National Legislature. The tendency to restrict its application to Representatives is to be regretted. If that meaning becomes fixed upon the word, then we shall have no simple term by which to designate a member of Congress without indicating his rank.

Calvin S. Brown.

December 15, 1897.

[Our correspondent is not the first to point out this encroachment of the lower house upon the upper; but does it not smack of poetic justice that our debased Senate is implicitly ignored by this assumption of the term "Congressman" by the Representatives?—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

The Macmillan Co.'s latest announcements are 'The Sun's Place in Nature,' by Sir Norman Lockyer; 'Cairo of To-day,' by E. A. Reynolds-Ball; Zola's 'Paris,' the third volume in the "trilogy" composed also of 'Lourdes' and 'Rome'; 'Where the Trade-Wind Blows,' West Indian tales by Mrs. Schuyler Crowninshield; 'Melic Poets,' by Prof. Herbert Weir Smyth, the first volume of his "Greek Lyric Poets"; 'The Science of Law and Law-Making,' by R. Floyd Clarke, of the New York bar; and 'Outlines of Sociology,' by Lester F. Ward, LL.D.

The Sentinel Printing Co., Keene, N. H., has in press 'The Bellows Genealogy,' by Thomas Bellows Peck, from which the biographical sketch of the most eminent bearer of the name, the late Rev. Dr. Henry Whitney Bellows, has been extracted to make a thin pamphlet with portrait (not flattering). This too may be had of the above firm.

Mr. David W. Hoyt, Providence, R. I., now follows up his circulars regarding his proposed genealogical work, 'The Old Families of Salisbury and Amesbury, Mass., with some related families of Newbury, Haverhill, Ipswich, and Hampton,' with a specimen Part I., which will also be the last part unless two hundred subscribers can be found at five dollars for the total five parts. Mr. Hoyt wisely prefaces the family genealogies with early lists of inhabitants of the two principal towns, so that (the scope of the work reaching to the year 1700) would-be subscribers have a good opportunity to judge how much their interest lies in these pedigrees. It is clear that Mr. Hoyt is an expert and careful genealogist, of the best school. On p. 28 he remarks on the numerous errors in Joshua Coffin's 'History of Newbury,' and his consequent resort to the town records for dates of Newbury families included in this book. Nor is this a solitary instance of correction of printed error.

The seventh volume of the *Land of Sunshine* shows a table of contents betraying no falling off in interest and no sign of weariness in the indefatigable editor. The story of the "Disenchanted" Mesa is here retold, with abundant photographs showing the mesa and the ascent of the party which succeeded Prof. Libbey. For the rest we have the familiar text and illustrations regarding the exhaustless wonderland of our Pacific Coast. The first number of the new (eighth) volume is marked by a return to Mr. Lummis's laudable practice of publishing facsimiles of early Spanish-American documents. He now treats of the first American books, notoriously printed in Mexico, and gives us the last page of the 'Manual de

Adultos' (1540), the third American book; the first engraving, from the title-page of the 'Tripartito' (1544); and the first music, from a psaltery of 1584. The whole subject will be thoroughly discussed in Mr. Lummis's 'Awakening of a Nation,' now in the press of Harper & Bros.

A favorable specimen of the better class of subscription-books is 'Germany's Iron Chancellor,' by Bruno Garlepp, translated by Sidney Whitman. The publishers are the Werner Co., Akron, Ohio, whose "Bismarck Department" is at 78 Fifth Ave., New York. This sumptuous folio is profusely illustrated with a great variety of subjects; portraiture of Bismarck, his family and his ancestors, and his coadjutors, predominating. There are also numerous double-page color prints from historic paintings. On this side, the volume is well worthy of attention. The text falls at once under the shadow of so much illustration, and it is not, in fact, biography of a high order. If proportion alone be considered, one-half the volume is occupied with Bismarck since his dismissal—which is excessive for an anti-climax. Whole chapters are given to his 80th birthday, the visits of deputations, congratulatory addresses, and like demonstrations dear to the German heart. Still, when all is said, the man, his pedigree and his domestic environment especially, are well brought out for study and reflection, by the writer and the photographer. Meanwhile the ex-Chancellor is yet among us, to delay putting the capstone on monuments like these.

Our readers are already familiar with M. Léon Lecestre's recent publication of Napoleon's inedited letters. An English version of them, by Lady Mary Loyd, has just been brought out by the Appletons ('New Letters of Napoleon I., omitted from the edition published under the auspices of Napoleon III.'). This is an authorized edition, but it is a little odd that M. Lecestre's name is nowhere mentioned in connection with it. The translation appears to be adequate but not remarkable; and why should letters to Napoleon's mother be headed and (worse still) indexed as to "Madame Mère"?

'Shirley' and 'Rob Roy' fare better than 'Pendennis' and 'Vanity Fair' in the one-volume series of standard novels now for some time in course of production by Service & Paton, London (New York: Putnams). The longer-winded novelist is punished by being put into small type and a condensed page. In all other respects this is a comely edition, and is tastefully bound.

The same moral is applicable to Bulwer's 'Harold,' which introduces the "Library of Historical Novels and Romances" edited by George Laurence Gomme for Archibald Constable & Co. (New York: Longmans). On the other hand, No. 2, Charles Macfarlane's 'The Camp of Refuge,' has a much more open and agreeable typography. The idea of this series—continuity in historical fiction—is very good, and Mr. Gomme, as his introductions show, does not slight his duty as editor. Besides his analyses of the tales and his annotations, he supplies pertinent antiquarian pictorial illustrations, topographical views, maps, etc., in liberal measure.

Mr. T. H. Robinson's numerous illustrations to Sterne's 'Sentimental Journey' (Longmans) are to be praised for decorative taste and restraint; and the letterpress is excellent. What is noteworthy is that this is an exact reprint of the first edition (1758), save the correction of sundry printer's errors. Those to whom Sterne's emotional and suggestive punctuation is a concern will be glad to have the original to turn to.

By way of contrast we must think 'A Book of Old English Love-Songs' (Macmillan) over-illustrated and decorated by George Wharton Edwards. On a larger page this defect might disappear, for the margins would supply the white now so sedulously ostracised by superfluous head and tailpieces. The designs by themselves are not without merit, though not of the highest. A slight introduction is furnished by Hamilton W. Mabie.

The simplest of Mr. Charles Robinson's pen-drawings for 'Lullaby-Land,' Eugene Field's "Songs of Childhood" (Scribners), are the best, *e. g.*, his gingham dog and calico cat, his shuffle-shoon and amber-locks, etc. The whole has a rather spotty look, and is not a good lesson in taste to the infant mind. The songs, too, have an uneven quality—the poet's eye was not always on the children, especially in his pathetic mood; and part of his humor lies in a vocabulary not by any means infantile.

The new Library of Congress does not lend itself internally to broad vistas. Some idea of it, however, is to be got in detail from the series of heliotype views under the above caption, just issued by Dart & Bigelow, Providence. It is not complete, even in the way of examples—for example, Kenyon Cox's decorations are passed over; and there is a little laxity in designating the objects in each plate.

In writing "about a very little corner of a very great place," especially if the place have gentle memories for many people, it is not difficult to arrest their attention by shocking their sensibilities; but no amount of literary skill will make such perverted success aught but worthless. All the fiction ever written about Harvard is inferior to a volume of the *Graduates' Magazine* in suggesting the eternal verities of the place; but if we must have Harvard stories, let them be wholesome and pleasant ones, like Mr. W. K. Post's—not a réchauffée of 'Guerndale,' sauced with brutalities of language in the early manner of Rudyard Kipling, as in Charles Macomb Flandrau's 'Harvard Episodes' (Boston: Copeland & Day). Mr. Flandrau's atmosphere is of one particular club at one particular date; his portraits, though true to nature, are luckily not types; his brilliant cynical conversations are beyond the ken of the average healthy undergraduate—and Harvard College is made up of more than 2,000 such undergraduates, not of the few failures, accidents, and unworthy successes. We sincerely regret that the book is so clever, for its effect, so far as it has any, on outside opinion of Harvard can hardly help being mischievous. Too many people are ready to judge a whole body by what they learn about an excrescence.

The little collection of tales of Barford folk, by W. J. Dawson, 'Thro' Lattice-Windows' (Doubleday & McClure Co.), sombre in spite of liberal sprinklings of humor, may still be counted among the successful attempts to present with fidelity the varied human interests of a remote country village. It certainly reproduces to an unusual degree the curiously mingled charm and unrest induced by continued contact with genuine country life, with "its vital and contented desolation."

With so much good raw material it is a pity that Mr. Henry Seton Merriman should not have offered, as the finished product, a more convincing story than that which he calls 'In Kedar's Tents' (Dodd, Mead & Co.). Entire improbability may easily redeem an otherwise valueless piece of fiction; but a novel in which only the most important incident is improbable, may very well be ruined as a source of pleasure. Would a Carlist conspirator intrust to a wholly unknown Englishman a letter the miscarriage of which would mean death to himself and disaster to his cause, relying only upon the general reputation of all Englishmen for honesty? Or, having risked this, would he, without taking the slightest trouble to establish the fact, stab the Englishman on the suspicion that he had not delivered the letter? It seems unlikely that, even in Spain, such delicately grave responsibilities would be delegated to so unreasoning a human being.

Titian is the latest number in Knackfuss's "Künstler-Monographien" (Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). There is nearly one illustration for every page of the thin volume of 151 pages, and the number is sufficient to show for purposes of study the artist's range of subject and execution. The editor of the series contributes the text.

The next number of the *American Historical Review* will contain some new matter relating to the convention of 1787, derived from the papers of Major William Peirce, member from Georgia. The manuscript, which has turned up unexpectedly in Connecticut, includes a partial record of the debates, much less ample than Madison's, and a series of sketches of the members. Another piece of Peirce's on the convention, from another source, is subjoined. The same number will give the final portion of the posthumous chapter of the late Prof. Tuttle's History of Prussia.

The Camera Club of this city has just transformed its occasional official *Journal* into a punctual quarterly, *Camera Notes*. It will publish with each number "two photogravures representing some important achievement in pictorial photography," besides half-tone prints. The letterpress will go further afield than formerly and be less restricted to club topics. In short, we have here a new journal of photography. The two numbers at hand show a generous conception carried out with distinction, and prove the annual subscription (one dollar) to be very moderate for the return. Mr. A. Stieglitz contributes a charming "Bit of Venice" and an admirable portrait of the late lamented publisher Mr. A. D. F. Randolph, and Mr. F. H. Day his fine "Ethiopian Chief"; the smaller pieces, too, are carefully chosen. The club's address is No. 111 West Thirty-eighth Street.

The second number of *Mazama*, "a record of mountaineering in the Pacific Northwest," is devoted mainly to a description of Crater Lake in Oregon. It is illustrated by numerous interesting photographs and a map. The society of which this attractive periodical is the organ has for its aim not only the increase of our knowledge of the Northwest, but also "the preservation of the forests and other features of mountain scenery as far as possible in their natural beauty."

It is quite impossible to keep up with Mr. Bernard Quaritch's successive catalogues, whose quality is known to all who meddle with books on either side of the Atlantic, but his No. 175 has a rather permanent

worth in and for itself. It is styled 'Monuments of Printing,' and comprises books produced by the earliest presses in Germany, the Netherlands, Italy, France, Spain, and England from 1455 to 1570. Its three sections are Typography; Xylography (block books and facsimiles); and Bibliography (history of printing). Add the index, which can but be helpful for speedy reference.

Some ten or a dozen block calendars for the approaching year come to us from Marcus Ward & Co., who consult a great variety of tastes with selections from Scripture, Tennyson, Dickens, etc. There is one for Children, another for Ladies, and a third for the American Revolution. The ornamental backing we cannot, on the whole, accord much praise to, as color work or as design. More pleasing in this respect are the knotted sheets designated as "Floral Favorites" and "Violets for Faithfulness" from the same firm.

To the latter class exclusively belong the series published by Frederick A. Stokes Co., ascending from the New Humphrey and Little Sweethearts Calendars (studies of children) to the Longpré (flowers), Lucile (Mme. Lemaire's design for Owen Meredith's poem), A Bevy of Fair Women, and the Sarony (portraits of Ada Rehan, Mary Anderson, Ellen Terry, Fanny Davenport, etc.). Color and photography play here an equal part, with varying attractiveness.

It was,we believe, Louis XV. who could not abide one of the most charming ladies of his court because her teeth were so horribly dilapidated. It was reserved for an American to change all that, and the late Dr. Thomas W. Evans became dentist to the Emperor Napoleon III. and his court, bringing all the appliances which had been invented and developed in this country beyond all foreign competition. This skilful practitioner, who even played a chivalrous part in the flight of the Empress after the catastrophe of 1870, is naturally commemorated by a fellow-Philadelphian, Mr. F. Gutekunst, who sends us one of his well-known imperial photographs of Dr. Evans, in his usual high style of execution.

At the forty-fifth annual meeting of the Wisconsin Historical Society on December 9 it was shown that its books and pamphlets now amount to 192,000—more than half of them bound volumes—with an increase during the last year of 8,695 titles. Progress was reported on the fire-proof library, for which the Legislature two years ago voted $180,000. An appropriation of $420,000 has been since made for so enlarging the Historical building as to afford room under the same roof for the University Library. As next May brings the jubilee of Wisconsin's entrance into statehood, a law was passed by the last Legislature encouraging the formation of local historical societies auxiliary to that of the State. It is likely that not a few will be organized. The fourteenth octavo of the Society's collections is now in press, as is also its catalogue of newspapers, with notes, in 600 pages; the card catalogue of its books and pamphlets is completed.

The 30th of November was the eightieth anniversary of the birthday of Theodor Mommsen, and the great historian, we learn from an article by Dr. Fritz Jonas in the *Rundschau* for December, is still in the midst of unceasing labors, and, despite his fourscore years, has had no time to grow old. The amount of Mommsen's work is vast in itself, but it seems marvellous if one bears in mind that his lifelong scholarly industry has never caused him to neglect the most varied and important political and social duties. On the contrary, his public life, also, has been an exceptionally active one, and he despises those who "take off the citizen's coat for fear of compromising their scholar's dressing-gown." In his earlier years, it is well known, he suffered loss of liberty and position ("for the good of the University") in consequence of his too lively interest in political affairs.

The Ricardo fellowship of $350 will be awarded for the year 1898-'99 to all Harvard candidates for the degree of A.B. in 1898, and to members of the Graduate School and of the Law School, without regard to their pecuniary circumstances. The holder of it will be obliged to pursue the study of the subject ("some phase or phases of the relation of the public to public-service corporations, including the questions of governmental and municipal ownership and management") at Harvard in 1898-'99. Essays of candidates must be handed in not later than September 1, 1898, for award by September 20, addressed to the Department of Economics, in care of the Corresponding Secretary of Harvard University, of whom further particulars can be obtained.

"The Development of the Law, as illustrated by the decisions relating to the police power of the State," is the theme for the essay awaiting the award of the Henry M. Phillips prize by the American Philosophical Society at Philadelphia. Essays must be in the Society's possession before May 1, 1899, and must not exceed 100,000 words, exclusive of notes. The prize is $2,000.

—The Macmillan Company have recently published a Supplement for 1897 (62 pp.) to the 'Handbook of Courses Open to Women' in foreign universities, which was issued last year by the Graduate Club of Bryn Mawr College. The Supplement contains the necessary changes in the list of professors and lecturers, and is, in fact, a useful table of corrigenda and addenda. In all cases, the information given has been obtained at first hand by the editor, Dr. Maddison, from the officials of the universities and colleges concerned. Particulars of the University of Helsingfors, omitted last year, are now included, from which we learn that women who wish to enter the Finnish university in any faculty save that of medicine must obtain special permission from the Chancellor. Curiously enough, no such restriction is imposed in the case of the Medical School. The degree of M.A. was conferred on a woman for the first time, at Helsingfors, in 1882. On April 1, 1897—*absit omen!*—the degree of doctor of medicine was granted to a woman for the first time in Austria, at Vienna. In the field of women's education in England the most important events of the year 1896-'97 have been: the refusal to grant the title of degrees to women who have passed the honors examination of Cambridge University; the arrangement of greater facilities for women to study at Durham University; the opening of a hall of residence for women graduate students at Cambridge; and the foundation of the new Davy-Faraday Research Laboratory in London in connection with the Royal Institution. This laboratory, which has for directors Lord Rayleigh and Prof. Dewar, was endowed and given to the Royal Institution this year by Dr. Ludwig Mond. "It is open, at the discretion of the committee, to all persons, irrespective of sex or nationality, who have done scientific research work, or are judged capable of undertaking it." The permission thus obtained, there is no charge even for materials, chemicals, gas, electricity, etc. With these generous and, we imagine, unique conditions of endowment, we may fitly compare the case of the Zoölogical Station at Naples, where fees to the amount of $400 are paid for the privilege of a table. On page 32 for Adams read Adam; on page 38 for Tomm read Tomn.

—A correspondent, who remembers the publication in the thirties of pension lists, shows that they had other good results besides "spotting" men who were drawing from the Government money to which they had no just claim—indeed, that their publication had another aim. He writes:

"Temple, the pension agent in Rutland, Vt., had lived there for many years in finer style than any other inhabitant. When bills for publishing pension rosters were introduced in Congress, he made haste to Washington, and, joining the lobby who fought against them, perhaps retarded their enactment. After their passage he offered a bribe to a pension clerk, to induce him to omit certain names in the list he was preparing for the press—that is, of men whose pensions had been drawn after their death. Failing in this attempt at concealment, he hurried home—but watched the post-office. After some days he saw a letter there in the box of the United States Marshal which he told the office clerk he would carry to that officer. It was afterwards remembered that he was seen to break open the letter as soon as he had passed out of the door. Its contents were an order to arrest the agent and bring him before a judge who was his next-door neighbor. As Temple walked homeward he halted for a moment to gaze at two boys of his at play in the street. Reaching home he threw the letter into the fire in a stove, took his rifle and told his wife he would see if he could kill a squirrel. Passing by his hired man, who was husking, he exchanged some words, passed round the corner of the granary, and at once shot himself dead. Not only was his own peculation brought to a perpetual end, but the confiscation of his estate largely recouped the Government. Too few of those now following in his steps would commit suicide as he did, but many of them, thanks to a roster, might be made to disgorge, and the moral lesson would be good for encouraging the others."

—Mr. John Russell Young, Librarian of Congress, is reported as saying that the experiment of employing women in the Library of Congress has not been successful. Reports coming from readers there would lead us to agree with him. What better could have been expected from a bevy of novices, knowing nothing whatever of library work? In libraries where assistants are carefully selected, on the ground either of a good library experience or of a library-school education, the experiment of employing women has never failed and never will fail. When female assistants are appointed without regard to fitness, because they have the support of influential Senators or Representatives—and this is exactly the method in which all but the heads of departments have been appointed in the late reorganization of the Library of Congress—the experiment of employing women is sure to fail, not because they are women, but because they are incompetent. Men so appointed would have only this one point of superiority, that more of them probably would have had some business training which could be turned to account. On the other hand, men appointed

in such ways to such positions are not unlikely to be persons who have failed in other attempts to earn their living, whereas the women may never have tried, and more of them may possess ability and adaptability. But the whole system is wrong. Mr. Young's declaration is only another proof of the wisdom of those who wished to have the new corps of the Congressional Library appointed after a civil-service examination. That method may not, perhaps, give the best possible body of assistants, but at least does not, like the appointment by influence, give the worst possible corps.

—In an interesting paper entitled "Le Voile de l'Oblation," read before the French Academy on the 12th of November, M. Salomon Reinach attempted an answer to one of Plutarch's *Quæstiones Romanæ*. "Why is it," asked Plutarch, "that, in the act of worship, the head is veiled?" The veiling of the head to which Plutarch refers was unknown to Greek rites; but, at Rome, from the last centuries of the Republic, it was a universal custom—except, indeed, in the case of three gods, Saturn, Hercules, and Honos. The etiquette of the veil was supposed to date from the injunction of the seer Helenus to Aeneas (Aen. iii., *seqq.*). It was thus, we are told by Virgilian commentators, that, by the prescience of Helenus, Aeneas avoided an awkward rencontre with his Greek foe Diomede at the moment of sacrifice. Here we have the pseudo-historical explanation, and along with it Plutarch's three solutions: The head is veiled (1) in token of humility; (2) to escape hearing words of evil omen during prayer; (3) as a symbol that the soul, though covered and hidden by the body, adores the god from within. This last may at once be rejected as Pythagorean in origin. The second solution is favored by modern writers on antique usages such as Klausen and Marquardt. M. Reinach dismisses all three of Plutarch's answers, and prefers to connect the custom of the veil at prayer with its use in an altogether different rite—that of the *devotio*, or solemn consecration. Perhaps the earliest trace of this is in the account by Festus of the Italic custom of the *ver sacrum*, the "sacred spring." "The Italians," says Festus, "when they were menaced with great dangers, would promise to sacrifice to the gods all living things born in their midst that spring. But as it seemed cruel to kill innocent children, they were allowed to reach maturity, *were then veiled*, and driven from the territory." Obviously Plutarch's explanations would not account for the ceremony of the veil in this form of *devotio*. Nor would they suit the *devotio* of the guilty vestals who were always completely veiled before being buried alive. M. Reinach considers that the "taking the veil" in the modern form of personal consecration is essentially the same rite. When, in 340 B. C., Decius "devoted" himself on behalf of the Roman army, it was with veiled head that he rushed among his Latin foes. During Cicero's exile, Clodius "consecrated" his house as a temple of "Liberty." The essential rite in this *consecratio bonorum* was the veiling of the magistrate's head for the act of consecration.

—The governing idea of all these acts is that of a gift made to a divinity, and it should be noted that, when the gift is not a human being, it is the *giver* who wears the veil. In the veiling of the right hand, which was customary in sacrificing to "Fides," M. Reinach would trace the same idea of consecration, in this explanation again departing from ancient and modern critics. To the question how the notion of consecration is expressed by a veil, why the candidate for initiation at Eleusis or for Christian baptism at Jerusalem, the Roman bride and her Christian counterpart, conform to the same custom, M. Reinach gives the general answer that the act is that of putting aside and isolating from the world the consecrated object. To admit in this connection, even as an accessory idea, the covering of the eyes of a condemned criminal, is, we think, to carry the thesis too far. Nor do we agree with M. Reinach's explanation of the tragic gesture of Pompeius, who, Lucan tells us, when he saw the swords of his murderers,

> "swathed his visage, for he scorned unveiled
> To yield his life to fortune: closed his eyes
> And held his breath within him, lest some word
> Or sob escaped might mar the deathless fame
> His deeds had won."

It is Lucan's unhappy fate that he lies under the suspicion of rhetoric, even in his finest imaginative touches, and here M. Reinach thinks the explanation too rhetorical to be true. But he out-Lucans Lucan when he interprets the natural movement of a defeated man, suddenly confronted with a violent death, as a religious act of self-consecration to Roman liberty and the Senate. When Cæsar, after a violent struggle with his assassins, saw the uplifted dagger of his friend Brutus, he forthwith covered his face with his toga, and so died. Here again, we cannot follow M. Reinach in thinking that Cæsar, when he felt that he was lost, accomplished the act of *devotio*, like Decius. This slight criticism apart, the paper is an interesting and valuable attempt to answer Plutarch's question by the comparative and historical method—that is to say, by a sort of *étymologie des usages*; a style of investigation for which both Greeks and Romans were curiously inadequate.

—We have received two brochures by Signora Jessie White Mario which deserve the attention of students of social questions. The first, 'Il Sistema Penitenziario e il Domicilio Coatto in Italia' (Rome: Forzani), describes the present condition of Italian penal institutions, in which there is an astonishing amount of inhumanity, due partly to ignorance, partly to indifference, and partly to the perpetuation of semi-barbaric methods. Criminals are neither reformed nor made to contribute to their support—the latter being an evil which demagogic legislators still inflict on many of our own States. Signora Mario suggests as a remedy that the great army of criminals should be set to work reclaiming the three million and a half hectares of waste land in Italy and Sicily, and that habitual offenders of the worst sort should be separated from those guilty only of mild misdemeanors and from juvenile criminals. The value of her study is enhanced by the comparisons she makes with penal methods in France, Belgium, England, and the United States. Her second brochure, 'Le Opere Pie e l'Infanticidio Legale' (Rovigo: Minelli), deals with a still more shameful blot on the humanity of the time—the deliberate letting die of a large proportion of the infants admitted to the *crèches* and foundling asylums of Italy, and the wholly inadequate care given to those who survive. Thus, at the institution of the Santissima Annunciata at Naples, 853 out of 856 babes received in one year died. Comment on such figures is unnecessary. It should be said, however, that all Italian orphan asylums are not conducted in this atrocious fashion. Signora Mario reviews them in detail, good and bad, and points out that the adoption of the best system cannot do away with all the abuses now existing unless intelligent and disinterested philanthropic men and women dedicate themselves to the supervision of orphan and foundling establishments. Her description of the way in which the Neapolitan *camorra* levies large tribute on the funds intended for charitable purposes, sounds strangely like what we have read of New York's *camorra*—Tammany. When problems such as these remain unsolved—and each country has its own—how cheap, how uncivilized, are the cries of those persons who urge that only in war and in preparations for war are to be found motives worthy of a great people. Signora Mario pertinently asks the humane women of Italy who organize Red Cross societies to care for the wounded in battles which may never be fought, whether it would not be better to declare war at once against the legalized annual slaughter of myriads of innocents. Both of her studies afford further evidence of the failure of clerical methods to humanize and to make virtuous the race over which for centuries they had almost complete control. Now, as in the past, some of the most abominable of Italy's charitable institutions are those conducted by pious fraternities and sisterhoods.

IRVING'S ASTORIA.

Astoria: or, Anecdotes of an Enterprise beyond the Rocky Mountains. By Washington Irving. Tacoma Edition. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1897. 2 vols. 8vo, pp. i-xxiv, 1-389, and i-xviii, 1-391; many plates.

This classic work has been before the public since 1836, and gone through uncounted editions, in one, two, and three volumes. It has been held by the present publishers since 1861 or earlier, and the latest edition is a sumptuous one, with a duodecimo typebed on a large octavo page, whose generous margin is partly occupied by an elaborate colored border; numerous full-page plates of greater or less pertinence to the text further embellish this fine piece of book-making. Whatever criticism Irving may have encountered from his contemporaries for this performance has long since been forgotten; the fame of 'Astoria' is perennial, and the witchery of Irving's matchless pen is invincible. No one could now say anything of 'Astoria' which would help or hurt it one iota in public estimation; we should as soon think of attempting to alter the place in literature of 'Robinson Crusoe,' or White's 'Selborne,' or Walton's 'Angler.' No one can be proof against the charm of 'Astoria'; we sat down to pen a brief notice of the handsome "Tacoma" dress Irving has just received, but forgot our business till we had read both volumes through, perhaps for the twentieth time. What we finally made up our mind to say seemed so ungracious, if not also so futile, that we wished to desist. But there are some things that need to be said about this book, since some new light has been shed on the whole subject of

Astoria by the appearance of the Journals of Alexander Henry, jr. Part III. of that work is devoted to this topic, and raises some questions which would not now be asked if Irving had had access to the Henry manuscripts, notably with regard to affairs at Astoria about the time it was captured by the British, and thereafter, when it was held by them as Fort George. The ill-known route of the Astorians across the continent and back again has come up for determination in the light of recent researches. Furthermore, all the editions of 'Astoria' we have seen have been careful literal reprints —Irving's masterpiece has never been textually tampered with.

We are far from proposing a reëxamination of 'Astoria' either as literature, or in those general commercial and political bearings it had when it was new; nor do we discuss Astor's policy, which writers like Alexander Ross have viewed differently from Irving. Regarded as history, apart from all charm of the telling, 'Astoria' has from the start included a number of errors of fact, chiefly in dates, which no one has hitherto been at the thankless pains to point out. From the standpoint of the geographer, 'Astoria' has never told us where the overland Astorians went. Something might also be said of Irving as of a genius who appropriated his own and transfigured it to his own purposes wherever he found it, as any reader of Brackenridge, Bradbury, Franchère, and Cox would discover. Waiving this latter point, and proposing no essay on 'Astoria' in its broad bearings, we make this luxurious edition of a classic work the occasion to point out some blemishes, individually insignificant, collectively worth noting, which can easily be done away with in future, and then address ourselves to the attempt to trace the transcontinental routes in terms of modern geography.

Chaps. v.-ix., pp. 60-126, on the voyage of the *Tonquin* and founding of Astoria, are more exclusively based on Franchère than Irving's slight recognition of this Astorian actor and writer would suggest. A nearly complete roster of the persons on board occupies Franchère's French original, p. 16, English translation, p. 29. Irving's thrilling story of the massacre tells more than anybody but the dead ever knew, but it can all be as easily imagined as is the new picture which embellishes this edition. The best check on Irving's pen is Ross Cox (p. 63 *seq.*). It is highly improbable that Clerk Lewis was the one who blew up the ship.

Many misdates need to be corrected, some loose ones to be fixed, and some missing ones supplied. P. 36, it is said that Lewis and Clarke (*sic*) accomplished their enterprise in 1804; but they started that year, reached the Pacific in 1805, and returned in 1806. P. 128, the reconnoitring party consisted of Alexander McKay, Robert Stuart, Ovide de Montigny, and Gabriel Franchère; they were gone May 2-14, and Irving's "not long after" means June 15 for the appearance of his "two wandering Indians." This episode is one of the most vitally important of all in the history of Astoria, bearing hard upon subsequent international controversies; for the "Oregon question" might have had another issue if David Thompson had not arrived just in time to be too late. Irving is substantially correct in all he says; but this can now be confirmed in Thompson's own words, from the opposing point of view (see extracts from his journal, in Henry, p. 748, etc.). P. 145, "early in August"; but Franchère says towards the end of July, and reports confirmed "some days after" by Indians from Gray's Harbor. P. 168, "the year gradually wore away"; various incidents are detailed by Franchère for November and December, 1811. P. 185, the missing names of the Missouri Fur Co. are given from contemporary records in the 1893 edition of Lewis and Clark, p. lxxix. Wm. Clark was one of them, and so was the "Mr. Henry" repeatedly mentioned, but never identified by full name. He is the *Andrew* Henry of Henry's fort and Henry's fork of Snake River, who died June 10, 1833, and has been ever since more or less mixed up with Alexander Henry, jr., with resulting doubly apocryphal biographical notices (for the facts, see Henry's Journal, pp. 752, 787, 843, 867, 885).

As to the special itinerary of the outgoing overland Astorians, whom Irving has safe in winter camp of 1810-'11 at the mouth of the Nadowa, he says on p. 193 that Hunt left them for St. Louis "on the 1st of January (1810)"! This sheer slip of the pen or misprint runs through all the editions of 'Astoria' we have seen; truly it is self-corrective, yet it has kept the overlanders hanging ever since between 1810-'11 and 1811-'12 in compiled accounts by careless writers. Hunt is next said to have reached St. Louis January 20—no year named, but 1810 again by previous error; read 1811, of course. Next comes an aggravating blunder, not only not self-corrective, but impossible to rectify on the face of the record. The party having started, at a date unsaid, reach St. Charles "the same afternoon." They started on Monday, March 11, 1811, but we next read, "on the afternoon of the third day, January 17th." Counting the starting day, the date is Wednesday, March 13, 1811 —not January 17, 1810, as Irving says for the day and month, and implies for the year by previous error. This right date is supplied by the contemporaneous evidence of the *Louisiana Gazette* of Thursday, March 14, 1811, which says that Hunt left with Bradbury and Nuttall on Monday, March 11. After this bad break Irving's chronology runs right, the next date being March 21, and so on, to p. 274, where, by a slip, "July" 3 appears for June 3, and p. 277, where "July" 5 stands for June 5. Thereafter we believe dates are correct through this volume.

Vol. ii., p. 35, for "Oct." 9 read Nov. 9 (1811). P. 92, for "nearly a month previously" read Jan. 18, 1812 (so Franchère). P. 120, Irving says "Mar. 22" for the date which Franchère, who was on the spot at the time, gives as Mar. 30. P. 144, "June 29" is in question; some say 30; Franchère is out of court, for he gives June 31! On p. 158, the misprint of August 20 in all former editions is now corrected to Aug. 10—the sole correction we have found. P. 269, for the loose date of sailing of the *Beaver*, read Aug. 4, 1812. P. 271, Jan. 16 is either this day or the 15th (see Henry's Journal, p. 761). P. 274, "in the meantime" means Mar. 31, 1813. P. 301 and p. 315, for Aug. 20 read Aug. 4, 1813 —so Franchère. Pp. 322, 323, occur four dates in some month Irving forgot to name; supply Aug. 14, 17, 25, and 28, 1813, from the Henry Journal, p. 845. P. 327, Oct. 2 is correct—misprinted September in Franchère. On p. 341, the most important date in the history of Astoria is wrong one day—that of formal possession of the place by the British and change of its name to Fort George. Franchère, who was present and made a speech, gives Dec. 12, 1813, which Irving and all others have accepted. But it appears from Henry, who was there too, and describes the incident at full length in his Journal, pp. 769, 770, that Capt. Black entered the fort at 11 P. M. on the 12th; that they all made a wet night of it, and finished the performance next day, Monday, Dec. 13. P. 345, Apr. 3 as date of sailing of the *Pedler* is given as Apr. 2 by Henry, who saw her off, but Irving's "next day," Apr. 4, 1814, is correct; see Henry's Journal, pp. 865-876, for a very full and entirely new account of the evacuation of Fort George by the Nor'westers and ex-Astorians, with roster of the names, bills of lading of the canoes, etc. This list, taken with another which Henry gives of the occupants of Fort George who did not go away, amounts to nearly a complete muster by name of the persons connected with the establishment in 1813-14.

The strength and composition of the overland Astorians will never be known exactly. In numbers, Irving says, p. 219, "nearly 60 persons." Some ciphering we have done with Capt. H. M. Chittenden, upon internal evidence of the book and other data, gives 64 persons, with probable error of one or two. The arithmetic is too long to print here; the x of the equation may possibly be Pierre Dorion's squaw, who was *en route* (in another sense) at the start, and had her baby by the way. Probably less than half of the party will ever be known by name. Of the 60-odd who started, it appears that only 47 reached Astoria, all in sad plight after horrible hardships and several fatal casualties. We could correct a number of misgiven names, like "Andri Vallar" for André Vallée; but it is hardly worth while to go into such detail. The most obscure name is that of one "Sardpie"; he is Baptiste Gardepied (or Gariépy, as we believe it is now written). "Mr. Breckenridge" is of course Henry M. Brackenridge, the author.

The route of the overlanders is the crux of Irving's work, demanding special attention, which it has never yet received. We must remember that this was the second transcontinental journey ever made through the United States, and that Irving could not tell us where his people went, for the same reason that Biddle could not trail Lewis and Clark exactly—he never knew. He simply spirited them over the plains and the mountains from the Missouri to the Snake River; there is only an air of geography in his narrative, mostly in the clouds. Dr. Coues lately handled the subject in his Henry book, and set up some sign-posts, but was far from recovering the whole route in detail. We have gone over it again, comparing notes as before with Capt. Chittenden, and now have several exact points to make. Irving makes a false start from the Missouri, throwing the route a full degree of latitude too far north to begin with. He locates the Arikara village (the point of departure) "between 46° and 47°"; but it was short of 46°—say 45° 45′. In 1804 Lewis and Clark found three Arikara villages, within four miles of each other, only four to seven miles above the mouth of their Wetarhoo (present Grand) River. In 1811, according to Bradbury and Brackenridge (who were on the spot with the Astorians, and from whom Irving takes his incidents bodily), these three villages had coalesced in two contiguous ones. The site of

these was some six or eight river-miles above the mouth of the Grand, on the right bank of the Missouri, in present Boreman Co., S. Dak., near but somewhat below the town of Campbell, Campbell Co. *Here* is where the Astorians started, holding a general southwest course over the trackless plains. They crossed "some of the tributary streams of the Missouri"—*i. e.*, two; 1st, Grand River; 2d, Moreau or Owl River—and then came to Irving's "Big" River. Now anybody would think, from Irving's start a degree of latitude too far north, that this "Big" River was the Grand, and thus lose the Astorians on the plains. It was not Grand River; it was the main or Big Cheyenne River that they struck, at an unknown point, probably near the confluence of its north and south forks, which so definitely embrace the cluster of elevations now known as the Black Hills. Exactly where they went through these has never been made out, and probably never will be. Irving's indicia fail, partly because *his* "Black Hills" included everything hilly east of the Rocky Mountains. True, he speaks of "skirting" to the southwest, keeping certain elevations to the right; but this avails us nothing, especially as he presently fetches out on the "Little Missouri." We believe this to be a mistake for the Belle Fourche (the upper reach of the north fork of the Cheyenne), which flows so nearly parallel with the Little Missouri, before it turns, that the two could easily have been confounded. If we send the Astorians through the present Black Hills somewhere in the vicinity of Spearfish and Sundance, and then get them right over the Belle Fourche south of the heads of the Little Missouri, the way begins to grow clear. We soon have them on Powder River, Irving's next definite indication. Where they struck it is uncertain—probably not far from its main forks. The Bighorn range is now squarely across the trail; it is crossed at some uncertain point, well towards its southern end, and Irving is next on a river "running north." This is obviously the north fork of Bighorn River. Skirting the next range to the southwest, the Astorians reach the Bighorn itself, probably a little below the junction of Popo-agie Creek with Wind River—for Wind River becomes the Bighorn after this junction. Now we know where they are going—right up Wind River to its forks, through the present Wind River or Shoshone Indian Reservation. At the forks they leave this river to the right and cross the Continental Divide at or near the present Union Pass; directly they are on the head of "Spanish" (present Green) River; down this they go a piece, and over the Grosventre range to the head of Hoback's River (named for one of them and still so called). Down Hoback's River they go to its confluence with "Mad" River—main or south fork of the Snake. Here, on September 26, 1811, we can stick a pin in the map, and set camp within gunshot of absolute accuracy, for the first time since we left the Arikaras on the Missouri! The rest is clear—over the Teton range by Teton Pass, northwest through Pierre's Hole, and west to Henry's fort on Henry's fork of the Snake. This post has been lately fixed nearly opposite the present Elgin, two or three miles from the present Wilford—say ten miles below the mouth of Fall River. For the rest, the Astorians who were not drowned or left in the mountains of Idaho to trap, straggled down along Snake River in several detached parties, and got to the Columbia in various ways, finally reaching Astoria some months apart. It is a thrilling story of suffering, but Irving is fully equal to that, and we drop the painful subject.

The incoming Astorians of next year, 1812-13, took a route for the most part different from that of the outgoers, and in some respects more interesting as well as more definite. The party of seven which left Astoria June 29 or 30, 1812, soon lost John Day, who went crazy and was sent back. It consisted then of six persons—R. Stuart, R. Crooks, R. McClellan, André Vallée, François Le Clerc, and Benjamin Jones. They went up the Columbia and over the Blue Mountains to the Snake, and up this river to some point near American Falls, where the railroad now crosses. They fell in with J. Hoback, J. Miller, J. Rezner, and E. Robinson, who had stayed in the mountains to trap, making now ten in all. Three of these were left again; the party was then seven—the original six, plus Miller. Leaving the Snake below American Falls, perhaps somewhere about Neely, they struck east across the present Fort Hall Indian Reservation to the bight of Bear River (tributary to the Great Salt Lake), and ascended it to the vicinity of the Sublette range, where they turned north from it, up one of its tributaries. This was either Thomas fork or Smith fork; both run south, and either would bring them north to a head of Salt River, which they followed north to its junction with the main or south fork of the Snake River. They went down the latter to a point short of its junction with Henry's fork, and struck across country to find themselves once more at Henry's fort. Thence they retraced the outgoing trail through Pierre's Hole, over the Teton range, up Hoback's River, and over the Grosventre range to Green River again.

This part of the route is recoverable from Irving only with the utmost difficulty; we have no room to present the evidence, but there is no question of the substantial accuracy of the result. (See Henry's Journal, p. 884.) It is hence that the entirely new route continues to the Missouri. Dr. Coues says (*l. c.*) that they "certainly fetched out on the Sweetwater, and so on down to the North Platte"; this is correct, but he sends them over the Continental Divide via the subsequently famous South Pass at the head of the Sweetwater, thus making them its discoverers. Attentive reconsideration of this point induces us to fetch them from Green River about south-southeast to very near South Pass—perhaps within twelve or fifteen miles of it, when they wandered off the Indian trail which would have taken them through this pass, and kept about southeast till they had headed the Sweetwater entirely. Then they struck east, south of that river, and finally fell on it lower down—perhaps via Whiskey Gap, between the Green and the Seminole Mountains. The rest of the way is clear—down the Sweetwater to the North Platte, down this to the Platte, down this to the Missouri, down this to St. Louis. The only question is the location of their long winter camps. The principal one of the two appears to have been on the North Platte about the mouth of Caspar Creek; the other was lower down, toward Fort Fetterman. In determining such points, and generally in reckoning with Astorian travel, it appears from careful calculation that Irving's distances require about one-third off—say an average of sixty-five miles on the ground to every 100 in the book. The seven persons named reached St. Louis April 30, 1813. Their arrival is noticed in the *Missouri Gazette* of Saturday, May 8, and more fully in the same paper of May 15 (vol. v, No. 247). The latter article is the one which forms Appendix 8 of Brackenridge's book, 1814, pp. 297-302.

If any MS. record which Irving used be extant and available, this should be taken to construct a skeleton "key" to 'Astoria'—not that any one should have the presumption or the hardihood to touch Irving's inimitable story, but that the bedrock upon which that work of consummate literary art was erected should be laid bare, and the secrets concealed with such craft of the pen be revealed to matter-of-fact geographers and historians. What Irving needs is not an editor so much as an interpreter. Our remarks do not fully disclose him, but they open the way to that end.

BRYCE'S SOUTH AFRICA.

Impressions of South Africa. By James Bryce. The Century Co. 1897.

We need spend no time in assuring our readers that Mr. Bryce possesses rare qualifications for the treatment of such a subject as that to which he has here devoted himself. The 'American Commonwealth' proved him a master of the art of scientific description as applied to that complex entity which we call a "country." He knows how to estimate the influence of the past upon the future, the interaction of the material and the spiritual, the relative effects of race, institutions, and traditions, and to combine and blend his judgments so as to produce a symmetrical whole. In special lines of investigation and description there are always preëminent experts. We should not expect Mr. Bryce to offer us a treatise on the geology of South Africa or its fauna, but we do expect that his "impressions" will indicate his acquaintance with such particulars, and we are not disappointed.

Take, for example, his explanation of the failure of the Portuguese to occupy the land which they were the first to discover. He provides us with three maps of South Africa, and shows by reference to them that the interior of the Continent could have been in the first place penetrated only from its southern end. The orographical map reveals a range of mountains on the eastern edge of the continent, with a narrow alluvial fringe containing one or two good harbors. On the west coast there is not a harbor for a thousand miles. It was therefore natural for the Portuguese traders to begin their settlements on the comparatively accessible eastern, rather than on the uninhabited and forbidding western, coast. On the eastern coast, moreover, a trade in gold and ivory had been already developed by Arabian merchants, whom the Portuguese dispossessed, while the southern extremity of the continent offered no commercial inducements. But the alluvial strip on which the Portuguese settlements were placed was so unhealthy as to be a practically insurmountable barrier against expeditions to the interior; so that even if the Portuguese had possessed the colonizing instinct, they could not have exercised it.

The Dutch, however, occupied the Cape peninsula as a place of call for water and

fresh vegetables. The crews of their East Indian merchantmen suffered badly from scurvy on their long voyages, and thus, Mr. Bryce says, "it is from the small beginnings of a kitchen-garden that Dutch and British dominion in South Africa has grown up." For when agriculture was once established, it flourished; and in the dry but salubrious table-land that constitutes the interior of South Africa, pasturage was unlimited. Through the eastern part of this table-land the rainfall, although scanty, is sufficient for grazing, the air is invigorating, and neither fever nor pulmonary disease prevails. As in the case of the New England settlement, the way for the whites had been prepared by the destruction of the natives by pestilence. Impelled in the first place by the natural expansiveness of a vigorous stock, the Dutch were after a time pushed on from behind by the advent of the English, who, in these latter years, have overtaken them, and, as it were, leaped over their heads to occupy regions still farther north. Thus a wave of Teutonic settlement has swept up through the interior, until it has fairly paralleled the coast settlements of the Portuguese, and in some cases flowed down upon them from the highlands.

Such, in brief, has been the course of the European occupation of South Africa; what it has been in detail should be read in Mr. Bryce's admirable narrative. It is gratifying to find that his dispassionate review of the facts leads him to the conclusion that few conquests have been marked by so little wanton cruelty and injustice. Many of the natives have been slaughtered in battle, many enslaved; but neither the slaughter nor the slavery compares in extent or atrocity with that inflicted by the natives on one another. A modified form of slavery, in the guise of compulsory labor for wages, has existed under the rule of the South Africa Company; but it cannot long maintain itself against British public opinion, and in general it may be said that the social status under British rule resembles that which prevails in our Southern States. The climate does not forbid manual labor to the whites; but, having depended on slaves in the first place, they have learned to think that all heavy work should be done by natives. The inferior races, the Bushmen and Hottentots, long since practically died out; the superior Kafirs, or Bantu, under civilized rule, are increasing at a rate which excites apprehension concerning the future. But the problem can never be so grave as it is in India, for in South Africa the whites multiply and do not lose their vigor. It is satisfactory to learn that the curse of alcoholic abuse is comparatively restricted, and that the efforts of Christian missionaries have produced very substantial results.

The name South Africa naturally suggests the recent attempt at revolution in the Transvaal, and although Mr. Bryce came away before the outbreak took place, it was near enough to cast its shadow before it. The particulars of the affair have been so abundantly discussed by the newspapers as to make it unnecessary to review Mr. Bryce's account of them, nor does he attempt to narrate the later details. But he examines with great care the causes that were operating to produce such a result and that continue to operate. His observations are of the same judicial character here as elsewhere, and we detect no trace of national partiality. He is plainly convinced that a continually increasing majority of English-speaking people will not permanently continue to be submissive to the rule of the Dutch minority, if it is to be as onerous as at present, and he especially deplores Dr. Jameson's raid because it tended to postpone inevitable reforms. His forecasts of the future of the Transvaal and of South Africa will be read with the interest that attaches to any forecasts made by so experienced an observer; but it must be confessed that they are not intrinsically of a nature to arouse our enthusiasm.

For, after all, the subject is a small one for Mr. Bryce's powers. He furnishes us with many beautiful descriptions of African scenery, and gives the climate abundant praise. He speaks appreciatively and pleasantly of the various peoples and of their moderate advances in civilization. But the country is comparatively uninteresting, and the dry, clear air, as he says, obliterates all foregrounds. In spite of his efforts to enlist our sympathies—and it would not be easy to do better—we feel that we can get along very comfortably without ever visiting South Africa. Its history has had episodes of dramatic interest; events of great importance (for the South Africans) have taken place within its limits. But they have not been events of such a nature as to affect materially the course of civilization in other parts of the world, and Mr. Bryce half confesses that there is little prospect, except on the general principles of progress, that such events will take place. How many generations, we feel inclined to ask, will have passed away before South Africa can produce any one so competent as Mr. Bryce to write about her?

We must not give the impression that his book is not readable from beginning to end. It is a capital book of travels, an excellent epitome of history, and an admirable political essay. The interest of the reader will not flag from the first page to the last; but he will rise satisfied. He will feel that he has a sufficiently complete acquaintance with the subject; that he understands the features of the country and the character of its inhabitants; that he knows their past and can imagine their future. To be able to enjoy this comfortable feeling of having increased our knowledge without painful exertion is certainly something to be grateful for, and Mr. Bryce will be heartily thanked by the rest of the world as well as by the South Africans for telling their story so well.

LEE, JOHNSTON, AND DAVIS.

Robert E. Lee and the Southern Confederacy, 1807-1870. By Henry Alexander White, D.D., Professor of History in the Washington and Lee University. [Heroes of the Nations Series.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 12mo, pp. xiii, 467, with portraits and maps.

Prof. White's Life of Gen. Lee has been prepared under circumstances which give it some superiority over previously written biographies of the Confederate leader. The author's relations to Gen. Custis Lee, the President of the same university, who allowed the use of his father's letters and papers, gave the opportunity to quote family letters more fully than others have done, and a most valuable source of knowledge has thus been made available. Prof. White tells us also, in the preface, of the range of authorities which he has consulted, and of the assistance he has had from competent persons, and the work bears evidence in itself that industrious and systematic use has been made of the material at his disposal.

To these literary opportunities, however, there are some offsets. Earlier biographies have been written by military men of high rank who were in close personal and official relations to Lee, and who had the advantage of their own knowledge and experience in interpreting a situation when the written evidence is not conclusive. It can hardly be said that the present book will supersede the others, though it will add to them much that is useful and welcome.

Dr. White is especially to be praised for the labor he has expended in verifying the positions of the subordinate parts of Lee's army from hour to hour in the progress of a battle. Such investigation is most useful in fixing a solid basis for judging the progress of events, and no one who has not tried it can appreciate the amount of toil required to bring it to any conclusive result. He has made free use of the work of those who have gone before him in special studies of critical situations, such as that of Mr. Royall upon Gettysburg; and though his method has not included a full current reference to the opinions of others on debated points, the book would be still more helpful if more of this had been done.

A severe taste would have curbed some rhetorical flights and held to a simple style, in keeping with the quiet dignity of Lee himself. In a number of places the word "park" is applied to batteries of artillery in action, though it is confined as a military term to the compact assemblage of guns or wagons at rest and out of immediate use. The word "band" also seems to be a favorite one, occurring in unusual connections, as when it is said of Meade's army at Mine Run that "this host in five bands was expected to seize the Orange turnpike," or of the Confederate armies in Georgia and Virginia that "both these bands were facing northward."

The author's studies do not seem to have reached the official statistical returns of the Confederate armies, and he follows the habit of Southern writers in preferring the loose expressions of combatants who claim that they always fought one against two or three. Occasionally this involves a puzzling problem, as when the 35,000 with which Lee is said to have fought the battle of Antietam (p. 223) become 72,000 when he had retreated across the Potomac (p. 238).

One interesting question, though not at first blush a very important one, is that of the steps in Lee's service by which he passed from the command of the Virginia forces in April, 1861, to the position of General in the Confederate army. None of his biographers has given a satisfactory explanation of this part of his career, and Dr. White's is evidently erroneous. He says (p. 104) that "May 25 marked the change in his military rank from the position of Major-General in the State militia to that of Brigadier-General in the army of the Southern Confederacy. The Confederate Government had not yet created a military rank in the field service higher than the grade of brigade commander; it was Lee's indifference to the mere insignia of office that prevented friction in the matter of lowering his rank." Again (p. 108) he says: "Nominally as military adviser of President Davis, Lee remained in official connection with the Confede-

rate cabinet. . . . Lee's usual term for Davis was 'the Commanding General.'"

Neither Mr. Lincoln nor Mr. Davis was ever spoken of by military men as "General." The usage in both armies and both governments was identical. The President as Commander-in-Chief always spoke and was spoken of as President. General was a strictly military office subordinate to the President, and a veteran officer of the army like Lee would be the last man to violate law and usage in such a way. The only military title applied sometimes to Davis was that of Colonel, continued by courtesy after the Mexican war, in which he had commanded a Mississippi regiment.

An analysis of the Official Records removes the obscurity which has clung about Lee's promotion, and it may be worth while to clear up the matter. The question of rank was the cause of chafing between Gen. J. E. Johnston and Davis; and Johnston, in his 'Narrative,' gives the dates of the Confederate laws on the subject. Five brigadiers as officers of highest rank in the regular army of the Confederate States were authorized by the act of March 14, 1861, which also provided for their relative seniority according to the rank they had held in the United States army. It allowed six months for officers in the national service to resign, so that the question of relative grade might remain open till September 14. The act creating the rank of General was that of May 16, and gave that rank to the five general officers who had been authorized by existing laws. Davis did not, in fact, complete his five appointments of brigadiers till late in the summer, when A. S. Johnston (for whom he had reserved one) reached the East by his overland journey from California. Among them were J. E. Johnston, Cooper, and Lee, who had been appointed before the Confederate Government was transferred from Montgomery to Richmond in the latter part of May and beginning of June. They had ranked in the national service in the order above stated. Beauregard was a Brigadier in the Provisional (not regular) army, and was promoted to General after the battle of Bull Run.

On the 23d of April, Lee had been made Major-General and commander of the Virginia forces; that State, in the interval between secession and admission to the Confederacy, assuming to be an independent republic. At the same time J. E. Johnston was made a Major-General of Virginia troops under Lee (O. R., ii., 775, 783).

On the 10th of May, Virginia having been admitted to the Confederacy, and troops from other States pouring in, the Confederate Government telegraphed to Major-General Lee, "To prevent confusion, you will assume the control of the forces of the Confederate States in Virginia, and assign them to such duties as you may indicate, until further orders, for which this will be your authority." This was embodied in General Orders No. 13 from "Headquarters Virginia Forces," which directed all officers and organizations of the Confederate army to make reports to him. The order was signed, "By command of Major-General Lee, R. S. Garnett, Adjutant-General" (O. R. ii., 827). It was the familiar case of an officer of militia serving in a higher rank than that which he held in the regular army: Rosecrans, Sherman, Meade, and others served in a similar way on the national side.

On the 15th of May, J. E. Johnston was notified of his appointment as Brigadier-General in the Confederate States army and assigned to command at Harper's Ferry (*id.*, p. 844). The organization of Virginia troops was changed so as to drop the rank of Major-General except for Lee as commanding in chief, and Johnston was offered a State commission as Brigadier. Between the two he chose the Confederate States commission in the regular army ('Narrative,' p. 13). Lee continued to sign his name as "Major-General commanding" until May 25, when he changed his style to "General, commanding," which he permanently retained thereafter. His headquarters, however, he continued to designate as Headquarters Virginia Forces until June 8. On the last-named date he published, in General Order No. 25, Governor Letcher's proclamation that Virginia was admitted as a State into the Confederacy, and that her military forces were transferred to the command of the President of the Confederate States (O. R. ii., 911). From that time Lee's orders and communications were dated from "Headquarters of the Forces," or simply "Headquarters."

On July 20, J. E. Johnston having inquired as to his and Beauregard's relative rank in view of the expected junction of their forces at Bull Run, Mr. Davis telegraphed him: "You are a General in the Confederate Army, possessed of the power attaching to that rank" (*id.*, p. 985). It seems clear that Mr. Davis and his cabinet accepted the conclusion that the law of May 16 conferred of its own force the rank of General on those who had been made Brigadiers under that of March 14, and that the President did not give them any new appointment. Johnston had expected some formal notification, but got none. He was told on July 20, not that he was appointed, but that he was already a full General. Lee had got the same information as early as May 25, and quietly assumed the rank in his communications and orders from that date.

It is also plain that Lee's authority to command in Virginia was recognized after June 8 as it was before, and his series of General Orders runs on consecutively. It must be assumed, therefore, that Mr. Davis regarded the former order putting the Confederate forces in Virginia under Lee as still in vigor, the transfer of the Virginia troops and Lee's accession to the highest grade in the Confederate army having strengthened instead of weakening its applicability. His personal command continued "until further orders," and no further orders had been issued. Lee had never been assigned to duty in his grade of Confederate Brigadier, but served as Virginia Major-General till he passed at once to the rank of full Confederate General. But on the 29th of July, General J. E. Johnston challenged Lee's seniority. He said to the Adjutant-General that he was receiving daily orders coming from "Headquarters of the Forces," which "I cannot regard, because they are illegal" (O. R. ii., 1007). He referred to his letter of the 24th, in which he seems to have taken the ground that the act of May 16, in giving the new rank of General to those who had been Brigadiers, left the relative seniority of the Generals the same as that which they had as Brigadiers; that Lee was therefore his junior and could not give him orders. Precedent and the army regulations seem to sustain Johnston.

The battle of Bull Run had already caused irritation between Mr. Davis and the three senior officers on that field, and the Confederate President was not disposed to yield to Johnston's claim. He sent nominations of the Generals to the Senate for confirmation, affixing arbitrary dates to them, so that Johnston was made fourth instead of first; and when these nominations were confirmed, the disappointed General found no practicable way to contest the matter further. He protested vigorously, and a lasting enmity between him and Davis resulted. Lee took no part in this quarrel, and avoided the appearance of giving orders to Johnston thereafter. His going in person to command in West Virginia was probably, in part at least, to avoid complications until the Senate should act. That he went on his own motion, and that Mr. Davis desired him to return and resume actual authority under the existing orders which had not been revoked, sufficiently appears from their correspondence (O. R. v., pp. 767, 828). As soon as his fall campaign against Rosecrans was over, Lee was assigned (November 5) to command a department of the Southern coasts. Early in the following spring (March 2) Davis urgently requested him to return to Richmond (*id.*, vi., 309, 312, 400). The confirmation by the Senate of appointments expressly ranking by particular dates was held to settle the question of relative seniority. The whole chain of events indicates Lee's determination to avoid mixing in the controversy between Davis and Johnston, and his unwillingness to become a party to any strife over his own rank.

The episode is an interesting one in itself as throwing a very instructive light upon all three of the prominent characters involved. Its consequences were visible through the whole war, and the antagonism between Davis and Johnston brought increasing mischief to the Confederate cause. An incidental result was Johnston's dismissal from command in Georgia in 1864. Another was the later act of the Confederate Congress making Lee General-in-Chief, when he again called Johnston to active duty in the closing campaign of the great struggle.

An Epistle to Posterity: Being Rambling Recollections of Many Years of My Life. By M. E. W. Sherwood. Harper & Bros. 1897.

Mrs. Sherwood is entitled to have her letter read by posterity, if for no other reason, because of her great acquaintance. She literally has known everybody who has had any social existence in New York, and has enjoyed a very considerable international acquaintance besides. From Daniel Webster and Van Buren to the latest arrival from England, all notabilities have passed under her eye, and the result is, that the reader can find in her pages something or other about any noted character of whom he has heard. A great deal of the pleasure given by every such book of reminiscences consists in the fact that through it we obtain a glimpse of great people to whom we cannot by any possibility be introduced in the flesh. The earlier chapters of the book are the best, and bring back the education and adventures of a well-brought-up American girl sixty years since quite vividly. Contemporaries have frequently tried to give posterity an impression of the extraordinary effect produced by Webster's brow and eyes—Carlyle, if we remember right, among the number. Mrs. Sherwood tells a

story of a kitchen-maid whom Mrs. Webster could not reduce to submission. Webster said, "Send her to me." When she came in he simply looked at her, upon which she cried out: "Don't do that; don't do that. I will scrub the buttery."

As the account goes on, it becomes a little journalistic, suggesting a devotion on the part of the author to the gossip which pays; but why not? The author is not a critic, but a looker-on; and if she be professionally social, she always avoids the rôle of intruder or scandal-monger. Indeed, her tendency is to make out society better than it is, and she declares that "it has been a perpetual pleasure to me to see luxury march on with giant tread"—a much more wholesome frame of mind than that of Cynicus, who, after getting as much of the luxury as he can, denounces the age as wanting in simplicity, and scores fashion for not being frugal and wise. Mrs. Sherwood's last chapter shows that she knows exactly what fashion is. What it tends to be, she does not trouble herself much about. She says very frankly that it is a business, carried on for certain well-defined objects. It evidently differs from the business of manufacturing pig-iron or gas in the fact that it is not carried on to make money, but to spend it. In a city in which it is entirely divorced from serious pursuits, and is not the fashion of a court, or nobility, or governing class, it must, of course, have peculiarities of its own. Mrs. Sherwood very justly says that there is no royal road to fashionable life; that many are called, but fewer chosen; and that the tyranny of fashion is an inscrutable mystery—an observation which shows that she is much shrewder than any mere man like the late Ward McAllister, who undertook to explain it all, and merely succeeded in giving the erroneous impression that the whole affair was a sort of "continuous performance" carried on at so much a head, under his own supervision.

The Gun and its Development. By W. W. Greener. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Although the first edition of this book was issued in 1881, the present, which is the sixth, makes it practically a new work. Since 1881 so numerous and rapid have become the changes and improvements in firearms that the type of one year is superseded by that of the one that follows. In order, therefore, to keep in touch with the evolution of gunnery, a book treating of the art is necessarily subject to frequent revision. Mr. Greener is thoroughly alive to this fact, and in the latest edition of 'The Gun,' which is brought up to October 1, 1896, he tells of all that has been accomplished towards the perfection of small arms to that date. That the lapse of a single year necessitates still further revision, we have exemplified in the commencement, within a few weeks, of the issue to the German infantry of a new small-bore repeating rifle, of the mechanism of which no one outside the military establishment of Germany has accurate knowledge. Mr. Greener gives a cut of and describes the German army rifle; but that weapon is now in process of supersession by the later and possibly improved arm. Since 1872 this is the third rearmament of the German infantry.

So far, actual experience has not revealed that, apart from rapidity of fire, the modern army small-bore magazine rifle is any more destructive at close quarters than the old smooth-bore musket. During the present disturbances in India a body of fifty insurgents charged upon a small detachment of British infantry armed with the Lee-speed magazine rifle, from a distance of fifty yards. During the rush of the enemy over this limited space the English fired seven hundred shots; yet more than half of the insurgents reached, untouched, the British bayonets. It is the experience of the sportsman, and this fact is strongly emphasized by Mr. Greener, that for accurate marksmanship every gunner should have the stock of his weapon specially fitted, in length, bend, cast-off, and in the shape of the butt, to his physical conformation. To make accurate shooting possible through the use of the modern small-bore military rifle by bodies of infantry, the stock of the gun of each individual soldier should be fitted to him. Of course, this is impracticable. Were it practicable, the total of casualties would be far more in proportion to the immense power and rapidity of fire of the modern military small arm than we have evidence of, so far as it has been employed in actual conflict.

Since the issue of the first edition of Mr. Greener's work the perfecting of small arms has made enormous progress. This had its first impulse in 1870, from which time we may date the general use of the breech-loading system. Previous to 1795 there was no trustworthy method of ascertaining whether a gun-barrel was or was not perfectly straight. Some years ago a fine collection of guns made by the most famous mediæval gunsmiths were tested, and not a single one was discovered that possessed a straight barrel. In 1795 a method of straightening gun-barrels from the inside was perfected by a Birmingham mechanic. A few years later another plan was devised, called the shading process, which ever since has been generally employed. Prior to 1870, next to nothing was known of the art of gun-barrel boring. The principle was not thoroughly understood until choke-boring came into use. This completely obviated the defect that previously was almost universal with double-barrelled shot-guns, of the right-hand barrel shooting with more accuracy than the left one.

It is generally supposed that the marvellously perfect guns of to-day are in their inception the product of modern invention. There is no greater fallacy. All that our gunsmiths have contributed in the way of original discovery in the art of gunmaking is found in the process of straightening and accurate boring of gun-barrels, the automatic cartridge ejector, and the percussion system; to these may be added the discovery of nitro-explosive or smokeless powders, which have contributed largely to the effectiveness of modern firearms. Of military weapons an entirely modern and original conception is the automatic machine gun. The mechanism for loading and firing is, after the initial discharge, operated by the gases of the powder.

The breech-loading system, which at this day is universally adopted, was employed in cannon as early as 1388. The powder only, however, was inserted in the breech block or movable chamber; the projectile was inserted by way of the muzzle. Breech-loading small arms were in use at the time of Henry VIII. of England. A hunting arquebus on this system, used by that monarch, is in the Tower of London. They were also in common use in Germany early in the sixteenth century. Henry IV. of France is said to have invented a breech-loading arquebus with which some of his troops were armed. The revolver was in use at the time of Henry VIII. The magazine, multiple-charge or repeating gun was made in the first years of the seventeenth century. The hammerless gun was invented early in the last century. In the Paris Museum there is one, a breech-loader, of the date of 1779. The single-trigger device for two-barrelled pistols was in use in the last century. The choke-bore system, applied to shot-guns, was employed in France in 1781. This brief résumé reveals that our modern gunsmiths, with the exceptions noted, are mere adapters. They have simply brought to great mechanical perfection systems and devices that originated none less than a hundred years ago.

To those who are interested in the subject, Mr. Greener's clear, lucid, and exhaustive treatise, free from technicalities, will prove most instructive and entertaining. There are no omissions—not even that of a comprehensive and satisfactory index. Mr. Greener gives an historical review of small arms and cannon from the earliest times. He describes the systems and devices used in modern and ancient guns; the present methods of construction, the shooting capabilities of modern shot-guns, pistols, and rifles, and the various sorts of ammunition and accessories to make them effective. He also explains to the novice how to use the gun. The book is copiously illustrated with cuts that not only give the external appearance of the various weapons and accessories described, but include skeleton diagrams of the working or mechanical parts.

Marchesi and Music. By Mathilde Marchesi. Harpers. Pp. 301.

"Vanity, thy name is woman," is the thought which obtrudes itself like a headline on the reader's mind as he turns page after page of these memoirs of a teacher of singing. But then, had she not a right to be vain? True, she seems to have been a failure as a singer (though only her successes are recorded here), but did she not give more or less instruction to most of the prominent prima donnas of our time, from Di Murska, Gerster, and Nevada to Calvé, Melba, and Eames? And were not all the great composers of the time eager to know her, to write notes to her and motives in her album? To be sure, some composers have been so rude as not to agree with this great woman. Rubinstein once behaved in a very bearish manner (246-7) towards her, insisting, in his brutal way, that girls studying for the Russian stage should learn to sing in the Russian language. Of course she "did not share his views," being of the opinion that the Italian florid school which was popular in her youth is all that anybody needs. But Rubinstein's impertinence was nothing compared to the effrontery of Wagner, who, while conversing with her one day at Vienna, declared his opinion "that every voice should be at the composer's command." Mme. Marchesi retorted with crushing frankness that "the composer must take into consideration the compass of different voices, by which interpretation, pronunciation, and declamation must naturally benefit."

It is a pity that Mme. Marchesi should

have marred her book with her irrepressible conceit, and her vain doctrine that the antiquated art of florid song, which is mere technical skill, without ideas or emotions, is the only kind of song; for otherwise her book has some interesting things to commend it. In the course of a long professional career, when it was a sort of Parisian fad to study with her, she met many eminent musicians, and she tells about them in an entertaining way. All the Parisian composers frequented her studio—there is no doubt of that—and she also met the leading German and Italian masters, not all of recent date. Rossini, for instance, was one of "our dear friends" who wrote in her album and invited her to his house, where, however, she found things "neither interesting nor pleasant. There was never any music, nor was it ever mentioned. The prevailing tone in the salon of the hostess was stiff and formal in the extreme"; and no wonder, for Mme. Rossini troubled herself very little about her guests, but gave all her attention to her sick dog. She must have been an odious creature, this Mme. Rossini, for our author herself was a witness when, "at an evening party in their own house, she reproached a lady for having taken ices twice." Of Rossini's remarks to Mme. Marchesi, one is of special interest. He declared that he preferred low voices, and that "singers who use not only the *voce di testa* (head-voice), but also *voce di capelli* (hair-voice)"—by which he meant the high c sharp, D, E, and F—"these offend my ear."

Mendelssohn was another of the older composers whom Mme. Marchesi knew well. She often found him seated at a table helping his children with their lessons. When there was music *en famille*, he took sometimes the tenor, sometimes the bass parts. "He never spoke of himself and his works." In Paris she met Liszt's mother, whose famous son was naturally enough the sole theme of her conversation. At Weimar, afterwards, she saw a good deal of Liszt himself. She found him cosmopolitan in taste, the leading champion of Wagner, but also a great admirer of Rossini. Once she aroused the jealousy of the Princess von Wittgenstein because Liszt wanted to leave the Princess and accompany her to a rehearsal. We also get a glimpse of Meyerbeer, whose mother told Mme. Marchesi that when her son went to Vienna as a pianist, he made the acquaintance of Beethoven and Clementi, "but the presence of these eminent pianists made him so nervous that he announced that he had injured his hand, and, bandaging it, he rushed away from the city without playing a note."

Mme. Marchesi has had a number of American pupils. With the majority, she says, the main idea is to get famous in a hurry. When parents bring their daughters to her, they generally ask, "How long will you keep her?" or "Please make it as short as possible," or "What is my daughter's voice worth?" or "Will she learn as much as Patti?" Our author has some excellent remarks on charlatan teachers.

Hallucinations and Illusions: A Study of the Fallacies of Perception. By Edmund Parish. [Contemporary Science Series.] Scribner. 1897. 8vo, pp. 390.

Among the most important of recent works adverse to telepathy is this of Parish, the bulk of which has already appeared in German. Its main purpose is to propose and defend a theory of the cerebral physiology of hallucination. To read it critically requires some knowledge of the anatomy of the brain and some acquaintance with the Nancy doctrine of hypnotism. Even with that equipment it cannot be read rapidly. Of the theory itself, we shall merely say that it is the one which Occam's razor requires that science should thoroughly try first. It is likely enough eventually to be modified, but at present it cannot be refuted, and it is simpler than any other. It has the great advantage, from the investigator's point of view, of connecting abnormal hallucinations with dreams and the sensory deceptions of health, for we cannot take a step toward the explanation of any phenomena until we can bring them into continuous connection with common experience. There is no science of anything but the ordinary course of nature. The author finds that all fallacious perception—and he shows that hallucination is perception—requires for its occurrence a state of *dissociation*; that is to say, a "state in which the nerve-stimulus no longer flows through the channels determined by habit and by the coöperation of simultaneous stimuli, because inhibitions or obstructions, whether from pathological or physiological causes, have been set up in the normal association-paths, or obstructions which normally exist in other connecting tracts have been weakened or altogether abolished." Such is a half-waking condition. Former writers distinguished between "illusions," or fallacious perceptions, and "hallucinations," which were supposed to be creations of the brain. But Mr. Parish argues that there are no hallucinations, in this sense. He gives the name hallucination to those deceptions which arise from a nervous discharge through an unusual channel, or, as he says, "by an act of forced association" (he uses association in the German sense, for the actual discharge of one centre upon another, not in the English sense, for the habit which regulates such a discharge). He restricts the term illusion to cases in which there is a lack of correction or adjustment of a perception owing to the blocking of an association-path.

If by telepathy be meant any mode of communication not generally recognized, then Mr. Parish, who believes people can communicate subconsciously at some distance by whispering with the mouth shut (according to the experiments of Hansen and Lehmann), may be reckoned as a supporter of telepathy. But if it means more than that, then it is contrary to Mr. Parish's contention that all hallucinations and illusions are to be explained by his theory. He is, therefore, led to devote a long chapter to the examination of the evidences of telepathy, wherein are contained some cogent objections.

Granting that the only mental causation is in reality physiological and cerebral, and granting that one molecule of nerve-substance acts upon another by attraction at a distance, we substantially admit a sort of telepathy for distances of that order. But were there so great stress of mind upon mind that one man's soul could cause a gross and vivid hallucination in another's, many miles away, one would think that within the enclosure of one skull nerve-fibres would hardly be needed. Still, it may be the telepathists are right. It would not be at all surprising to anybody who fairly estimates how much and how little science has yet won, to find some day that there were more things in heaven and earth than even *our* philosophy dreams of. But then there is no course for science to pursue but patiently to trudge on step after step, picking her way. She must admit new agencies when they have to be admitted, but not before.

On Blue Water. By Edmondo de Amicis. Translated by Jacob B. Brown. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Those who enjoy descriptions of the scenery of the ocean will find some splendid examples of "word-painting" in this book. The author not only has the eye of an artist, but is also a master of language, to say nothing of his gift of poetical imagination. So far as the translation is concerned, however it may be in respect of fidelity, it is eminently praiseworthy in its results. The English is perfect, but with just that suggestion of Italian which gives piquancy, like the foreign accent which one often finds so agreeable in the speech of well-educated persons who have acquired our language.

Descriptions of the shapes of the clouds and the hues of the ocean, however, are not to be described, nor is it worth while to quote from them, even if they are exceptionally magnificent. In this case they come in naturally as incidents of the voyage, and there we may leave them. There are other descriptions in the book less pleasing, indeed, but more instructive. The author appears to have made the voyage from Genoa to Buenos Ayres in the steamer *Galileo*, in company with a few cabin passengers and fifteen hundred emigrants in the steerage, simply to observe human nature. Nearly the whole of the book is taken up with studies of character, slight, but extremely clever. So far as his cabin companions are concerned, his sketches are entertaining enough, but with one exception they arouse no deep emotion. But "the young lady from Mestre," in the grasp of death, but spending what was left to her of strength in deeds of mercy and sympathy, is too beautiful and pathetic a figure to fade quickly from the reader's memory. She seems, in truth, to purify the whole atmosphere of the ship, which would otherwise be disgusting enough. For it is the wretched emigrants that, after all, figure chiefly in the book. Loathsome from disease, from poverty, from toil; most loathsome from moral degradation and uncurbed passions—the author yet takes them to his heart in generous and patriotic sympathy. Victims of numberless ages of grinding oppression, even now hardly less cruel than formerly; condemned to starvation whether they toil or not—how is it possible to judge their ignorance and feebleness harshly! Their very hilarity distresses the author by its thoughtlessness, and, as he watches the forlorn procession leaving the ship, he cries out with shame:

"Endless, most pitiful! Family after family, children and yet more children; city faces and country faces, from northern Italy, from southern Italy; good honest creatures, brigands, invalids, ascetics, old soldiers, beggars, rebels, passing ever faster and faster, as if urged by the dread of not reaching America in time to get their bit of bread and their strip of earth. And at the back of all this grievous misery, imagination held up to me, as in mockery, the patriotic rejoicings of the idle, the prosperous, and the unthinking, as they shout with holiday enthusiasm on the banner-dressed and glittering squares of Italy. I felt a humiliation

which made me shun the regard of foreigners who were on the ship with me, and whose affected exclamations of pity and surprise were only so many reproaches to my country. And still those ragged garments, those white hairs, those withered women, those children without a country, that nakedness, that shame, that misery kept filing on."

And yet this pitiful horde forgot everything, in the very moment of disembarking, to murmur to their angelic benefactress, "the young lady from Mestre," greetings in which there seemed to go out to her "all the good and all the purity which the bitterness and sorrow of a toilsome existence" had left in them.

German Orthography and Phonology: A Treatise with a Word-List. By George Hempl, Ph.D., Professor of English Philology and General Linguistics in the University of Michigan. Boston: Ginn & Co.

This manual meets a want that has long been felt alike by teachers and by students of the German language. Only too often in reading aloud they find that they do not know how to pronounce a proper name or a word of foreign origin, or are at a loss on what syllable or word to place the stress; in many cases, too, the teacher is unable, from lack of proper training in phonetics, to define the true character of a sound. On all these points, and on many more, the necessary information can be obtained from this book.

It is fortunate that a man of Prof. Hempl's scholarship has undertaken the work, which required a complete mastery, not only of the German language and its history, but also of phonology. As a matter of course, the author has made use of all the important books on his subject, and is to be commended highly for having taken such pains in collecting material from different sources and making it, as the Germans say, *mundgerecht.* Prof. Hempl has also added a considerable amount of original work, which entitles the book to a high rank among publications of this kind. Especial mention should be made of the chapters on Word-Stress and Sentence-Stress. Another subject not usually treated in grammars is the development of German type, and to this the author devotes a whole chapter. Here are traced the various influences which have brought about changes in the styles of printed and written characters—changes which are amply illustrated by examples.

Everywhere the author has aimed at completeness; thus, in the matter of orthography, he has not confined himself to the so-called Prussian system, but discusses also the official orthography of Austria and Switzerland, and enumerates the principal deviations. In his word-list we find that the pronunciation of no one province has been preferred to that of any other, but wherever differences exist they have been noted. For the phonetic transcription of the words, Prof. Hempl has had to make use of a rather elaborate system, the key to which looks somewhat forbidding. The learner can, however, with some effort master this difficulty, which was unavoidable, since the author's object was to reproduce the words precisely as they are spoken. This word-list has not yet appeared in full, but may shortly be expected, together with a complete index, by which the value of the present volume will be further enhanced.

There are some points of minor importance on which one may differ with the author. In a few cases it might have been better to be a little more explicit. For instance, the average reader can hardly be expected to know what the "Sabellic" and "Venetic" alphabets are. In other cases too much space, perhaps, is given to a subject. One may also doubt whether the expression "mutated vowels" (in place of the time-honored "modified vowels") will meet with final acceptance. But these trifling matters by no means impair the value of the book, which is sure to become indispensable to students of the German language, and they ought to be grateful to Prof. Hempl for his assiduous and scholarly labors. Thanks are also due to the publishers, who have produced a book which, with its beautiful reproductions of types and in its whole make-up, is a credit to American printing.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, Mary M. The Choir Visible. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.50.
Adderley, James. Paul Mercier: A Story of Repentance among Millions. Edward Arnold. $1.25.
Bacon, Commander R. H. Benin, the City of Blood. Edward Arnold. $2.
Barton, W. E. Sim Galloway's Daughter-in-Law. Boston: Pilgrim Press.
Bishop, Mrs. Isabella Bird. Korea and her Neighbors. F. H. Revell Co. $2.
Briscoe, Margaret S. Jimty, and Others. Harpers. $1.50.
Columbia Verse, 1892-1897. W. B. Harrison.
Commelin, Anna O. Not in It. Fowler & Wells. $1.
Crockett, Rev. W. D. A Harmony of Samuel, Kings, and Chronicles. New York: Eaton & Mains. $2.
D'Alviella, Comte Goblet. Ce que l'Inde doit à la Grèce. Paris: Leroux.
Edridge-Green, F. W. Memory and its Cultivation. Appletons. $1.50.
Elton, Emily D. A Mince Pie Dream. E. R. Herrick & Co. $1.25.
Fisher, S. G. Men, Women, and Manners in Colonial Times. 2 vols. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.
Fuller, Hulbert. Vivian of Virginia. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.75.
Gray, Maxwell. Sweethearts and Friends. Appletons. $1.
Greene, Waverly. George Forest. G. W. Dillingham Co. 50c.
Haines, H. S. American Railway Management. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: John Wiley & Sons. $2.50.
Handbook to Christian and Ecclesiastical Rome. Part II. The Liturgy in Rome. London: A. & C. Black.
Loyd, Lady Mary. New Letters of Napoleon I. Appletons. $2.
Mackie, Pauline B. Mademoiselle de Berny: A Story of Valley Forge. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.50.
Protestant Episcopal Almanac and Parochial List. Whittaker. 25c.
Seawell, Miss M. E. The Rock of the Lion. Harpers. $1.50.
The Century. May-Oct., 1897. Century Co.
The Little Dame and the Wild Animals. 2d ed. Baltimore: Williams & Wilkins.
The Tragedy of Hamlet. With Illustrations by H. C. Christy. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.
Thwaites, R. G. Afloat on the Ohio: An Historical Pilgrimage. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.50.
Trine, R. W. In Tune with the Infinite. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Vose, Rev. J. G. Children's Day Addresses. Boston: Pilgrim Press.
Vuillier, Gaston. A History of Dancing. Illustrated. Appletons. $12.
Wallace, Lew. The Wooing of Malkatoon. Commodus. Illustrated. Harpers. $2.50.
Wilson, J. Self-Control; or, Life without a Master. Newark, N. Y.: Courier Publishing House; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.

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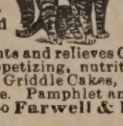

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 30, 1897.

The Week.

The spectacle of 50,000 operatives in New England cotton mills confronting a 10 per cent. reduction of wages is not a cheerful one for the holiday season, and it furnishes the occasion for a great deal of very serious discussion. Such a cut-down would attract no little attention from the general public at any time, and it cannot fail to provoke an animated controversy as to the influence of legislation in the matter, coming as it does so soon after the passage of a tariff law which was vouched for as the promoter of prosperity. There is no doubt whatever that other influences than the tariff have been the controlling factors in causing action which the manufacturers would avoid if they possibly could, but the Manchester *Union* points out one little considered effect of such legislation which has long been operative. It declares with a conviction which seems to be born of knowledge, that "for years New England cotton-spinners have hidden behind a protective tariff, and by its aid have been able to make large profits out of poor goods, poor work, and antiquated, wasteful methods of business"; whereas the time has at last come when they find their market invaded by Southern rivals against whose superior natural advantages no tariff can be framed. Dependence upon the tariff has really weakened the New England manufacturers, and they must now face a new situation without that confidence and readiness which is cultivated by self-reliance.

It is very significant that the labor organizations of the country are throwing their influence against the annexation of Hawaii. An earnest protest against the scheme was recently made by this element in California, and since then the American Federation of Labor has shown that workingmen throughout the land sympathize in this respect with those on the Pacific Coast. The Federation adopted a resolution disapproving of annexation on the ground that it "would be tantamount to the admission of a slave State, the representatives of which would necessarily work and vote for the enslavement of labor in general"; urging the Senate to reject the treaty, and take such other steps as may be necessary to maintain amicable relations with Hawaii; and providing that the executive council shall present these views to Congress, and, if necessary, to the President. Such a pronunciamiento from such a source will have much weight with politicians who have no pronounced convictions on the subject, especially with the members of the House, if the treaty shall fail and the scheme shall be pushed by joint resolution. A Representative who sees no particular reason for annexing Hawaii anyway will easily be persuaded to oppose the project if "organized labor" in his district is ready to fight a Congressman who favors the creation of what it considers likely to be "a slave State."

Secretary Gage has written a letter to Mr. Samuel Gompers, President of the American Federation of Labor, in reply to some silly resolutions passed by that body at its meeting in Nashville, declaring their opposition to the "Gage financial bill," the effect of which, they say, would be to "rivet the gold standard on the people of the country and perpetuate its disastrous effects in every form." The Secretary alludes first to the fact that the gold standard has been riveted on the country for more than sixty years, and that it would be more to the purpose to show how it has been disastrous than to denounce people who think that it has been beneficial. Mr. Gage declines to be put in a category different from that of his fellow-citizens generally, including wage-workers, because he happens to hold an economic opinion different from that held by this Nashville meeting. He insists that the standard of value which is best for all the people is the best for himself, so that the only real question to be considered is whether these Nashville delegates, or the whole Federation of Labor, is more likely to be right in its economic opinion than Mr. Gage. Not arrogating to himself any superiority in this respect, although experience and training might give him some claim of that sort, he affirms that majorities cannot decide what is best in matters of finance, since the opinions of any mass of men cannot be superior to those of the wisest man among them. And so he unhorses the Gompers crowd completely if we can suppose that they were ever horsed, and he does this without using a hard word or indulging in the smallest sarcasm.

A brief speech made by Senator Hoar of Massachusetts just before the holiday recess deserves more attention than it has received. The old question had been again raised whether alcohol used in the arts ought to be taxed about 1,300 per cent., as now, and the suggestion that this tax should be removed had brought out the fact that such a change would probably decrease the revenues about $10,000,000 a year. Mr. Hoar pointed out that here was a class of manufacturers engaged in a most beneficent industry who are likely to be driven out of their foreign business—at any rate to have it largely curtailed—because, almost alone of the manufacturing industries of this country, they are taxed 1,300 per cent. on their material; and he maintained that, "when we confront that condition of things, we are entitled to have some other reasons than a statement that we want the money." He proceeded to show that an additional tax of a dollar a barrel on beer would remove all the financial trouble in the matter of deficit, and that the brewing industry could easily stand the added tax. He added this frank confession of why the tax will not be laid:

> "We do not dare to compel that industry to pay a reasonable and proper tax, because we are afraid of the political power the brewers will exert, determining the political power in this country between different political parties."

When the dispatches from Havana and Madrid speak of setting up immediately the new autonomous government in Cuba, it is important to understand just what is meant. It is not meant that the farce of a popular election is at once to be gone through, nor that any simulacrum of parliamentary government is to be set up. It is only a temporary and transitional rule that is to be instituted. This is based upon one of the supplementary articles of the plan of autonomy itself. It provides that the Governor-General, whenever he thinks the moment opportune, may appoint, with the consent of the home Government, the members of his cabinet, and "with them conduct the government of Cuba until the establishment of the insular parliament." Doubtless no other approach to the form of autonomy could be made, with the island distracted and ravaged as it now is; but it should be understood that it is autonomy in its lowest terms that is to be tried first.

Great Britain has refused to coerce Canada, at the request of the United States (or, rather, at that of John W. Foster), into discontinuing pelagic sealing. Lord Salisbury informs our Ambassador that England has very little direct interest in the affair, and that, as the Canadians who are interested are unwilling to enter into any such arrangement, he should not be justified in agreeing to the proposals of the United States. Except making another face at England, we do not see that we have any remedy. We can forbid our own citizens to take seals on the high seas, but if we want to get the Canadians to stop it we must make it an object to them to do so—that is, we must agree to a general commission to settle all differences, including Dingleyism, as Sir

Wilfrid Laurier proposed. As for putting an end to pelagic sealing by Americans, it is high time we set about it if we may believe Mr. Hitt's awful stories about renegade American sealers.

There seems to be no reason to doubt that, as a result of the proceedings of the commission to settle the Bering Sea claims, lately sitting in Boston, the damages we shall have to pay the Canadians will be at least $500,000. This is only what was to have been expected. It is only what was said by responsible Senators and Representatives when Congress rejected with contumely Secretary Gresham's arrangement to settle the whole thing out of hand for a lump sum of $425,000. The proper committees in both houses advocated that settlement. It would be speedy and, being a compromise, it would certainly be cheaper than an award made according to strict legal right. But the headstrong House, under the spurring of Mr. Hitt, refused to vote the money. The sum was too large; some of it would go to renegade Americans (Oh, Liberty and the Eagle!); anyhow, we didn't have to pay it yet; even if we had to pay more in the end, we should have had the pleasure of making the Canadians wait, and have kept up our reputation of being bad losers and ugly customers in international quarrels. What perhaps most influenced the House was Mr. Hitt's assertion that our laws forbade pelagic sealing, and how then could we pay damages to Americans masquerading as Canadians? That no such law existed, save in the statute-book of his imagination, he has himself now had to confess by bringing forward and passing such an enactment in the present Congress. So he has learned something; but it must be said that when it costs the country $75,000 to $100,000 to educate one Congressman about one law, free schools are not what they seem.

Opinions continue to differ as to who caused the great advance in wheat this year. Some time ago, when prices were moving up on the eve of last year's Presidential election, Mr. Bryan explained that the tricky Money Power was doing it all, so as to delude the farmers into voting for the Republican party. The chairman of the Pennsylvania Republican committee boldly affirms that the thirty or forty-cent rise this season was merely a Christmas present of the Republican Administration to the Pennsylvania farmers. On the other hand, Mr. L. Z. Leiter of Chicago says his boy did it—that at any rate the youngster has added fifteen cents a bushel to the world's price of wheat, and is "a benefactor of the agricultural industries of the country to that extent." We must confess our inability to discriminate between these rival claimants—that is, if they may properly be called rivals. Mr. Bryan's theory is still available, of course, and that profound economist and statesman, we presume, regards the pending discussion as confirmation of his own views of 1896. The Republican party is again the end, and young Mr. Leiter, representing, of course, the Money Power, is the means. What puzzles us, however, is the motive either of the party or of the Power in advancing wheat at this stage of the game. The elections of 1897 are over; why, then, waste resources now? Why not rather wait until, say, October, 1898, and then try the brilliant *coup de main* of a fifty-cent advance in wheat before election day?

The solid legal bulwark which Platt has erected around his machine was strengthened by an additional court decision last week. A motion for an injunction against one of his district primaries, on the ground that the legal requirements had not been observed by the Platt managers of it, was denied by Judge Beekman, who held that, under the decision of the Court of Appeals, which we have quoted recently, the matter was one with which the courts could not interfere, the regularly constituted party authorities having absolute power to determine such matters. That is to say, under the election laws of the State, the party machine is the final court of appeals in all questions relating to primaries and conventions, and since Platt is absolute boss of his party machine, he is himself the fountain of its primary law. The absurdity of attempting a reform of his primaries by going into them is too obvious to need comment. Reputable Republicans have become so generally convinced of it that not a man of them has been deluded into those primaries this year, and for the first time since he was boss Platt stands alone with his own kind. This is a great step in advance, whatever may be the result of the present very formidable effort to create an opposition organization.

There seems to be no doubt that the incoming Croker administration has made up its mind to attempt to get possession of the Board of Education almost immediately after taking office. Its legal advisers have found what they consider a loophole in the new charter through which they can enter upon their scheme. In one section of the charter, that relating to the Mayor's power of removal, it is expressly stipulated that he shall not have power to remove members of the Board of Education during the first six months of his term, the period in which he is permitted to remove all other heads of departments. This stipulation is conclusive evidence of the intent of the framers of the charter to have this board continued without sudden change in its complexion. The Tammany seekers for "places" have discovered in another section, that relating to the composition of a new school board for the enlarged city, a phrase which they hope will enable them to get rid of seven members of the present New York board, and have Mayor Van Wyck put as many good Tammany men in their places, thus giving Tammany a majority. This phrase is, "The Board of Education, *as constituted prior to the passage of this act.*" The Tammany contention is that the seven members appointed by Mayor Strong since the passage of the act on May 5 last, will be not legally in office under the new city government, since they cannot be said to be a part of the board as constituted on May 5. It is an obvious quibble, but Tammany proposes to take its chances on having it sustained by the courts. The fact that it is able to make it, is the first notable instance we have had of the slipshod workmanship of the new charter. We shall have more of these as time advances, for the instrument is full of contradictions and inconsistencies which will furnish a fruitful field for litigation.

Mr. Croker's determination to have a club with nothing but simon-pure Tammany Democrats in it is commendable. He says he does not enjoy himself in the society of Democrats with Mugwump tendencies, and, that being the case, he ought to supply himself with a club free from such annoying persons, especially as he is willing and able to pay all the necessary expenses of obtaining select society. What he has in mind clearly is the establishment of a Croker court in this city, on the lines of the one which has given him so much genuine enjoyment at Lakewood. It will come high, but he must have it. The existing club upon which he has fixed his favor has $200,000 of debt, and was recently thinking of closing up and selling out. Of the debt, Croker says, as Webster said of his debt, "Let it be paid!" Unlike Webster, however, he will see to it that the money is forthcoming. The club-house was said to be too small. "Put three or four stories on top of it," says the King. The membership is not large enough to pay running expenses. "Increase it to 1,000 or 1,500," says the King. These things were said one day, the next the thing was done. Tammany men are falling over one another in their eagerness to get into the court club-house, to help pay its debt, and to aid in lifting its roof. "We shall have," says one of them, "the finest cuisine in the city." Nothing is said about the bar, but it should be the longest in the city, even if the club-house has to be deepened as well as heightened. The statesmen of the court must have agreeable lounging-room while discussing the science of government.

The municipal elections in Massachusetts, which have strung along through the month and ended with the voting in Boston on December 21, have been characterized by an unusual relaxation of party bonds. A Governor of the State was chosen in November, but whether a city went Republican or Democratic then had little to do with the way it would go in the choice of a Mayor in December. In many places, citizens' candidates were put in the field on purely local issues, and these issues were the only ones which cut any figure in the canvass. Boston reversed its position, so far as national politics entered into the contest, between early November and the 21st of December, a plurality for the Republican candidate for Governor seven weeks before being supplanted by a plurality of about 4,000 for the Democratic Mayor, Josiah Quincy, who was running for reëlection. The Republicans had a good candidate, and the hopes which they based upon the success of their party last month were strengthened by an attempted division of the Democrats through the nomination of a silver man. This candidate was a loud-mouthed politician, who drew great crowds of apparently sympathetic hearers whenever he spoke, but he polled less than 3,000 votes, as against over 40,000 for Mr. Quincy. Another proof is thus afforded of the deceptiveness of large audiences and noisy "enthusiasm."

Foreign trade is now the life of England, and must be protected and fostered at all hazards. Though not so immediately vital to Russia, with her vast territory to draw upon for supplies, it is yet no doubt mainly a question of trade with her, too, in the Chinese embroilment. Her aims are partly military and strategic, to be sure, but her railroad interests in Mantchuria, the rapid pushing of Russian merchants into North China, the concessions Russian subjects are obtaining for mining and for exploiting natural resources in every conceivable way—all point to commercial expansion rather than military glory or the acquisition of more territory as the main object. Germany frankly confesses that her seizure of Kiao-Chau Bay is for purposes of trade. The trading interests of France in South China are what has started the French men-of-war from Toulon. The Jingoes in this country who have souls so very far above trade, ought to take heart when they see four fleets put to sea purely in the interests of commerce.

This is undoubtedly the only aspect of the threatened partition of China which directly concerns the United States. We have treaty privileges and trade relations in China which it is the business of the State Department to see that no readjustment of Chinese affairs shall impair. With that our duty in the matter begins and ends. It is not for us either to protest against the seizure of Chinese territory or to prevent it. If our treaties are taken over intact, as they should be, by any Power assuming sovereignty in China, that is all we need ask. Incidentally, we may be led to see the reasonableness of Japan's request that we should take over her treaty with Hawaii, if we annexed that country and extinguished her sovereignty. We observe that Senator Morgan, who was ready to snap his fingers at the Japanese contention, now proposes to make war on all Europe unless our similar contention in China is respected. The feelings of the Chinese in all this, of course, have nothing to do with the case. They are not even to be given their choice of the way they will be cut up. All that is expected of them is to be still, and send in immense orders for foreign goods. They may plead poverty. They may say that three yards of cotton cloth per capita is enough to satisfy their wildest dreams of luxury. No matter for that; they are there to trade like fury, and trade they must, or else the desires and expectations of four powerful European nations will be disappointed, which would be absurd.

An address was delivered by the Rt. Hon. Leonard H. Courtney before the Royal Statistical Society in London on the 14th inst. on "Jevons's Coal Question, Thirty Years After." Thirty years or more ago Prof. Stanley Jevons published a book entitled 'The Coal Question,' which created no little excitement at the time, affirming that English manufacturing and commercial supremacy was due mainly to her coal deposits; that these deposits were exhaustible, and that they would probably be so far reduced within a century that the commercial supremacy which Great Britain then enjoyed would cease. He did not say that the mines would be exhausted or the country ruined, but that her commercial superiority would come to an end. No matter what might be done in the way of new inventions, in which other nations would share equally, the supremacy of England would depart with the cheapness and abundance of her coal. The subject of Mr. Courtney's discourse was a review of Prof. Jevons's treatise and a comparison of facts then existing with those now known. Thirty of the one hundred years within which Prof. Jevons believed that the end of British supremacy would come, have passed. Do we find any indication that his predictions are in the way of fulfilment? At the time when he wrote, the output of British coal mines (then 100,000,000 tons per annum) was increasing at the rate of 3½ per cent. per annum. If the rate of increase should continue till the year 1896, it would reach 278,000,000 tons. But in fact it was only 195,000,000 tons. Jevons did not say that it would continue to increase at the former rate, but that, notwithstanding all that science and invention might do to economize its use, there would still be some increase. The output seems to have nearly doubled in thirty years. Yet the money price of coal has not increased since Jevons wrote, but has fallen from 8s. 9d. to 7s. 2d. per ton. In some coal fields (notably in Shropshire, Cheshire, Staffordshire, Worcestershire, and Gloucestershire) there has been a decrease of output.

"The source of great danger to our industrial supremacy which Jevons detected lay in the United States," says Mr. Courtney. What do the statistics of coal production show? In the year when Jevons wrote, the output here was 24,000,000 tons. In 1896 it was 170,000,000 tons, or only 25,000,000 tons less than England's. The price at the pit's mouth in England was 6s. 6d.; in the United States it was the equivalent of 4s. 8d. Still more was Jevons concerned with the iron trade of Great Britain. "Expanding as it does," he said, "the iron manufacture must soon burn out the vitals of the country, and it is possible that there are those now living who will see the end of the export of crude iron." The maximum of British exports of iron of all sorts was reached in 1882 (4,354,000 tons). In 1896 it was 3,550,000 tons, although the decline of export was accompanied by a decline of price. The production of pig iron in the United States now exceeds that of Great Britain in the ratio of 6 to 5, while our production of steel is double that of Great Britain. In fact, England is now a considerable importer of steel from this country. These facts point to an early dispute in neutral markets by the United States in the supply of all kinds of iron, and after that of other things as well. Mr. Courtney considers at some length the question what will the English people do, or what will happen to them, when their commercial supremacy passes away. One thing must happen: population cannot increase at the same rate as heretofore. There will be more emigration, perhaps more deaths, certainly fewer births. There will be a transition of industries, the nature of which cannot be predicted. Yet Mr. Courtney concludes that "the constant progress of invention, the increasing facilities of transport, and the progressive subdivision of labor all tend to make the conditions of existence easier; and it may be found possible to support without difficulty, after a decline in our mining and manufacturing supremacy, a population which had come into existence under the impulse of a prosperity which will have waned if it has not entirely passed away."

TERMS OF CUBAN AUTONOMY.

The full Spanish text of the new home-rule constitution for Cuba has at last reached this country, and its details do not in all respects bear out the telegraphed summary. As Congress and the country, at President McKinley's suggestion, are now waiting to see if Cuba will accept this autonomous government, and if it will bring peace to her distraught inhabitants, and as, therefore, the question of peace or war between Spain and the United States may turn on the terms of this proposed Cuban home rule, it is of obvious importance to know what those terms are.

A defect, or danger, in the form of this grant of autonomy at once confronts the reader. It is made by royal decree, bearing date November 25, 1897. This is a legal procedure when the Cortes are not sitting, but it requires the subsequent approval of the Cortes. But this approval may not be given, and then the whole edifice would fall to the ground. This peril is recognized in the expository portion of the document, when Prime Minister Sagasta regrets the necessity of resorting to the royal decree, but expresses the hope that public opinion will support him, and that "the sanction of the Cortes" will be given in due time. If the plan works well, if the Liberals can keep their heads above water, the sanction will no doubt be forthcoming when the Cortes are summoned; but if not, not. It would also appear that the Cortes retain the right at any time to repeal or amend the Cuban Constitution at their own pleasure. At the outset, therefore, one sees how far the grant of home rule to Cuba is from being secure and unconditional. It is, in fact, very much like our boasted home rule in New York city—subject to constant interference, or even absolute repeal, by the Legislature.

Nor can one read far in the provisions of the decree without seeing that the sovereignty of Spain in Cuba is intended to mean something widely different from the sovereignty of England in Canada. It is to be not only an acknowledged sovereignty, but an active and controlling sovereignty. This is, in truth, frankly avowed by Sagasta. His first concern, he declares, has been to draw a constitution which should "affirm and strengthen the bond of sovereignty." The "central authority," he adds, has been "in no wise lessened or weakened." Inspection of the chapters relating to the colonial legislature, judiciary, and finance will show that this confidence is not misplaced.

First of all comes the enormous power conferred upon the Governor-General, who is to be named by the home Government. He has the right to summon, to adjourn, or to dissolve the Colonial Parliament. He has a suspensory veto over its legislation. He has in his hands all the patronage of the public service. He is Commander-in-chief of the army and navy, and has absolute control even of the police. He has the power of naming life members in the Upper Chamber, or "Council of Administration." He has the right to propose laws in the Colonial Parliament. He has the right and duty, in certain specified emergencies, to make himself dictator, and to govern the island without reference to the laws passed by the Colonial Parliament.

As if this were not enough, care has been taken in the composition of the Colonial Parliament to make sure that it shall never escape from Spanish control. The House of Representatives is to be composed of members elected by universal suffrage, one for each 25,000 inhabitants. But of concurrent powers with this chamber is the Council of Administration, numbering thirty-five members. Of these, eighteen are to be elected by a limited suffrage, and seventeen are to be appointed by the Governor-General. But the seventeen are to be life members, while the eighteen are to go out, one-half every five years, or in entirety whenever the Governor-General thinks fit to dissolve the Council. When one takes in the fact that this body, so controlled, has as much authority in legislation, even in financial legislation, as the House of Representatives, a curiously hollow echo seems to make itself heard in Cuban autonomy.

Further to buttress Spanish supremacy, the control of the judiciary is entirely reserved to the home Government. This is highly important, because all the conflicts of interpretation, all the disputes about rights and privileges, under the new Constitution, are to be referred to the tribunals; and these are to be exclusively filled with Spanish judges. The right to make treaties of commerce affecting Cuba is also reserved to the home Government. In form, the Colonial Parliament is to have the right to enact a Cuban tariff, but in effect this grant is so hedged about in ways already indicated, and by special provisions requiring duties to discriminate in favor of Spanish products, that it really amounts to little or nothing. As for the public debt, including the present war debt, its apportionment between Cuba and Spain is to be made wholly by the Spanish Cortes.

In the face of these critical features of the home-rule scheme for Cuba, it is useless to discuss the amount of local control of local affairs that really is given, or seems to be given. The great essentials of government are kept strictly within the grasp of Spain; the rest may be a pretty plaything, but it does not count. Señor Moret, the Minister for the Colonies, who is supposed to have drawn this Cuban Constitution, is a man who has lived in England and has made a study of English colonial legislation. References to British examples of colonial government appear in the expository part of his work. But he puts aside English models in favor of a form which is "characteristic of the system of Spain." There is his fatal vice. Despite what he himself calls the "immense calamities (*immensas tristezas*) of our colonial history," he adheres to the system which has been their chief cause, and offers a form of autonomy which, even if put forward in perfect good faith, even if operated with the best intentions, could prove only a mockery and a source of fresh disaster to the Cubans.

SOUTHERN CURRENCY OPINIONS.

We have already commented on the bankers' convention held at Atlanta, Ga., on the 15th of the present month, and have expressed the belief that it would prove potent for good in the coming contest for sound money. Our belief was based on the fact that the banking fraternity in the South has never been exposed to any rancorous animosity among the people of that section such as is said to exist against the same class in the trans-Mississippi region, but is respected and deferred to in a marked degree by people in other walks of life. This fact has been corroborated by the tone of the Southern press since the convention adjourned. Among the comments which have fallen under our notice, we select those of two characteristic newspapers, the Macon *Telegraph* and the Atlanta *Constitution*. But before examining them we will advert once more to the ideas advanced by the convention itself. It is true that nothing was said about the single gold standard, but, on the other hand, nothing was said about silver at 16 to 1; and, since everybody in the South is supposed to be dying for this, the latter omission must be considered tantamount to condemnation. The whole drift and purport of the resolutions looked to the improvement of the currency, and the final settlement of it by business instead of political methods, by banknotes instead of Government notes, by commercial instead of legislative action. "Take the banking business out of politics; take the Government out of the banking business." Nothing could be more practical or less ambiguous than these two demands. "Avoid the expense and dangers attendant on Government issues by the retirement and cancellation of the greenbacks and Treasury notes of 1890, by the substitution of banknotes." Such a declaration five years ago would have taken the breath away from all Southern politicians, with two or three exceptions. It would, we are obliged to confess, make many Northern ones gasp to-day.

To our surprise, we find an article in the Atlanta *Constitution*, more than a column long, under the caption "A Long Step Forward," commending the action

of the convention as a whole. Although it does not approve of the retirement of the greenbacks, it considers that a minor matter in comparison with the reform of banking methods by the substitution of circulating notes based on assets of the banks instead of Government bonds. This it calls "the Democratic plan of currency reform," a claim which we shall not call in question if it supplants the Bryan plan of silver at 16 to 1.

The Macon *Telegraph* adopts a more positive tone. It says that the bankers' convention represented the business interests of the entire South, and that there is practical unanimity among those interests in sustaining the Atlanta resolutions. The only opposition to them is among the unthinking classes and the politicians who pander to them. These men, although they make more noise than any others, do not represent the moving forces of the South. The following paragraph from its article is full of encouragement:

> "The report is abroad that the South is all on fire for free-silver repudiation. The truth is, among the intelligent business classes—among those who have no political aspirations or inclination—the man on fire for free silver can scarcely be found. No; the man on fire for free silver—if he is well informed—is apt to be on fire with a consuming desire for an office. We say this with due regard and consideration for that large class of editors and other people who have struggled to acquiesce for the sake of regularity, and who have at last nearly convinced themselves that perhaps it will be best to accept this rather than to fly to other evils."

The Galveston *News*, another important Southern journal, welcomes the Atlanta resolutions, which, in the opinion of its editors, "show that banking as a science must be founded in America as in other commercial nations upon the same fundamental principles, which have no reference to the rise or fall of political parties."

The significance of these comments resides in the fact that it is not impossible to detach the Democratic party of the South from the free-silver issue and bring it back to its ancient moorings, in which case it would have the fairest prospects of success in the next Presidential election. When the party planted itself on the bastard issue of "16 to 1," it threw away the States of New York, New Jersey, Connecticut, and Maryland in order to grasp the votes of the trans-Missouri States. Perhaps New York would have been lost in 1896 in either event, seeing that the panic of 1893 and the subsequent hard times had taken place during a Democratic administration. But the situation is considerably altered now. The prevailing ideas of the panic and hard times of Mr. Cleveland's term of office have changed. The fact that those troubles had their origin in the Harrison administration, and merely took effect, like a dose of slow poison, in the succeeding term, is now pretty well understood and appreciated. Add to this the unpopularity and brazenness of the Dingley tariff and its predestined failure to produce the required revenue, and we have abundant reason to predict that New York and the other Eastern States would go back to the Democratic column if the Democratic party should go back to its old platform. But if we are to have free coinage at 16 to 1 for the leading issue in 1900, those States will be just as impervious to Bryanism as they were last year. The congressional elections of next year may show a Democratic majority, because sober-minded people will take some risks in an off year, and the opponents of Dingleyism will indulge themselves in the privilege of giving it a blow when the consequences will not be fatal. But no such risk will be taken in the presence of a mortal struggle. The majority against Bryan or any Bryanite will be just as great in these States in the next Presidential election as it was in the last one.

How will it be in other parts of the country? The improved condition of business in the West, due to good crops and high prices of grain, points to a loss rather than a gain of votes for the free-coinage party in those States which are not immediately interested in silver mining. It is not probable that the Democratic-Populist combination could carry Kansas again. It is fair to say that Nebraska and the two Dakotas are debatable ground. What about the South? There are no silver mines in that section. There is no solid and reasoned belief in free silver as a factor of national prosperity. As the Macon *Telegraph* says, there is only a belief that the issue of 16 to 1 is the road to the offices. Let this idea be once dispelled, and the return of the Democratic party to its true principles is only a question of time. Among the influences looking to such a return we regard the action of the Atlanta bankers' convention as highly important, since it points the way to a real monetary reform, and one which can be defended on scientific grounds. The issue of banknotes against the assets of the banks, under adequate public supervision, puts the currency question in a new aspect to the great majority of voters, and turns their attention away from the hollow and specious fallacy of free coinage. It does not excite needless prejudice, but harmonizes with the best traditions of Southern banking.

"IMPERIALISM."

If Mr. Pearson, the author of 'National Life and Character,' were alive, he would be somewhat surprised by the fate which is overtaking the yellow race, which he feared might one day overrun the Western World. China is apparently destined to undergo, not the fate of Africa, for it is thickly peopled by a highly civilized race, but the fate of British India. There is apparently no opening for colonization in China more than in India. There is probably no place in that vast empire in which Europeans could live and make money without enslaving the natives, and this will never be attempted—not that the sentiment in favor of making colored men work by force is dead among our capitalists, but that democracy, being largely made up of free labor, abhors it. Its revival under a slightly disguised form has been attempted by the British gold miners in Africa, but it has raised such a storm about their ears at home that it is hardly likely to continue very long.

What is tempting in China to the Powers which are apparently making preparations to dismember it, is first the trade, and secondly the "imperial idea," which was started in England and has now spread all over the world. It was at first known as "Jingoism," when it issued from the fertile brain of Disraeli, but it has been gradually getting rid of this somewhat vulgar appellation, and, as "Imperialism," has become another name for a wide extent of territory, inhabited by divers races, speaking various languages, and kept in order by an immense apparatus of forts, native armies, and fleets. Since the abolition of the East India Company and the annexation of India directly to the British crown, and the assumption of the title of "Empress" by the Queen, the incessant proclamation of the extent of British territory, and of the glories of dominion over many lands and breeds of men, has at last stirred other imaginations than those of Englishmen. The idea has run through Europe, and has even made its way to America, that if a nation is to be great it must, like Rome, be "imperial"; that is, must reign over a large number of communities of one sort or other as "war lord," and do them good, and elevate them, not in their own way, but in yours.

There was some excuse for this in the case of nations like Great Britain and Germany, which had large populations pressing on the limits of subsistence at home, and therefore in real need of "fresh woods and pastures new"; but the idea has laid hold of countries like France, which has not a man to spare, and like the United States, which will not be able to people its own soil in a century. Even among us men began to say four or five years ago: "'Sdeath, sir! We have no Malta, no Gibraltar, not an island to our name, nor a single conquered race of a brown complexion, and look at England! These things are the signs of full growth in a nation, and we have now reached our majority. We must have islands and dagoes."

In Europe, all the first half of this

century was occupied in internal quarrels or attempts to maintain absolute government. These have ended in the formation of Germany and Italy and the establishment of a republic in France. Consequently, the feeling of equality with England has burst forth with a renewed vigor, and the English celebrations, like the Jubilee, have stimulated it. There never was anything seen in the world like the procession in London of last summer except the "triumph" of a Roman general, so many were the races represented at it which had succumbed to the power of the British arms and adopted British civilization. This spectacle was not lost on the Continent, but it produced other things than admiration, namely, emulation. It spread or invigorated the desire to do likewise, to have foreign dominions which would, cost what they might, flatter the national pride, and give new glory to the boast of being a Russian, or a Frenchman, or a German. Poor Italy tried her luck in Abyssinia, but had to retire early from the struggle. Fifteen centuries of priestcraft and tyranny have apparently taken from the Italian character the hard edge necessary for conquest.

Africa has been divided under the somewhat comic term, "spheres of influence," and each Power is occupied, so far amicably, in getting what it can out of its "sphere." There probably reigned a good deal of indecision at Berlin and St. Petersburg what to do next, for German colonists do not go to German colonies—no colonist likes to have a "war lord" after him—when the easy victory of the Japanese over the Chinese turned the attention of all the predatory Powers to China and away from Japan. Japan proved herself in that struggle too hard a nut to crack, but the Chinese ripeness for conquest came out with terrible distinctness. Through her war, it appeared plainly that the ancient empire was simply a survival, and might be made to furnish Indias to half-a-dozen European states. This fact had the more importance from jumping into the eyes of two young emperors, each commanding a million of men and eager for some kind of distinction of the military sort, and bitterly jealous of England. The process of division of the Chinese empire, now begun, will probably go on, perhaps slowly at first, though more rapidly than the English subjugation of India. It took England less than fifty years, from the fall of Tippoo Sahib to the battle of Sobraon, to get full possession of the Indian peninsula, but she had to contend with warrior races who gloried in soldiery. The Germans and Russians will have to deal with a race which looks on a soldier as a good deal of a fool, and their invasion of the Central Flowery Land will be more or less of a promenade. The British are said to be sending a fleet to see what is going on, and would probably just now give a good deal to be rid of the "forward policy," which keeps their best army encamped on the Indian frontier, and arrays all the mountain tribes in hostility to them.

The most serious feature in the future is the possibility of converting the Chinese into soldiers of the first order. Undoubtedly the Power which first gets a Chinese army together, under European discipline and officers, will, as Gordon showed, get hold of a weapon of wonderful power. The patience of Chinese, their temperance, their indifference to death, are materials for military training such as the world has rarely seen, and are probably to-day not to be found in any other population except the Turks. Whatever invader gets hold of this weapon first, will have secured a great advantage over those who come after him.

BURKE ON PARTY.

It would seem to be established by general consent that the hall-mark which a life of eminence has earned should take the form of a two-volume biography. Other monuments, indeed, are sometimes raised, but the authorized 'Life' may be held to satisfy minimum requirements. The formal obsequies are not complete without this epilogue, after which the man and his works are cast into the cauldron of time, to be renewed like Aeson, or to be destroyed like Pelias. A century rolls by, and then, if the departed's fame has stood the test, and especially if he happens to be connected with any cause, faction, or school still living, the orthodox thing is to accord him a centenary celebration. This carries the process of sublimation a step further. The reputation that has stood the ordeal, whether of praise or of negative criticism, exacted by a first centennial is well sped on its way to Walhalla.

Admirers of Burke will scarcely regard as an unmixed evil the failure to "do something" for him last July. To be sure, Gibbon (of whom Sir James Mackintosh said that he might have been cut out of a corner of Burke's mind without his missing it) was recently honored by centenary festivities. Burke, who shunned Westminster Abbey, would probably have declined to be put in the same class with Gibbon for such purposes, and, moreover, the anniversary business is being overdone. Only this leaves room for regret: the Jubilee galas were still under full sail at the moment when the first centenary of the great statesman might have been observed. The Jingo feeling, testified to by Kipling's "Recessional," was rampant, and with it the praises of Disraeli. It is a pity that the tribute should have been paid to the juggler who, having invoked Burke in his first address to the Bucks electors, assumed in his title the name of Burke's country home, without inheriting any considerable measure either of his genius or of his virtues.

The fact is, that during the last hundred years all the doctrinaire politicians of the English world have derived their stock in trade from Burke. They may have opposed his views, but he has given them a point of departure. He set the standard of political thought high, and cast political principles about with lavish hand. We need not claim for him superhuman wisdom or superhuman virtue, to maintain that he showed the possibility of applying large ideas to current public issues. With a truly English conviction he defended growth against revolution, while defending the function of criticism against passive obedience. His views were based on a wide induction. He severed the dearest personal ties to support them. For innumerable reasons he should be conned by the modern student of politics as Thucydides was conned by the Greek orators of the fourth century.

With the knowledge that Burke was a strong party man, and with the fresh recollection that Party is now appealed to in pretty much the same way that Liberty was during the French Revolution, we become interested in the attempt to extract from his writings and experience something of present application; if not an oracle, at least a suggestion. The *locus classicus* on party government appears at the end of "Thoughts on the Causes of the Present Discontents." Supplementing the dogmas here enunciated by Burke's own action in 1790, we get a little food for reflection. The question of how far his fear of the King's Friends was justified by the circumstances of the case, is immaterial. His main remedies were the frank recognition of party, close touch between members and their constituents, and a restriction of the Commons to its proper sphere. The root proposition from which the argument proceeds is that almost all measures depend on "some great, *leading, general principles in government*" (Burke italicizes the words himself), and that, therefore, individuals will group themselves in defence of these principles. If a man has convictions, he will seek to carry them out, and in politics the normal way is by a combination. He will not be acting servilely if he votes with his party nine times out of ten; only in every tenth case will a measure be disconnected from the ruling principles which are acknowledged by all members of the party. Burke accepts the charge that parties strive eagerly for power. They should do so, he replies, "that they may carry their common plans into execution with all the power and authority of the state." Place-hunting is even a heavier count than lust of power. Burke faces this also and avows that

political allies, "without a proscription of others, are bound to give to their own party the preference in all things." Turning to history, he finds that *idem sentire de republica* is among the noblest grounds of human association. One of England's most fortunate periods was that part of Queen Anne's reign when the Whig junto held sway. Sunderland, Godolphin, Somers, and Marlborough did not heed either taunts or slanders, but, linked, in Addison's phrase, by "long-tried faith, and friendship's holy ties," they devoted their joint powers to the service of the state.

Thus far Burke expresses ideas which might conceivably sit with grace upon a philosophic spoilsman. Our account of his arguments might lend color to Goldsmith's famous thrust that he "gave up to party what was meant for mankind." We have, however, kept some essential points in the background. Burke was contending with corruptionists, and wished to let the fresh ozone of public sentiment blow through a chamber which, long closed tight, had become tainted by the mephitic exhalations of clique and cabal. He had no fear of combinations that stand in the open and fight fairly. His partisans were "to pursue every *just* method." They were to form "a *fair* connexion." He would have shrunk from creating a close corporation like the fourteenth-century Parte Guelfa, at Florence. Lord Bute and his followers were, roughly speaking, that already. Burke recommends criticism, discussion, debate. His ideal scheme of party tactics finds historical expression in the campaign conducted by the Anti-Corn-Law League. He put false shame under his feet, and claimed that his party would be known by its inherent qualities. "Such a generous contention for power, on such manly and honorable maxims, will easily be distinguished from the mean and interested struggle for place and emolument."

The ultra-party man of any age speaks of the ties which bind him to his organization as though they were of more importance than the cardinal virtues. One gets little support for this attitude from Burke. He urges that in becoming patriots we are not to forget that we are gentlemen, and the honor of a gentleman would certainly require that, after his views became profoundly modified, he should change his party affiliations. We know how much it cost Burke to break with Fox, when the French Revolution presented a new set of political problems and conditions. His Whiggism, instead of proving to be a negation of all principle, was founded on broad convictions of public duty. He was able to carry many of his old associates with him, but in the narrow sense he deserted his party to form other combinations. In 1770 he said we must "model our principles to our duties and our situation." In 1790 he speaks of himself as one "who wishes to preserve consistency, but who would preserve consistency by varying his means to secure the unity of his end; and, when the equipoise of the vessel in which he sails may be endangered by overloading it upon one side, is desirous of carrying the small weight of his reasons to that which may preserve its equipoise."

The political bond which Burke advocates implies principles, character, and honor. We need hardly enter upon a detailed contrast between party, thus conceived, and the modern machine which has become a fetish.

BACCHYLIDES.

LONDON, December 8, 1897.

To-day is a red-letter day, not only in the calendar of Dryasdust, but in the rubrics of all who care for the best Greek poetry—of all who care for poetry, I might say, if a recent French critic is right in attributing our modern dearth of good literature to the recent neglect, in schools and colleges, of Greek letters. Bacchylides of Ceos is the great poet of the hour, though he lived and died twenty-four-odd centuries ago. For a thousand years his works were studied and preserved, then they disappeared—all, saving a few stray lines scattered in quotations here and there, and carefully garnered by Bergk, who has gathered in upwards of 100 lines. Of Bergk's sixty-nine quotations and allusions to Bacchylides, only fourteen repeat or refer to passages in the British Museum papyrus. It does not, then, contain all his poems, though presumably it has preserved his best. Six complete odes, the major part of eight more, and fractions of six others—such is the roster of Mr. Kenyon's 'Poems of Bacchylides,' published to-day.* The six complete odes contain 448 lines, only seventeen lines less than Pindar's Isthmians; the eight odes of which an average of two-thirds is resuscitated, contain 416 construable lines, while six of Pindar's eight Nemeans (iv. and viii. being excluded) contain 418 lines. These figures will, however, lead to an exaggeration of the amount of Bacchylides's resuscitated poetry, unless we bear in mind that the British Museum manuscript (one of the younger papyrus rolls, since it was written about the year 50 B. C.) resembles old-fashioned editions of Pindar in cutting the single lines very short. In addition to his year-long work upon the text, Mr. Kenyon has given an admirable introduction of 50-odd pages, provides serviceable preliminaries to each of the twenty items in his edition, and supplements his critical notes on the constitution of the text with a brief and practical commentary especially noticeable for its genial outlook upon literature at large. A reproduction of the uncial papyrus manuscript, letter by letter, fills the *verso* of each leaf, while the *recto* is occupied by a reconstructed text of the ordinary kind. Unplaced fragments of the papyrus come in at the end, where they are followed by Bergk's fragments. Finally, the work is crowned with an invaluable index of all words used by Bacchylides. The result is that we have for the first time in the annals of scholarship an *editio princeps* so complete in all essentials that it can be put into the hands of school-boys (between whom and the Egyptian grave near Luxor which hid these treasures for nearly 2,000 years our editor stands, with the goodly company of his helpers) as an epitome of modern scholarship.

Nothing is clearer than the close affinity between Sophocles and Bacchylides. This is frequently pointed out in Mr. Kenyon's commentary, and strikes the reader's mind at every turning of the page. Indeed, we may lay hands upon the epigram, and phrase it: "Easier to construe than Pindar, and more like Sophocles." We must remember, though, that Bacchylides was the elder, and that Sophocles was like him, not he like Sophocles. Moreover, Bacchylides has some things in common with Euripides; he is easier to construe than Sophocles. His metres, too, where they have been clearly made out, have the singing quality of Euripides at his best, or even the magical charm of Aristophanes. Any youth, whether at school or at college, who extracts pleasure from the metres of Horace, must feel the metrical charm of Bacchylides's sixth Epinician ode—two stanzas of eight lines, commemorating an Olympian foot-race won by the poet's compatriot, Lachon of Ceos, and beginning:

Λάχων Διὸς μεγίστου
λάχε φέρτατον ποδέσσι
κῦδος . . . . .

Those teachers of Greek who have at heart more than the technical uses of their study, and would do their part toward the much-called-for revival of a living literature in days deserted of the Muse, must welcome the coming of "the Ceian nightingale," Bacchylides.

"Gold-frontleted Urania's glorious minion,
To burst the barriers of his heart he longs,
And flood great Hiero with liquid songs;
So the swift eagle ploughs with tawny pinion
Blue deeps aloft; a messenger of Zeus,
Wide-ruling warder of the thunder's crash,
Him in his wanton strength shall nought abash.
Let shriller birds, with twitterings profuse,
Cower and hide; no peaks has earth that rise
So high, nor billows has the restless deep
So wild that they shall hem his wing, whose sweep
Ranges the wilds of Chaos. Through the skies,
Balanced on delicate plumes, of men far-seen,
He rides the streaming zephyrs of the air."

No greater boon could have been granted to the intending reader of Pindar's Epinician odes than the four Epinicians (ii. v., vi., and xi.), in the longest of which the above passage occurs. It forms the companion-piece to Pindar's first Olympian, and celebrates the self-same race, won by Hiero's horse, "Victor." No one capable of finding high poetical merit in any ode celebrating any victory can deny that this ode of Bacchylides is fine, and yet it is not difficult in comparison with the lyrics of Pindar or with any one of the three great Greek tragedians. In fact, this ode and its three fellows might be likened to that book, dear to the young, called 'Reading without Tears,' and in moments of childlike expansiveness we might call Bacchylides our Pindar without Groans.

No respectable critic, least of all our editor, would claim for Bacchylides the supreme rank of a Pindar, and yet it is demonstrable that this Ceian bard (Simonides, be it remembered, was a brother of Bacchylides's mother) was more at home than his Bœotian rival on the sea. Pindar travelled habitually on land, and hence, in the opening of the second Isthmian, he lauds "these bards

* 'The Poems of Bacchylides,' edited from a papyrus in the British Museum by Frederick G. Kenyon. Printed by order of the Trustees of the British Museum. Oxford: University Press; New York: Henry Frowde.

of ancient days" who "went their tuneful ways riding in the chariot of the Muses." Bacchylides, on the other hand, could not leave his native Ceos without taking ship. What beginning, then, was more natural for him than that of his twelfth Epinician? "Clio, queen of song, now, if ever before, stand like a good man and true at the helm of my heart, hold me thou to my straight course." When Bacchylides catches sight of the eagle it is from afar, standing on the Ceian shore, or sailing the Ægean, but Pindar sees the bird of Zeus as a landsman might, at close quarters; he watches while the power of song prevails and lulls the bird to sleep. Perhaps the landsman Pindar has his advantage here, but he "gives himself away" toward the end of his second Isthmian ode, where he rashly says of the winner Xenocrates, "Nor did the prosperous wind that blew around his hospitable board ever make him reef his sail, but summertide saw him faring toward Phasis, and in the winter-time he voyaged to the regions of the Nile." Only an egregious land-lubber—God save the mark!—could think of transforming a friend's festal board into a seaworthy craft, rig him out with a sail, and gayly pack him off from Girgenti to Egypt and the Euxine. It is hard, indeed, to imagine that Pindar, when he wrote this Sicilian Isthmian, had "found his sea-legs." As for Bacchylides, he had no others, and they would probably have prevented him from writing anything so uncomfortably amphibious as the lines in Pindar's famous fourth Pythian, where we read: "'Tis nought for men of nought to shake a city down, but hard the task indeed to root it where it stands, except the pilot of its rulers be a God."

Bacchylides is truly happy then, and all himself, when about him and beneath are levels of ocean incorruptible, with stainless airs above. "The depths of air suffer no stain," he exclaims in his third Epinician.* "The waters of the sea decay not, but man that has reached hoary age, may not win back the bloom of youth. Yet virtue hath a radiance which faileth not with the mortal frame, but is nourished by the Muse." Indeed, there is not in all literature a lyric more saturated with the magic of the sea than the greatest of all the known poems of Bacchylides—his "Pæan," numbered xvii. in this collection. The poet and his song transport and keep us by enchantment always far remote from sight or thought of land. Not a word is breathed that can break the spell of ocean that holds us fast, for the name of Cretan Ida serves but to remind us of the leagues of water through which Minos is driving home the dark-prowed ship, and the opening words snatch us into the middle of the Cretan sea:

"The dark-prowed ship, freighted with Theseus bold
And bright Ionia's children seven twice-told,
Was ploughing onward through the Cretan sea.
Far-shimmering appeared its radiant sail,
Strained in the North Wind's favorable gale.
Such was the Ægis-warring queen's decree,
Glorious Athena willed it so to be."

It appears that Bacchylides was for some time an exile from his native Ceos, and sojourned in the Peloponnesus, but he never lost the sense of the broad Ægean, which was with him everywhere. We have seen him at Olympia, and marked the eagle traversing his song, not as he might be seen from the holy Altis-ground, but as he appeared to Bacchylides at home in "wave-encompassed Ceos"—so Pindar calls it. Even King Hiero's winning horse "Victor" changes to a ship before Bacchylides has done with him, "onward-darting, safe he holds the helmsman on his back."

If we carry with us these preoccupations of our Ceian poet, and linger over the rhythms of his first Epinician Ode—a song of Ceos triumphing at the Isthmian festival of the lord of the ocean, Poseidon—we shall find there the surgings of quiet summer waves that die along the Ceian shore. One strophe, two antistrophes, and two epodes are all that has been recovered of this charming song, but the tides of the Ægean ebb and flow around us as we read. We are lapped, as if by the caressing and liquid swirl of a summer surf, in the cross-movements of these strophes and epodes. Two waves seem to contend through the first five lines, and to be half combined in the hampered stream of three lines at the close. The same two liquid movements strive again in the epode, the last line of which echoes their final union in a lengthened sweep that breaks upon the shore.

Perhaps, though, Bacchylides himself describes it best in his Pæan of Theseus, the High Seas' Song of Songs, whose beginning we have already quoted, where he tells us what Theseus saw in the deeps of the sea:

"Anon he reached the hall
Where Gods hold festival,
Beheld good Nereus's far-famed daughters there,
And shuddered at the sight.
Their glimmering limbs shone white,
While darting rays fire-bright
Flashed forth upon him. Round about their hair
Were glittering fillets rolled,—
Circlets of braided gold,—
The while they took their merriment,
Dancing with liquid feet their hearts' content."

The merriment of Nereids, dancing with liquid feet in the halls of Poseidon—such is the spectacle granted for our rejuvenation in the newly recovered works of Bacchylides, a poet whom the Muse found always dwelling on the open sea. LOUIS DYER.

* Mr. Kenyon's translation, given in his note on page 28.

CHAMPOLLION.

PARIS, December 13, 1897.

The name of Champollion, the man who, by a sort of intuition, discovered at the beginning of this century the lost secret of Egyptian hieroglyphic writing, is world-famous. We owe to him all our positive knowledge of the oldest dynasties of Egypt. No Frenchman having any culture can cross the Place de la Concorde without seeing its charming obelisk, which is almost a monument to Champollion.

M. de la Brière has just published, under the title 'Champollion Inconnu,' a small volume which will be found interesting by all who admire the work of the great Egyptologist. "Chance would have it," says M. de la Brière, "that, at the foot of the Alps of Dauphiny, a patrimonial house which came by marriage into the Champollion family, a house which had once belonged to Condillac and to Mably, situated in the village of Vif, near Grenoble, contained in its old archives, intact and inedited, letters of the illustrious Egyptologist." These letters were written by Jean François Champollion, who was still a child, to his eldest brother, Jacques Joseph, who represented for him the absent family. The Champollions hailed from Champoléon, on the River Drac, between Gap and Grenoble. Their family gave several officers to the army. We find in 1786 a Marquis of Champollion figuring with the Saint-Valliers, the Saint-Ferréols, the Chabrillants, Des Adrets, Du Bouchage, among the gentlemen of the Duke d'Orléans, Governor of Dauphiny. There was a Capt. Champollion at Jemmapes as officer of ordnance to the Duke de Chartres (the future King of France).

Jean François was born in 1790. His father was poor and held a post at Figeac. The Revolution closed all the old provincial colleges. The child was confided first to a poor monk of the Abbey of Figeac, whom the Champollion family had adopted after the abbey had been secularized. His eldest brother, Jacques Joseph, had left Figeac and established himself at Grenoble, where his great knowledge and his researches had already distinguished him. Desirous of helping his parents, and struck by the great intelligence of his younger brother, he sent for him and took entire charge of him at Grenoble. He always remained his guide, his mentor—in his Egyptological studies as well as in everything. They were called afterwards by everybody Champollion *l'aîné* and Champollion *le jeune*. Young Champollion obtained a *bourse* at the Lyceum of Grenoble at the age of thirteen. The lyceums had been organized only a little while before, and had become, as they still are now, official establishments. The programme of the lyceums organized by Napoleon was set forth to the rector of Grenoble in a letter from Fontanes, the grand-master of the University:

"I beg of you, M. le Recteur, to recommend the chiefs of all your establishments to give frequently, as subjects of composition, in prose as well as in verse, the principal facts in the history of France, and chiefly those which will make for ever memorable the reign under which we live. The innumerable exploits of the army under the orders of his Majesty the Emperor and his generals, the high wisdom of his laws, his administrative works, the embellishments of his cities, the public monuments which he has founded, the protection which he has given to science, to art, to industry, the vast influence of his genius on the fate of France and of Europe, the affection which we owe to his person, and the happiness which his dynasty promises to us, are an inexhaustible source of subjects which the pupils of French schools cannot touch without the liveliest interest."

Young Champollion was in constant correspondence with his elder brother. He wrote to him short notes, which have all been preserved. "The paper of the time is thick, solid; it differs in size and texture from our light modern papers. There were no envelopes; the name of the person to whom the letter was addressed was written on one side of the paper. The date is often wanting." Young Champollion was a very precocious child, and shows in his letters an inexhaustible curiosity; and, singularly enough, this curiosity, which is the most characteristic trait of his genius, is applied to the most arduous and difficult subjects. On some points he seems to have been almost blind: he never could get on in mathematics; he was drawn only towards the study of Oriental languages; he never showed the least taste for military life. The Lyceum received one day this appeal:

"It is the intention of his Majesty the Emperor that a presentation should be made to him of 150 young men, graduates of the lyceums. First appointed sergeants, they will receive, on arriving at their place of destination, brevets of sub-lieutenants. You

will address to me, M. le Recteur, as soon as possible, your presentation lists."

Champollion was not tempted by this offer; and afterwards, in 1811, when he became subject to the conscription, he found himself exempted from military service by a special decree of the Emperor made in the interest of the Oriental languages.

The letters given by M. de la Brière introduce to us the most minute details of life in a *lycée* under the First Empire. They show us the most singular mixture of military and monastic discipline; the school has corporals, and all the Latin expressions formerly used in the establishments kept by priests are carefully preserved—"præmium doctrinæ, accessit," etc. The old classic programmes were maintained; Champollion added to them the study of Hebrew, of Arabic, of local and provincial idioms. He astonished his masters more than his comrades, and attracted the attention even of the Administration. The *Journal de l'Isère* writes as follows after a visit from the Prefect to the Lyceum:

"Several pupils, in their hours of leisure, have given themselves up to studies which are no part of the teaching of the Lyceum. It is thus that we have in a public examination young J. F. Champollion, national pupil (*élève national*), explaining part of a chapter of Genesis in a Hebrew text, after having answered some questions on the Oriental languages in general. The Prefect, who crowned the best pupils, expressed his great satisfaction."

Champollion was a devourer of books; he studied everything.

"Send me the Gradus [the 'Gradus ad Parnassum' was still used a few years ago, before the fashion of writing Latin verses had been abandoned], Livy, Dioscorides. . . . Send me Anacreon in the Languedoc idiom. . . . I am reading Laharpe. . . . I send you back Condillac. . . . If you can, send me Duchoul 'Sur la Religion des Romains.' . . . Send me, I beg you, the 'Mythologie des Peuples du Nord.' . . . Send me the 'Synonymes français.' . . . I thank you for Mably; I have read the 'Entretiens de Phocion.' It seems to me that what the Abbé Mably says in his preface—that he has extracted and translated this work from a certain Greek manuscript in the library of the Convent of Mont-Cassin—ought to be judged like his preface to the 'Voyage d'Anténor en Grèce.' What do you think of it? Do you believe that it is a real translation from the Greek, that it is really antique, that it is a work of Phocion's? Plutarch does not speak of it in his life of the great man. I have great doubts. . . . Send me a book. I don't know what to do after I have performed my Latin exercises and studied Hebrew, Syriac, and Chaldean."

It was evidently at the instigation of his elder brother that Champollion tried to make himself a linguist, and learned the Oriental languages; but what is really astonishing is that he learned them without a master. He had a real passion for the East. "If I write a Latin exercise, it is only to avoid the penalty; I have long lost my taste for it. The Oriental languages are my favorite passion . . . Greek, Hebrew and its dialects, Arabic—these are what I burn to learn well." His brother held out to him a hope of getting him a place in the special school of the Oriental languages in Paris. He gave him, at a distance, some elements of philology. The Jansenists of Port-Royal made what they called the 'Garden of Greek Roots' and the 'Garden of Latin Roots.' These books were valuable; they were written in verse, the better to help young minds to enter into the analysis of languages. Young Champollion very early took pleasure in this analysis. He writes, for instance, to his brother:

"I have read in the 'Mécanisme des Langues' the controversy of MM. Falconet and Frenel on the signification of the word Dunum. The former maintains that Dunum signifies a high place, which seems rather suitable for *Uxellodunum*, the present Capdenac, for you know that it is on a high hill. M. Frenel says that it means an inhabited place. To clear up the point, I have searched among the Hebrew roots, and found that Dome means city. Compare Medina, an Arab city, and Dinas in Bas-Breton means city. In Greek, I find that Diné means a hollow."

Egypt early appealed to his imagination.

"I wish to make a profound and continuous study of this ancient nation. The enthusiasm which the description of its enormous monuments has excited in me, the admiration which I have felt for its power and its knowledge, will increase with the new notions I am going to acquire. Of all the peoples I prefer, I confess that none can balance the Egyptians in my heart."

He learns everything that concerns Egypt: "I have no buttons for my pantaloons. Send me 'Ludolphi Ethiopica Grammatica.'" He does not yet know the language of the Pharaohs, and is only making approaches; he feels instinctively that he has something to learn from all the invaders of Egypt—from the Greeks, the Arabs, the Hebrews, who were at one time enemies, at another allies. He delights in the Bible in the original Hebrew, in the rudiments of Arabic, in the Koran. His Hebrew Bible has been preserved; the volume is much worn, the pages covered with additions and corrections, with manuscript notes.

The correspondence of which I have given a brief account ends in 1807; in that year young Champollion left Grenoble for Paris. There he worked in the great public libraries, pursuing his philological studies, mixing with the men who had accompanied Napoleon to Egypt. The intercourse with his brother becomes also more complete. Young Champollion was now preparing himself with more advantages for the discovery of that marvellous key which he afterwards gave to science, and which revealed to the world the hidden sense of the hieroglyphs, the secret of the obelisks, the temples, the pyramids, and the tombs of the valley of the Nile.

The archives of Vif, in the Department of the Isère, preserve, besides the letters written by Champollion at school, those which he wrote during his life as a student in Paris. M. de la Brière gives us only short extracts from these highly interesting letters. At the age of nineteen, Champollion was appointed professor of history at Grenoble; he went back to Paris at the age of thirty; he was only thirty-two years old when he read, on the 17th of September, 1822, before the Academy of Inscriptions, the account of his discovery of the key to the hieroglyphs, a discovery which will make his name for ever famous.

Correspondence.

PROPOSED SYLVESTER MEMORIAL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: May I be permitted to appeal through your columns to all friends and admirers of the late Professor J. J. Sylvester to assist in founding a suitable memorial in honor of his name and for the encouragement of mathematical science? A movement was inaugurated on this side of the Atlantic soon after his death, and it was resolved by the promoters that a fund should be raised for the purpose of establishing a Sylvester Medal, to be awarded at certain intervals for mathematical research to any worker irrespective of nationality. For the purpose of carrying out the scheme, a strongly representative international committee has been formed, and I should like to take advantage of this opportunity of expressing the great satisfaction which it has given to the promoters to be enabled to include in this committee so many great and distinguished names from the American universities. In every case our invitation to join the committee has been most cordially responded to, and the consent has in many instances been accompanied by expressions of the greatest sympathy and encouragement. The list, as it stands, practically includes the leading mathematicians of the whole world.

It has been estimated that a capital sum of $5,000 will be sufficient for the proposed endowment, and of this about one-half has already been subscribed here. In appealing to the American public to enable us to complete the desired sum, I am in the first place prompted by the consideration that Sylvester's association with the Johns Hopkins University, and the leading part which he took in advancing mathematical science in America, render his claim to estimation on the part of the citizens of your country quite a special one. It is but a modest endowment that we are asking for, and I am sure that all those who were personally acquainted with him, and who realize the great influence which he exerted in raising the intellectual level of every institution with which he was associated, will be glad of this opportunity of coöperating in the movement.

It is proposed that the fund, when complete, shall be transferred to the Council of the Royal Society of London, that body having undertaken to accept the trust and to award the medal triennially to mathematicians of all countries.

I can hardly venture to trespass upon your courtesy to the extent of asking you to print the complete list of our committee, but for your own information I beg to send a copy herewith. It will be sufficient to state that it comprises the names of President Gilman of Johns Hopkins University, of Professor Simon Newcomb of Washington, of Professor Willard Gibbs of Yale, of Professor Peirce of Harvard, and many other well-known American men of science. Subscriptions may be sent to and will be acknowledged by Dr. Cyrus Adler, the Smithsonian Institution, Washington, or by Dr. George Bruce Halsted, President of the Academy of Science, No. 2407 Guadalupe Street, Austin, Texas.—I am, sir,

Yours obediently,

Raphael Meldola,

Professor in the Finsbury Technical College, London, England, Hon. Organizing Secretary to the Sylvester Memorial.

December, 1897.

SOUTH CAROLINA PRECEDENTS FOR NEW JERSEY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of December 16 you notice the complication which will arise in New Jersey in regard to the seat of the President of the Senate, who will succeed to the office of Governor upon the resignation of Mr. Griggs to accept the position of Attor-

ney-General of the United States, and to assist in the solution of which, you say, there is no local precedent. It happens that the same question, under somewhat similar circumstances, has been several times met and acted upon in South Carolina, an account of which may not be uninteresting nor without value in the decision of the case in New Jersey.

The subject is an old, a very old, one in South Carolina. The question arose in the very inception of the colony, more than two hundred years ago. Under the instructions of Gov. Sayle, the first Governor, he was given a Council of Deputies. These were the Deputies of the respective Proprietors, who were to sit as an Upper House, or Senate, and, with twenty persons elected by the "freemen," to constitute a Parliament. Gov. Sayle was authorized by his commission, with the advice and approbation of his Council, to nominate a Deputy to succeed him in case he should die or depart from the province. The Governor was a very old man, and, his health failing under the fatigue and exposure of the new settlement, on March 4, 1671, he sent for his Council, and, with their approbation, nominated Joseph West as his successor. Only five Deputies had been appointed, and one of these had not come out. Another had been suspended by the Governor and the other Deputies, leaving but three, including West, who had been nominated to succeed Sayle. It happened that, upon the death of Sayle, Sir John Yeamans claimed the government as a Landgrave under the famous Fundamental Constitution of Locke, and in doing so he made the precise question now under consideration. He insisted that as, under the instructions, it required *three* Deputies to constitute a quorum, if West became Governor there could be no quorum of Deputies, since by accepting the office he would cease to be a Deputy; that he could not be both a Deputy and Governor. Therefore, he argued, he could not be Governor, and *ipso facto* dissolve the government. But the point, however ingenious, was disregarded.

The question was again involved in a controversy in 1700 when Joseph Blake, a Deputy, was exercising the office of Governor, being chosen by the Council to fill a vacancy until the pleasure of the Lords Proprietors could be known. In this instance, Governor Blake, appearing upon a committee of conference between the upper and lower house as a Deputy, resented the absence of official respect to him as Governor. But the committee of the Commons declined to be overawed by the official dignity as Governor while he was meeting them as a member of the Council.

In 1725, Sir Francis Nicholson, the provisional Royal Governor, upon the overthrow of the Proprietary Government, leaving the province, and there being, as yet, no Lieutenant-Governor, the administration devolved upon the President of the Council, who continued to conduct it as such until the appointment of the first regular Royal Governor, Robert Johnson. In this case it is interesting to observe that Arthur Middleton, the President of the Council, was not styled Governor, as has been erroneously assumed, but was addressed as *President and Commander-in-chief*, and exercised the office in that name. So, again, upon the death of Governor Robert Johnson in 1735, Lieutenant-Governor Broughton succeeded to the administration, and upon his death in 1737 (no Governor having yet been appointed) William Bull succeeded to the administration as *President of the Council*.

I can recall no other instance in which the President of the Council or Senate was called upon to act until within the last twenty years, when the precise case now under consideration in New Jersey occurred in South Carolina. Upon the meeting of the General Assembly after Governor Wade Hampton's second election as Governor, he was immediately elected to the United States Senate, and thereupon, under the Constitution of the State, Lieutenant-Governor W. D. Simpson succeeded to the administration of the office. In 1879 it happened he was elected Chief Justice, and then, under the Constitution and act in pursuance of that instrument, the administration devolved upon the Hon. Thomas B. Jeter, Senator from Union County, who was then President *pro tempore* of the Senate—the Lieutenant-Governor under the Constitution being the President of the Senate. Mr. Jeter, upon assuming the duties, assumed also the title of Governor, and as such administered the office for some months, when the Hon. Johnson Hagood, having been elected Governor, qualified.

And now the question arose as to Mr. Jeter's right to retain his seat in the Senate as Senator from Union. Curiously enough, repeating the position taken by Sir John Yeamans two hundred and ten years before, it was held that Mr. Jeter could not have been Governor and Senator at the same time, and as he had been Governor, it was said, he was not Senator, although the term for which he had been elected, four years (1878-1882), had not expired. The question was raised in the Senate and referred to the judiciary committee, which returned two reports, a majority and a minority report. The majority report found that Mr. Jeter's seat became vacant upon his assuming the position of Governor; the minority report maintained the contrary. The question was debated on December 7, 1880, when the majority report was laid upon the table, the minority report adopted, and Mr. Jeter served out the remainder of the term for which he had been elected (see Senate Journal 1880, 147).

I was a member of the Legislature at the time, and was much interested in the question. The mistake, as I conceived, was in the assumption of the title of Governor by Mr. Jeter. He never was Governor. The Constitution had provided that the General Assembly should by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability of both the Governor and Lieutenant-Governor, declaring what officer should then *act as Governor*. In pursuance of this provision, the General Assembly had provided by act (1868) that in such case the President of the Senate *pro tempore* "shall exercise the office of Governor." Under these constitutional provisions, it will be observed, Mr. Jeter was not Governor: he was an officer—the President of the Senate—*acting* "*as Governor*," *exercising* "*the office of Governor*." He should have followed the early precedents and styled himself *President of the Senate*, acting as Governor, etc. Had this course been followed, the question as to his seat in the Senate would not have arisen.

An illustration familiar to all old soldiers of the late war is applicable. The colonel of a brigade who assumed command in the absence of the brigadier-general did not thereby become a brigadier, but was merely the Colonel commanding the Brigade. Or, in like cases, the brigadier-general became the Brigadier commanding the Division, but not a Major-General, etc.

Very respectfully, EDWARD MCGRADY.

CHARLESTON, S. C., December 24, 1897.

"AN ALLEGED SPECIE CIRCULAR OF 1827."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* for December 9 appears an interesting communication from Mr. William MacDonald, under the above caption. Mr. MacDonald takes as his text the assertion of Prof. Sumner and of Mr. Schouler that a circular similar to the noted specie circular of President Jackson "was issued in Adams's administration." He then produces a copy of the instructions referred to, and declares himself incredulous as to their similarity to the specie circular. Mr. MacDonald, in fact, proves his case, but hesitates to assert boldly that the authorities quoted are wrong. The comparison which he institutes between the instructions issued by Secretary Rush and the specie circular establishes conclusively that there exists no such similarity. The difference between them is essential; they are acts of quite opposite meaning. The specie circular had for its purpose the absolute discontinuance of the receipt of banknotes in payment of land dues, while the instructions of Rush had for their purpose the definition of what banknotes might be accepted for land dues; one Secretary instructs the receivers to receive banknotes, and the other instructs them *not* to receive banknotes.

If Mr. MacDonald had looked a little further, he would have found that the instructions of Rush did not stand alone, but were supported by like instructions, both before and after Rush's incumbency of the Treasury. To discover the cause which lay at the bottom of all such instructions, we have to go back to the joint resolution of April 30, 1816, which declared that "from and after the 20th day of February," 1817, no "duties, taxes, debts, or sums of money accruing or becoming payable to the United States . . . ought to be collected or received otherwise than in the legal currency of the United States, or Treasury notes, or notes of the Bank of the United States, or in notes of banks which are payable and paid on demand in the said legal currency of the United States" (iii. Statutes at Large, p. 343). This resolution was intended to aid the Bank of the United States in restoring specie payments, and the policy outlined in it was responsible for the Rush circulars and those of other Secretaries of the Treasury, which were identical in spirit and defined the attitude of the Government towards bank paper until the specie circular was promulgated. The first of these was issued by Secretary Crawford, either in 1817 or early in 1818, as we learn from a communication of that official to the Senate on March 27, 1818. In this communication Crawford uses the following language:

"The collectors and receivers of public money throughout the nation have been instructed to receive in payment of duties, taxes, and public lands nothing but current specie, the bills of the Bank of the United States, its officers, and the State and other local banks employed as offices of deposit, and the bills of such other banks as will be received by them and credited as

specie for the use of the United States. It may be proper to observe that the Bank of the United States and its offices receive as specie the bills of all local banks which pay specie, that are established in the places where that bank and its offices are respectively established" (iii. Folio Finance, p. 265).

A careful examination of the terms here laid down will show that they were quite as restrictive as those insisted upon by Secretary Rush. Crawford issued similar instructions later in the year, this time exclusively to receivers of dues from the public land sales (State Papers v., Finance, p. 62-63), and on August 1, 1820, Crawford issued his last instructions of this character. The circular contained these clauses:

"With a view to increase and equalize the facilities for making payment for public lands in the several land districts of the United States, I have determined to authorize the receivers of public moneys to take, in addition to specie and the bills of the United States Bank and its branches, the notes of the following incorporated banks, viz., those of the cities of Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and the Merchants' and Franklin Banks of Alexandria, and those specie-paying banks in the State in which the land office is situated.

"This instruction supersedes those that have heretofore been given on the subject, except in so far as they prohibit the receipt of any paper of any bank which does not discharge its notes in specie on demand; and that prohibition must, in every case, be rigidly adhered to" (State Papers iv., Finance, p. 264).

It will be seen that this is almost identical with the instructions given by Rush on February 22, 1826. The supplemental circular of August 22, 1827, was more restrictive, and both were meant to discourage as much as possible the receipt of any paper but that of the Bank of the United States, without actually prohibiting such receipt. In addition to these, we have a circular of Secretary Taney of March 26, 1834, which is of the same import, and reads in part as follows:

"It is . . . expected that you will be careful to receive the notes of no bank except such as are in good credit and pay specie promptly for their notes when presented, and you are to receive none except such as the bank in which you deposit will agree to pass to the credit of the United States as cash" (Senate Document 334, 24th Congress, 1st session, p. 7).

This was the last of these circulars until that of July 11, 1836.

Mr. MacDonald thinks it probable that the Rush circulars would have been referred to by the supporters of Jackson's policy as furnishing a precedent for the specie circular, supposing Prof. Sumner's assertion to be correct. He says, however, that the debates "apparently make no mention of a 'similar circular' of 1827," though he admits that his "examination has not been exhaustive." The truth is that Senator Benton, who made the first speech in support of the Administration, based a great part of his argument upon these circulars of Crawford and Rush. A quotation will show this plainly:

"For twenty years, and under three Presidents, all the Secretaries of the Treasury have acted alike. Each has made selections, permitting the notes of some specie-paying banks to be received, and forbidding others. Mr. Crawford did it in numerous instances; and . . . . no human being ever thought of charging him with illegality in this respect. Mr. Rush twice made similar selections, during the administration of Mr. Adams; and no one, either in the same cabinet with him, or out of the cabinet against him, ever complained of it. For twenty years the practice has been uniform; and every citizen of the West knows that that practice was the general, though not universal, exclusion of the Western specie-paying bank paper from the Western land offices" (Thirty Years' View, i., p. 637).

But Senator Benton's argument was not that the circulars were similar in the sense that Rush's were specie circulars. His whole contention was that if, under the resolution of April 30, 1816, the instructions of Secretary Rush were legal, so was the specie circular, since both made discriminations in regard to the nature of the currency to be received in the payment of land dues. This was the only similarity he claimed for them. His argument was at once met by Webster as follows:

"The gentleman argues that the Treasury has made discriminations, but what discriminations? I suppose the whole truth to be simply this, that admitting at all times the right of the party paying to pay in notes of specie-paying banks, the collectors and receivers have not been held bound to receive notes of distant banks of which they know nothing, and could not judge, therefore, whether their notes came within the law" (Works, vol. iv., p. 277).

And he concludes by saying that "he was of the opinion that the specie circular was against the plain words and meaning of the law of 1816, against the whole practice of the Government under that law."

Senator S. L. Southard of New Jersey cherished the same conviction, while Calhoun expressed himself in even more emphatic language, Gales and Seaton quoting him thus: "Mr. Calhoun briefly characterized the Treasury order as unconstitutional, without law, without precedent, without any authority whatever" (Congressional Debates, vol. xiii., p. 375).

These extracts are conclusive as to the similarity of the specie circular of 1836 to anything that preceded it, and Mr. MacDonald is amply justified in casting doubt upon the statement made by Prof. Sumner and by Mr. Schouler. Indeed, he would have been well within bounds had he ventured a positive contradiction. It is interesting to note that the two historians, both authorities of weight, have made the same error. Mr. Schouler's authority would seem at first glance corroborative of Prof. Sumner's correctness. On the contrary, however, it apparently gives reason for doubting Mr. Schouler's own accuracy and his carefulness in making important statements, for it seems evident on examination that he has transferred to his own pages both the assertion and reference from Sumner's 'Jackson,' without verifying the one or the other.

Mr. MacDonald states that he has been unable to discover the circulars of Rush in the Government publications. He will find the printed text of that of February 22, 1826, on page 157, Senate Document 198, Twentieth Congress, first session; and the text of the supplementary circular of August 22, 1827, on page 59 of the same document. They are also reprinted in State Papers v. Public Lands, pp. 519, 520. In both cases they are appended to a report on the transactions of Receiver Thomas A. Smith. It is not surprising, therefore, that Mr. MacDonald did not find them.

RALPH C. H. CATTERALL.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, December 22, 1897.

"I WOULD LIKE," ETC.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I live in a part of this country where the correct use of the auxiliaries *shall* and *should*, *will* and *would*, is very much neglected, at least according to old-time standards. Years and years ago I remember reading in the *Nation* that "there still are people who judge of a man's English by his use or misuse of *shall* and *will*, as they judge of his table manners according as he eats with his knife or not." (I quote from memory.) I also remember in the *Nation* a remark attributed, I think, to James Russell Lowell, to whom a lady had written (or said): "I would like to have your autograph." His comment was (in substance): "Well, if she *would* like to have it, why doesn't she go and do it and have done with it?"

Now the centre of light on all matters pertaining to English is supposed to be New England, and Boston in particular; and last October (8th and 9th) there was held in Boston the twelfth annual meeting of the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, and I have just been reading in the December number of the *School Review* the report of the proceedings. "Fancy my feelings" when I read on page 648, lines 13-15: "When this good time comes, . . . we will not have so many mental abortions"; and *twice* on p. 681 (lines 7 and 14): "I would like to add a word"; "I would like to contribute." Can it be possible, Mr. Editor, that the general numbness as to these auxiliaries is actually extending towards the Hub? "If the foundations be destroyed," etc.

One other point: Is it correct to say, "Much data"? It must be, for it is in the same *School Review*, middle of p. 668; but it sounds odd to one as ignorant of English as is Yours truly, A. H.

Notes.

In Messrs. Appletons' "Literatures of the World" series, the next volume will be by Edmund Gosse, and will deal with 'Modern English Literature.'

D. C. Heath & Co. have in press 'The Contribution of the Oswego Normal School to Educational Progress in America,' by A. P. Hollis.

Henry Frowde will shortly publish 'The Bible References of John Ruskin,' selected by permission and alphabetically arranged by Mary and Ellen Gibbs.

In T. Fisher Unwin's "Masters of Medicine," Sir James Young Simpson becomes the next subject of biography, by Dr. Laing Gordon, a former pupil of Simpson's. The interest of the work centres in the introduction of anæsthetics.

'Hazell's Annual for 1898' (London: Hazell, Watson & Viney) renews itself with its customary thoroughness. Athletics in general, with cricket, cycling, golf, swimming, tennis, yachting, etc., for 1897 are duly chronicled; so are art, the drama, music, photography, trade; and in the case of British colonies and foreign countries the article on each concludes with a narrative of the principal events of the year. Then there are new biographies, new maps of seats of war and "spheres of influence," obituaries; the Jubilee looms up; statistics of prison

and post-office, of army and navy, movements of the Stock Exchange and of labor, religious conferences, and a host of other topics swell the contents of this most useful book of reference.

A second edition of Mr. W. F. Willcox's 'Divorce Problem' (Columbia University) contains an appendix giving the results of the eleventh census, so far as they bear on conjugal relations. The divorce rate during the twenty years ending in 1886 has somewhat declined in the North Atlantic States, doubled in the South Atlantic States, trebled in the South Central States, increased 54 per cent. in the Western States, 20 per cent. in the North Central States, and 44.5 per cent. in the whole country. The rate per 100,000 married couples was, in 1886, for the United States 250, for the Western States 527, for the North Atlantic States 149, and for the South Atlantic States 106. The tendency to increase seems especially marked in the last decade.

The Century Company has brought out in book form 'Campaigning with Grant,' by Gen. Horace Porter, which has been running in the Magazine as a serial. The illustrations are all full-page, on plate paper, and a number of good portraits have been added to the list of engravings. To the presswork of the De Vinne Press, add an uncommonly tasteful binding, and we have as handsome a specimen of book-making as one often sees. Speaking to the substance of this work, we cannot rate it highly. Not only is it badly diluted, but there is much more of Porter than of Grant in it. It is a companion-piece to Badeau.

Mr. Fred Mather has gained a good reputation as a fish-culturist and as a writer on fish and angling. His 'Men I Have Fished With' (*Forest and Stream* Publishing Co.) is made up of sketches which originally appeared in *Forest and Stream*, and the men it commemorates are perhaps better known to the readers of that journal than to the general public, with the possible exception of the late George Dawson and Col. Charles H. Raymond. While two or three of the stories have enough interest to justify reprinting, the rest of the twenty-odd cannot be recommended as either instructive or amusing.

The author of 'Camp and Trail' (Lothrop) deserves praise for her advocacy of humaneness in hunting, but does not successfully reproduce life in the Maine woods, still less depict its peculiar charm. This failure is not due to absence of long descriptions of scenery or to lack of stirring adventures. It comes from apparent inability to write good English, from ignorance of the vernacular of the guides, and from occasional slips sure to provoke an experienced camper. In a juvenile work, he is willing the youthful heroes should carry out bear, moose, and caribou on the same trip, but he rebels when a skilled woodsman walks through the forest, compass in one hand, axe in the other.

'For Pity's Sake,' by Sarah Nelson Carter (Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co.), is dedicated by the author to her horse, her dog, and her cat, and is meant to inculcate the lesson of mercy towards these and all other animals. The moral of the book, and its numerous anecdotes, are strung on a thread of narrative, the scene being laid at the old Mansion House in Andover, Mass., long the home of the author. Many are the animals whose lives have been made pleasant by her gentle appreciation of their needs and capacities, and many more, it is to be hoped, may be benefited by the touching appeals which she has here presented to the public in their behalf.

'Sunshine and Shadow,' by W. Lincoln Adams, is, as the sub-title indicates, "a book for photographers, amateur and professional." It is published in sumptuous style by the Baker & Taylor Co., New York. Richly and abundantly illustrated, its teaching is effective through the numerous reproductions of well-chosen plates, as through the excellent matter contained in the various articles, all of which have appeared at various times in the pages of the *Photographic Times* or of the *American Annual of Photography*. The book is edited by Mr. Adams, who has made his selections with great skill and taste. Such a work is especially welcome to those who desire to see photography developed along art lines, and not simply along commercial.

In 'Light, Visible and Invisible: Lectures at the Royal Institution,' by Silvanus P. Thompson (Macmillan), the author suggests a new method in geometrical optics which seems to be a step backward, whether viewed theoretically or practically. Bidwell's color-effects of intermittent vision, something about anomalous dispersion, about luminescence, perhaps about Hertz's work, about various kinds of invisible light, and Stottes's theory of the X-rays, are the only matters not familiar to the general reader concerning which this volume will furnish new information. But these things are enough to make it worth reading.

Prof. William S. Hall's 'Calculus' (Van Nostrand Co.) deserves mention as the briefest and simplest of expositions of the indispensable parts of the calculus, wholly in the interest of its applications and not of the theory of functions. Imaginaries are not considered. There are some injudicious omissions, such as linear differential equations with constant coefficients.

Prof. John Perry's 'Calculus for Engineers' (Edward Arnold) may be mentioned on account of its singular plan. It has three chapters. The first is entitled simply "x^n," and treats of such things as velocity, acceleration, energy, thermodynamics, moments of bending, etc. Chapter ii., entitled "e^x and sin x," treats of compound interest, telegraph leakage, Newton's law of cooling, slipping of belts, harmonic functions, imaginaries, forced vibrations, various electrical questions, symbols of operation, struts with lateral loads, etc. Chapter iii., entitled "Academic Exercises," gives Taylor's and Maclaurin's theorems on pp. 317-319, and on p. 322 takes up the solution of differential equations. These, with numerous practical examples (matter for several large volumes), carry us to p. 338, leaving thirty pages for elliptic functions, spherical harmonics, conduction of heat, the gamma function, etc. Such a lightning express through the calculus may very likely serve to give young men a sense of the importance of the subject and a desire to study it more systematically.

The sixth volume of the 'Discours et Opinions de Jules Ferry' comes from the press of Armand Colin & Cie., Paris. The speeches on economic questions are of particular interest even to American readers, perhaps especially to them. They constitute a large and important part of the present volume.

Since Émile de Laveleye's death, his contributions to magazines have been, in part at least, reprinted, and the third volume of these 'Essais et Études' (Paris: Félix Alcan) has reached us. It concludes the series, and contains articles which were originally published between 1883 and 1892. During his last years De Laveleye had access to all the leading reviews of the Continent, England, and the United States. He kept himself very well informed on public questions, and was willing to tackle anything which happened to be prominent for the time being. While we are far from sharing his economic views in their entirety, we are free to express our admiration of his learning, quick-wittedness, and pure moral tone. The editor of these scattered pieces concludes by stating that they will enable one "surtout à faire suivre pas à pas l'évolution de cet esprit élevé, si éminemment chrétien." The evidences of a fine temper are everywhere manifest in De Laveleye's works, and one is bound to take whatever he wrote seriously. The present essays have no further unity than is afforded by the well-known general interests of their author. Indeed, he once or twice gets off his beat of current politics and economics—for instance, when he describes a bear hunt in the Carpathians, and again in a paper on "Hamlet," contributed to the *Revue Bleue*. Written in an engaging style, these papers deserve not only to be saved from the sudden oblivion which overtakes journalistic literature, but to be carefully considered by the student of recent European history.

The twenty-second fascicule of the Hatzfeld 'Dictionnaire Général de la Langue Française' (Paris: Delagrave) carries this excellent work well along in P. Under *pékin*=civilian, the editors give no countenance to any of the proposed derivations, but leave the etymology uncertain.

'Politik: Vorlesungen gehalten an der Universität zu Berlin von Heinrich von Treitschke, herausgegeben von Max Cornicelius,' has just appeared in Leipzig from the press of Hirzel. The book is made up with the aid of the notes left by Treitschke, very fragmentary, to be sure, helped out, however, by several sets of shorthand notes lent to the editor by former students of the master. For those who know how much of his own personality Treitschke put into his lectures, and how often his most interesting words came at the moment, the work of the editor will seem remarkably successful, much more than a carefully restored text. As Herman Grimm says, "It is as if Treitschke himself were speaking to us." The "Politik" was one of his favorite courses, which he regularly gave each winter semester in Berlin, and had given earlier at Freiburg and at Heidelberg. The present volume contains two books, "Das Wesen des Staates" and "Die Socialen Grundlagen des Staates," preceded by a masterly introduction, which gives in a few words a summary of the attitude of previous teachers and the present state of the science. The editor promises that the second and concluding volume will very shortly follow. Not students alone, but every thinking man who gives a thought to the relations of the individual and the state, will find a deep interest in these volumes.

A pamphlet, 'Two Papers on the Oscan Word Anasaket,' by Lionel Horton Smith, contains a reprint from the *Classical Review* and a second paper on the same subject

which is an elaborate defence of the theory advanced in the first, to wit, that the puzzling Oscan *anaSaket* is nothing but the Greek ἀνέθηκε. Notwithstanding the vast amount of erudition which is brought forward to show the possibility of this view, it will doubtless seem to many extremely improbable. The author, who, as appears from the title-page, is now a barrister-at-law, has shown an astonishing productivity in the last two years, as may be seen from the array of titles and press notices printed at the end of the work.

The principal paper in the *Geographical Journal* for December is an account, by Capt. P. M. Sykes, of three extensive journeys in Persia, in which he refers incidentally, but in strong terms, to the benefit conferred by Russia on Central Asia, and Persia in particular, by suppressing the Turkoman terror. The slave-hunting raids of these freebooters, which till recently extended throughout northeastern and central Persia, have now ceased, and they themselves have advanced in civilization through Russian influence. The description of a visit to the oasis of Siwa, in the Libyan desert, famous for its temple of Jupiter Ammon, is interesting but disappointing. Some ancient tombs were seen, but there is no mention of the ruins of the temple, nor of the "Fountain of the Sun," which excited the wonder of Herodotus. The fruit gardens and date-palm forests, however, are still marvels of beauty and luxuriance. Of dates, the principal production of the inhabitants and their currency practically, there are five kinds cultivated, the best of which is too juicy to be exported. The oasis is apparently a stronghold of the fanatical Mohammedan sect of the Senussi, whose hostility to strangers, and especially Europeans, prevented any thorough exploration. Capt. A. W. Stiffe continues his account of the ancient trading centres of the Persian Gulf by a description of Maskat and a sketch of its history. Each of these articles is illustrated and accompanied by maps.

Gold-mining in Pahang, a "Protected State" in the Malay Peninsula, is the principal subject of a paper in the Transactions of the Queensland Branch of the Royal Geographical Society of Australia. The returns are not yet very great, but the three large quartz-mining companies, each with twenty head of stampers at work, are now getting more than enough gold to defray expenses. The ore is, on the whole, of low grade, averaging about half an ounce of gold per ton. Ancient native workings are very numerous in the gold districts. On one hill there were "some hundreds of shafts, some of them 100 feet deep." The miners are said to have been Siamese.

Petermann's Mitteilungen, No. 11, contains the first part of a diary of a recent journey in Syria and southeastern Asia Minor, by R Oberhummer. It is laudatory of the Turkish authorities, but contains numerous references to the oppressed condition of the Christian Greeks and Armenians. In several places they have taken up their abode in almost inaccessible caves the better to defend themselves against the Turks, while the passage of a body of recruits through a village caused all the women and children to hide themselves in the crypt of a monastery. An account of the province of Yakutsk, Siberia, fairly bristles with statistics of every kind, meteorological, ethnographical, commercial, agricultural, and hunting. In 1894, for instance, there were 13,434 professional hunters who killed 218,812 animals, of which 179,242 were squirrels.

A certain interest, though hardly much importance, attaches to the unsettled question of the date of Heine's birth. Hermann Hüffner has only recently (in the *Rundschau*) pleaded in favor of December 13, 1797. But now we learn from another source that the sculptor Hasselriis of Rome is, by agreement with the poet's relatives, working at a monument which is to be unveiled on his grave at Montmartre on December 17, 1899, "the poet's one-hundredth birthday." The proceeds from the sale of a brochure, 'Das Heine-Grab auf dem Montmartre' (Leipzig: Barsdorf), and the interest of a sum exceeding five thousand marks collected at Frankfort, will be applied to keeping the tomb in a worthy state of preservation now and henceforth. According to Hüffner, the musical compositions of Heine's poems, by Schubert, Mendelssohn, Schumann, Brahms, Robert Franz, and others, number more than 3,000. "Du bist wie eine Blume" alone has been set to music 160 times; of other lyrics there are 83 and 76 different compositions, of "Die Lorelei," 37.

About two years ago we called attention to M. Joseph Texte's work on the literary relations between France and England. The same writer contributes to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for December 1 an article on a similar subject: "L'Influence Allemande dans le Romantisme Français." German literature, it is shown, exerted but little influence on the Romantic movement, but the essay contains much of interest and is entertaining throughout. It forms a valuable supplement to Professor Rossel's volume on the literary relations between France and Germany, which was reviewed in these columns in April last. We notice that both the authors mentioned trace to M. Brunetière the incentive to their literary investigations.

Such a communication as that of Mr. James Gairdner to the *Academy* of December 11 must give Dr. Murray pain. Here is a well-known literary man, "on the subject of the Queen's English," questioning the sense of a perfectly intelligible idiom, *for the time being*. He raises his humble protest "against a phrase which I now find of perpetual recurrence." A glance at the Oxford Dictionary would have shown him that it has been recurring for the past four centuries and a half. "The time being" is, of course, the hour which "now *is*."

For some twenty years past, geologists have been familiar with the plain of the Red River of Minnesota and North Dakota as the floor of an ancient lake, whose outlet ran southward over a slight depression in the uplands, and there cut a deep and broad channel, leading the overflow to the Mississippi, the channel now being occupied only by the water from little side streams whose combined volume forms what we call the Minnesota River. Warren Upham, as a member of the Geological Survey of Minnesota, gave the name of Agassiz to the ancient lake, and has now completed an elaborate account of it, which forms Monograph xxv. of the United States Geological Survey. As is often the case with such problems, their complexity increases with the study given to them. Instead of a single, well-defined shore line, marking a steady level of the lake, there is a remarkable succession of shore lines at low and lower levels, whose planes are not parallel to each other, but diverge northward, as if the land had been rising to the north during the lowering of the lake. A number of the shore planes unite at the southern outlet, but others stand below it, indicating that some other discharge had been discovered. The most remarkable feature in connection with the lake is that its northern border was formed by the retreating margin of the continental ice sheet. It had many fellows in this respect about the basins of the existing Great Lakes, and these will in due time probably yield up histories as marvellous as that here described.

When the Italian Government took away the Pope's temporal power, it retained the Pacca Edict, under which a duty of 20 per cent. ad valorem was collected upon "antiquities" carried out of the Papal Dominions. In a case which has lately been adjudicated by the Court of Appeals at Rome, a decision has been given that the Pacca Edict applies only to such articles as are "precious," or of exceptional value in history or art. This judgment does not advance matters, and it is much to be desired that the Italian Government will see its way to repeal the edict altogether.

—The death of Miss Anna Ticknor last year deprived the "Society to Encourage Studies at Home," familiarly known as "S. H.," of its founder and most zealous worker. It is now twenty-five years since Miss Ticknor, inspired by the success of a similar society in England, organized this association, which aimed at reaching those women who, for various reasons, were debarred from the privilege of regular education. Miss Ticknor wisely recognized that such a society, conducted by correspondence, can achieve little in the way of absolute instruction; and "guidance, criticism, and sympathy" were the watchwords of her modest and genuinely useful efforts. It is refreshing to meet with an educational association that hopes "never to get into the newspapers," and shrinks from the "ill effects of public comment and applause." A quarter of a century ago the need of such a stimulus to home-reading in out-of-the-way districts must have been far greater than in these days of university-extension lectures and numerous facilities for those who ask an agreeable and not too profound acquaintance with learning. It was therefore felt by the friends of the Society that this year its work might fitly end with the publication of the small volume before us. The description of Miss Ticknor's work and its results in 'Society to Encourage Studies at Home' (Riverside Press) will naturally be of interest chiefly to those who have been connected with the Society. The introduction is contributed by Mrs. Louis Agassiz; the book itself is mainly composed of extracts from Miss Ticknor's correspondence with the pupils, who, in 1882, numbered one thousand. No one into whose hands it falls can fail to be impressed with the unselfish devotion of the founder and chief worker in this "silent university," and the genuine success that she achieved.

—The fifty-second volume of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) extends from Shearman to Smirke, with a good measure of celebrities, including the poet Shelley and his wife Mary, Sheridan, the Siddonses, Algernon and Sir Philip Sidney. The notice of Shelley is encomiastic to the

usual degree of extenuating his behavior to Harriet Westbrook, whose intellectual qualities (offsetting the plea of "incompatibility") are by no means suggested in the account of her, as they are revealed in her letters to Miss Nugent. These letters are mentioned as having "been printed separately," in a limited edition. So far as our knowledge goes, they have never been reprinted since they were first published in the *Nation* (Nos. 1249, 1250). Sir William Siemens and Henry Shrapnel (from whom came the shell bearing his name) find a place here impartially, the one a constructive, the other a destructive inventor. To the equal sky of the Dictionary is also admitted Jack Sheppard, the highwayman, who, it seems, was buried in the old churchyard of St. Martin-in-the-Fields, the present site of the National Gallery. Finally, as Dr. Murray tells of ghost-words that have haunted the dictionaries, we have in the prophetic "Mother Shipton" a mythical personage, who once more forces her way into line, if only to be discredited for ever. In fact, for practical purposes, she remains as real, say, as Timur the Tartar, or that Talleyrand to whom we ascribe all bonmots of uncertain origin. It is curious to observe how little is related (beyond the titles of his numerous linguistic works) of Walker's remodeller, Benjamin Humphrey Smart, whose 'New Critical Pronouncing Dictionary' (1836) was long the standard.

—Literary activity continues at an increasing rate in Japan, and even the outlying portions of the empire, Yezo and Formosa, have their newspapers. Of journals and periodicals started during the year 1894, as the freshly published official statistics show, the number was 518, though during the same time 506 ceased publication. Among the 814 journals and other serials that still presumably hold their own, 720 are published in Hondo, the main island. Among these are some of a very high class, both as to form, literary contents, and pictorial embellishment. The total circulation in 1894 was 367,735,426 copies. The *Asahi Shimbun* or *Morning Sun* newspaper of Osaka, conducted after the French model of *Le Petit Journal*, has the largest circle of readers. Besides capital cartoons (by a woman artist), several columns of chat and criticism, translations of foreign fiction, a *feuillcton*, telegraphic news, and home and foreign correspondence, the owners employ some of the best modern mechanical presses and appliances. Nevertheless, its place of business in this country of earthquakes is, very sensibly, in one of the old-fashioned one-storied but very roomy *yashiki* (spread-out house) of feudal days. This paper circulates in all parts of the empire, which has a population of 45,000,000 souls. In the more serious matters of copyright, Japan's literary activity is even more noticeable. In 1894 the total number of artistic and literary products which came under notice of the Department of Public Instruction was 28,212. Of these, 8,962 were classed as original works, 18,831 as volumes or pictures in a series, 191 were translations, and 228 were reprints. Judged by the number of works issued, the subjects most in favor with authors and the public were law, religion, painting, geography, astronomy, calendars and almanacs, music, engraving, pedagogy, history, agriculture, medicine, poetry, and popular songs. In romance and fiction, what was lost in the small number of books published was made up in the vastly greater relative and actual circulation. Divination still has numerous votaries, and so has "Chinese" poetry, though that constructed in Japanese style is much more voluminous and popular.

—The calendar of the Imperial University of Japan for 1896-'7 (Tokyo: Z. P. Maruya & Co.) is a booklet of 368 pages in all, giving an historical summary, the Imperial ordinances, the general regulation for the colleges of law, medicine, engineering, literature, science, agriculture, roster of students, professors, and graduates, a list of the journals, memoirs, and bulletins written by specialists and published by the University, with a map of the University grounds, which are those of the old daimio of Kaga—both ample and beautiful. The former wooden buildings have given way to edifices of modern architecture and of brick, though some are of iron and concrete. In October, 1896, the grand total of students in all departments was 1,895. Of these, 554 were in the college of law, 276 in medicine, 345 in engineering, 248 in literature, 106 in science, and 219 in agriculture; the others being special students. The actual number of graduates is 2,771, of whom 199 have died. This, considered in connection with the large number of those who have studied in foreign countries and those graduated from other learned institutions in Japan, shows a body of at least 10,000 men in the empire who have been instructed with considerable thoroughness in modern scientific methods

—In comparing the details of the courses with the themes chosen for scientific, literary, and legal theses, we are struck with the fact that the University reflects the general national feeling of the past four years. We note in this calendar a marked reaction from tendencies in full force from about 1873 to about 1893, which bade fair to denationalize Japan and to modify injuriously her spirit of self-protective independence. During this movement (since 1893) there have been some fantastic phases of Chauvinism; but, apart from these, it must be evident to the thoughtful that such a reaction has been on the whole wholesome. In every direction the thoughts of the Japanese are now being applied to interpreting their past history, conserving what is excellent, applying the principles of science to the improvement of the soil, food, habitations, every-day life, and generally to the reconstruction, in the light of science, of their civilization. The list of publications in German and English shows how admirably this work of national regeneration is proceeding. Yet the lover of literature sighs to find, amid the scores of learned publications, agricultural, chemical, medical, engineering, and the like, the one lone monograph on the language, mythology, and nomenclature of Japan, viewed in the light of Aino studies, by Basil Hall Chamberlain. Surely literature is yet to meet with higher honors in Dai Nippon.

STICKNEY'S STATE CONTROL OF TRADE.

State Control of Trade and Commerce by National or State Authority. By Albert Stickney. Baker, Voorhis & Co. 1897.

Mr. Stickney's Introduction gives a good idea of the drift of his book. He calls attention, in the first place, to the fact that recent decisions of our highest legal tribunals, especially the United States Supreme Court and the New York Court of Appeals, hold that a mere combination of common carriers, or of private property-owners, "providing for the fixing of rates and prices for their own property, by one common authority for all," constitutes a crime. These decisions are, he thinks, so hopelessly in conflict with the fundamental principles of the law of property under a modern constitutional government, that great interest attaches at the present time to an examination of the law of the subject. A short review of the history of the English and American law relating to state control of trade and commerce shows that the recent statutes on which these decisions have been based are not novelties; that they are really revivals of old attempts to protect the community against "dangers of the imagination," and that they will in time share the fate of their originals. The early statutory attempts in England took various forms. Some acts regulated prices of labor and merchandise; others, as to trade and commerce of specific kinds, were entirely prohibitory—*e.g.*, statutes prohibiting the export of gold and silver, of grain, of wool, of tools and machinery, and forbidding the departure of artificers from the kingdom to work in foreign countries. One class of acts was aimed at attempts to raise prices by "engrossing," or buying and holding in quantity with a view to subsequent sales at an advance. These statutes, had they been enforced, would have abolished the occupation of wholesale merchant and middleman, and would have compelled every producer to be his own salesman. Trade and commerce as they exist to supply the needs of any modern community could never have come into existence. In connection with these statutes there existed others, against conspiracies or combinations to raise prices of both labor and merchandise; they were part of the same general scheme of state control.

In time, all these attempts to control prices and labor were abandoned. Even in the early reports there is very little evidence of attempts on the part of the authorities to enforce them, and gradually they became obsolete. At length they were repealed altogether, and to-day in England "the law is well established that the ownership of property, of all kinds, comprises not only the right of free use (always subject to the proviso that its use is to be in such a manner as not to interfere with the rights of others), but also the right of free sale, at the will of the owner, whether the property be labor or merchandise, and whether the owner's will be exercised separately or in combination with other individuals."

In this country, with some early exceptions, there was, until recent times, virtually no attempt on the part of the Government to interfere with freedom of contract in private employment. The present widespread alarm over "Trusts" and "monopolies" recalls the vague primitive dread of oppression through an excessive raising of prices, and this although, as a matter of fact, owing to the railroad and telegraph and their effect in making the markets of the whole world one, all danger from any attempt to enhance prices has been for ever removed. This alarm has produced the new legislative craze for interfering with freedom of contract. Our anti-Trust and anti-monopoly statutes consequently represent

a revival, at the end of the nineteenth century, of statutes which reflect the ideas prevalent in England in the time of Edward III.

This view of the subject, it will be seen, confines the attention to private property. Mr. Stickney insists upon the validity of the distinction between private property and employments and a class of property and employments of a public nature. Control of these, both as to the use of the property and as to the prices to be obtained for such use, he deems essential. This distinction separates from ordinary private property all companies exercising a public franchise, such as railroads, telephone, and telegraph companies, gas and electric-light companies, ferry companies. It is substantially the distinction laid down by the Supreme Court of the United States, that the Legislature must control all property "affected with a public interest."

We must say that, in our view, this distinction, notwithstanding the vast array of authority by which it can be supported, is unsound. To mention only a single reason: there is not, in nature or in use, any line between the two kinds of private property. If the attempt is made to find it in the fact that some property consists in franchises directly derived from the state, the difficulty is that, in modern times, every species of property takes on a corporate form. The business of selling books or clothes may be carried on by a corporation with a franchise resembling at many essential points that of a railroad. If the line is supposed to divide property which meets a public want from other species of property, we can only say that every species of property the value of which arises from use must meet a public want to yield the owner a return. Transportation is not any more a public necessity than a roof over one's head; yet the same courts which set their faces sternly against a railroad's right to fix its own rates, concede without hesitation the right of the owner of a house to ask what rent for it he pleases. We should, in fact, be inclined to go much further than Mr. Stickney—to obliterate this distinction, and maintain that the freedom from state control which the owner of property ought to enjoy in a rational system is absolute within the field of all reasonable contracts; that the state ought to interfere only in cases of clearly proved extortion and oppression; and that then the interference should be for the occasion only. The theory that the state can interfere whenever it can be shown that property is "affected with a public interest" would necessarily, it seems to us, end in a general regulation of all prices.

Nor do we find the distinction in Mr. Stickney's historical review of the development of the English law. In the *Mogul* steamship case, decided in 1892, in which the whole matter was thoroughly canvassed, it was held that a combination of carriers to keep up rates of transportation and suppress competition was legal. This was a case of public, not private employment, if there be any such distinction. We do not find any evidence in this book that the English Government makes any attempt to regulate transportation rates in general.

It seems to us, on the contrary, that it is an erroneous distinction introduced by our own courts in the last twenty-five years, in order to find a *locus standi* for populistic legislation, and that it has broken down in its application. In proof of this we should cite the leading American case cited by Mr. Stickney to show the nature of the distinction, viz., Munn vs. Illinois. In that case the Supreme Court of the United States upheld the right of the State of Illinois to fix by statute grain-elevator rates, "it being the conceded fact that the elevators were private property." In order to make this case illustrate the law of "public employment," Mr. Stickney is forced to insist that the elevators had "become virtually part of the public highways."

In Mr. Stickney's view the distinction in question was successfully maintained by the courts down to a few years since, and the main thesis of his book is to demonstrate that the recent decision of the New York Court of Appeals in People vs. Sheldon, and the judgment of the Supreme Court at Washington in the Trans-Missouri case, were at war with all hitherto recognized legal principles. For the acute argument by which he reaches this conclusion we must refer the reader to the book. The sum of the matter is that, after 600 years, the highest tribunal of the country has laid it down that a mere contract to fix rates or prices, which interferes with nobody and injures no one, is a crime because the Legislature has called it one; thus reintroducing in the high-noon of our boasted civilization one of the most barbarous delusions of our uninstructed ancestors. Mr. Stickney seems to think this a sudden plunge; we, on the contrary, think it but the last result of a process which began with decisions of twenty-five years since; if not counteracted, it must certainly end in making the judiciary a subservient tool of the Legislature and in destroying every vestige of common right.

Mr. Stickney's standing at the bar is such as to make his discussion of the main question authoritative. Especially in the present state of confusion on the subject of legislative interference with private right is such a contribution to discussion as this welcome. It is literally true that the Supreme Court, by a majority of one, has just decided that Congress may make the most innocent act a crime, and the question now is whether this position is to become a permanent part of our system. No one can examine Mr. Stickney's book without perceiving the magnitude of the interests at stake. We have no room for quotation; but we may call the reader's attention especially to the economical statements on which his legal theory is based and which strike us as masterly. They are really an essential part of the legal reasoning.

THE LIBERATION OF FRANCE.

M. Thiers: Le Comte de Saint-Vallier: Le Général de Manteuffel. Libération du Territoire. 1871-1873. Documents Inédits. Par Henri Doniol, Membre de l'Institut. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie. 1897.

Among the woes of France in 1871 the obligation of cash payment was not the worst. The loss of territory was much more keenly felt than the loss of the milliards, and article viii. of the Peace of Frankfort probably inflicted, for the time at least, the deepest wound of all. To have soldiers of one's own race forcibly quartered upon one has long been accounted a hardship by the nations of the Continent, as it was by the English in 1628. Thiers had much to suffer in the course of his negotiations, but nothing could have grieved him more than to admit German claims of garrison till the last payment—that is, till March 1, 1875. One need not enumerate the inconveniences of such an arrangement to the French, apart from its insult to the national pride. On the economic side they were enormous and of wide application. Thiers has sometimes been charged with wastefulness in anticipating his payments, but even a Bonapartist editor like Cassagnac could hardly withhold from him his highest title, "Liberator of the Territory."

M. Henri Doniol, in the very important monograph before us, confines his attention to a chain of political intercourse which began with the signing of peace and extended to the evacuation of France at Conflans-et-Jarny more than two years later. Public attention has usually been fastened upon the financial side of the indemnity question—upon what one may call its Pouyer-Quertier aspect. M. Doniol does not profess to throw fresh light on the expedients devised for procuring the money. With the aid of a full correspondence carried on by several of the leading personages concerned, he investigates the relations of the Provisional Government and the German Empire in so far as they deal with anticipation of payment and reduction of the period of occupation. Under his treatment the negotiations assume almost the color of personal contract. The number of determining individual factors is brought down to a minimum. M. Doniol rarely finds it necessary to go outside a little *parti carré:* on the one side Thiers and the Comte de Saint-Vallier; on the other, Bismarck and Gen. Manteuffel.

Of these the interest attaching to the officer last named is by far the most notable. With respect to Bismarck, M. Doniol's sources of information are probably those of all the world. The energy, suavity, and jauntiness of Thiers are somewhat accentuated by his new documents. But not till this moment has the extent of the service rendered to their own countries and to the cause of European peace by Saint-Vallier and Manteuffel been fully recognized. Saint-Vallier's long and creditable diplomatic career is on record, but the extent of his physical disabilities has never been appreciated, nor the discouragements which beset his path during the term of his residence at Compiègne and Nancy. Manteuffel is remembered for his part in the war—perhaps best remembered for his prompt action in the southeast, when Bourbaki's army was forced into Switzerland. The Emperor's warm friendship designated him, in spite of Bismarck's coolness, to the command of the army of occupation, in which position he contributed materially to smoothing the way for a return to the amenities of normal intercourse. He seems never to have forgotten that France was a sister nation in distress. For complete absence of rancor, for sedulous avoidance of the causes of friction, for tender consideration, even, he deserves honorable mention among the worthies of modern warfare. One might easily forget that he was a soldier and put him down as a philanthropist. He lived through much abuse from the German press in those days of mænadic boasting. Secure in the esteem of his master, he lent himself to the task of hastening the evacuation, thereby assuaging the lot of the vanquished while he secured his country's acknowledged due. Respect for Thiers, belief in the sta-

bility of the republic and in its honesty, and sympathy for the French character, inclined him towards friendliness of action. He was equally frank in character and utterance.

A citation from one of many letters to Thiers will show in what spirit the German conceived his task. The following words were written at Compiègne in July, 1871, at a moment when some friction had arisen concerning the payment of the first half-milliard. Manteuffel, after helping to render an explanation easy, thus disclaimed having merited any special thanks:

"Votre Excellence est trop bonne. Qu'ai-je donc fait? Rien que mon devoir. Quelle était la situation? Mon roi m'a donné le commandement de son armée en France. Moi, j'ai dans ma jeunesse étudié l'histoire de la France; j'ai de même beaucoup lu M. Thiers; je connais le caractère français. Donc, après avoir fait la connaissance de Votre Excellence et de plusieurs membres de son ministère, j'ai gagné la conviction que ce caractère est représenté dans le gouvernement actuel de la France, et je me suis rendu vis-à-vis de mon gouvernement garant de la loyauté française. J'ai écrit que le payement des quatre premiers demi-milliards serait accéléré de manière qu'en peu de mois le chiffre des troupes allemandes en France serait réduit au nombre de 50,000 hommes stipulé dans la paix. . . . Tout à coup arrivent des difficultés de vérification matérielle du payement du premier demi-milliard; mais Votre Excellence écrit que la somme est payée! Aurais-je agi dans l'esprit de notre convention verbale basée sur de la loyauté mutuelle, si j'avais gardé pour moi cette déclaration du Chef du Pouvoir Exécutif? Je devais en faire part à mon souverain. Je le fais, et Sa Majesté Impériale peut prouver devant l'Europe qu'elle . . . a confiance dans chaque mot écrit de Votre Excellence."

One is not surprised that a French historian is ready to do justice by such a German.

In the autumn of the same year the Pouyer-Quertier convention was signed at Berlin, and the release of six departments was among its first effects. Manteuffel gave up his command for a short time to take a holiday at Gastein, leaving Gen. Stosch in his place. Headquarters were shifted from Compiègne to Nancy, where an incident soon occurred which showed of what material consequence to the French was the individuality of the commander-in-chief. Stosch began by quarrelling with the intendant, Blondeau, over some questions arising from the maintenance of the troops. Personal relations between the two were broken off, and Stosch permitted one of his colonels to eject the Mayor of Nancy with wife and family from his own house till some blankets for his câserne had been provided. Manteuffel returned at the end of October to find St.-Vallier engaged in an attempt to secure redress for the damage and indignity inflicted. Stosch was immovable in his contention against Blondeau, and when Manteuffel sought to heal the breach, his second appealed the case direct to Bismarck, with a view to rendering the commander in France subject to the Chancellor and even to the officials of the Chancellor's department, such as Arnim.

This incident illustrates one class of irritations to which Manteuffel was subject. Another and more trying source of discomfort to him was the lack of reserve shown by French Ministers and the French press at critical junctures when he was doing his best for the Versailles Government. A striking instance of his admirable temper is afforded by the manner in which he tolerated a blazing indiscretion of Pouyer-Quertier. The evacuation of the forts on the right bank of the Seine was under negotiation. Matters were moving well. Manteuffel had communicated to St.-Vallier, under seal of secrecy, intelligence of the most vital character. It was to be conveyed to Thiers, but St.-Vallier was responsible for safeguarding it from the public ear. Through Pouyer-Quertier, however, it leaked out and found its way to the *Soir* before the end of twenty-four hours. For a moment Manteuffel was intensely exasperated, compromised as he was in the eyes of Berlin by an undoubted *faux pas*. Then he recovered his composure, and could find it in his heart to sympathize with St.-Vallier, whose peace of mind had been destroyed by connection with an apparent breach of faith:

"Monsieur le Chef du Pouvoir Exécutif, la situation est trop tendue pour l'aggraver encore par des susceptibilités personnelles. Je prie Votre Excellence d'être convaincu que vu ces circonstances je serai, tant qu'il le sera possible, plus conciliant que jamais dans tout ce qui regarde l'armée d'occupation. Je ne m'en fais pas de mérite, c'est en même temps l'intérêt de mon pays qui me dicte cette conduite. Je finis ma lettre en adressant la prière à Votre Excellence de ne pas s'occuper de ces articles du *Soir*, et de dire au comte de Saint-Vallier, s'il vous en écrit, qu'il possède toujours et malgré cette publication mon estime et toute ma confiance."

The moral value of a friend like Manteuffel was hardly second to the practical value. The Provisional Government was overjoyed to find some one in high quarters who thoroughly trusted it. Confidence was generally felt in the ability of France to pay her indebtedness; the crux of the situation was her willingness. The Parisian newspapers were far too ready to soothe the broken pride of their readers with such rhetoric as: "We will pay the first two milliards in cash, the balance with the mitrailleuse." On the other hand, the German press in 1871 was full of distrustful murmurings. The sight and touch of the milliards in the end soothed it, but so long as there was a chance to remain sceptical concerning the performance of French undertakings, it wrested every untoward circumstance or rumor the wrong way. Alternate volleys of journalistic diatribe, however, were of slight moment after Bismarck abandoned all idea of a Bonapartist restoration. His growing conviction that Thiers could and would redeem the Versailles pledges smoothed the way for a reconciliation between him and Manteuffel. The Chancellor's change of disposition was soon confirmed by Arnim's intrigues, and in September, 1872, Manteuffel, after spending night upon night with him at Gastein, could announce confidentially to his French friends that unless the political situation in France materially changed (a glance at Gambetta), evacuation would be hastened even more rapidly than could be gathered from the treaty of June 20.

While the personal friction between Bismarck and Manteuffel lessened rapidly after a harmony of political opinion had been reached, both found themselves annoyed by the proceedings of the German Ambassador at Paris. The full extent of Arnim's negotiations with the Imperialists was revealed to the public, including Thiers, only when they had ceased to have any bearing on the liberation of the territory. We are not here concerned with his personal character, his ambitions, or his downfall. It is enough that he was at the other pole from Manteuffel in public policy, and was by the leverage of his office in a position to undo much of what was being effected at Nancy by daily intercourse between the General and Saint-Vallier. Delay and misrepresentation were his two principal weapons against the Provisional Government. M. Doniol has little new intelligence to offer concerning his relations with Bismarck. They were amply disclosed at the trial and have often been the subject of discussion since. But one is interested to note how soon he fell under suspicion at Nancy, and how Manteuffel's attitude towards France was confirmed by his conviction that, were Arnim left to himself, the honorable conclusion of a solemn agreement would be thwarted by the trickery of a wirepuller. Having failed in his intrigues, Arnim was yet anxious to set his name to the final treaty of 1873. When Bismarck snubbed him by arranging everything with Thiers through Gontaut, and by himself signing the papers in Berlin instead of permitting Arnim to sign them in Paris, there must have been much quiet satisfaction at Nancy. Exactly one month after the question of Verdun or Belfort had been settled, Manteuffel gave a birthday banquet in honor of Thiers. Bismarck's telegram of congratulation was a seal of approval upon what the commanding officer had done for the cause of national reconciliation in the face of Arnim's secret enmity and the blatherskite of German editors.

M. Doniol makes a long catalogue of the annoyances, grave and petty, that had to be mastered in the course of negotiations. We shall add only one obstacle to those we have already cited. Gambetta was a bugbear at Berlin, and the fear that he might supplant Thiers was countenanced by numerous debates in the Assembly. The German military party used it constantly as an argument, and it was of more real moment than ordinary political or stock-exchange forensics. All through 1872 the danger arising from his harangues took that prominent place in diplomatic correspondence which had been occupied in the previous year by questions relating to the stated payments. Public speeches of Thiers against "la campagne oratoire à laquelle se livrait le tribun" strengthened Manteuffel's dispatches to Berlin, and a few months showed that Gambetta was out of the Presidential race. Of greater weight than assurances was the prompt discharge of the indebtedness. So long as the money was forthcoming at proper intervals, it was obvious that the nation was not convinced, though it might be tickled, by Chauvinist eloquence.

We could wish that M. Doniol had vouchsafed a bibliographical note concerning his sources. He has been empowered to use very valuable material, and his temper, though not judicial, is tolerably fair. We feel bound to call prominent attention to the merits of his style. Were he less prone to talk about what "le juge futur" will think of the Franco-German war, we should say that he had observed all the canons of good literary taste and expression.

The War of Greek Independence, 1821-1833. By W. Alison Phillips, late Scholar of Merton College, Senior Scholar of St. John's College, Oxford. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1897.

That the Greeks should have succeeded in securing their independence, and in being recognized as a new European state, seems

more surprising than ever, in the light of recent events. The Concert of Europe of 1897 is a very good counterpart of the Holy Alliance of 1822. The appearance of an impartial, adequate, and readable account of what the Greeks call the struggle of their regeneration is therefore timely. Mr. Phillips has drawn from the best sources, Mendelssohn-Bartholdy, Finlay, Gordon, and Prokesch-Osten, and writes with the fresh interest which recent events in Greece have contributed to inspire and increase. He might have mentioned Tricoupis's 'History of the Greek Revolution,' a classic of the modern Greek language, and Pouqueville's first-hand 'Histoire de la Régénération de la Grèce.' But the compilation gives abundant evidence that the author has digested his material, and he has presented it in an attractive form. We are made to realize that the rebellion of the Greeks succeeded because the Greeks were unalterably determined not to live longer under Turkish rule. This determination did not imply that, at the time of the outbreak, their condition was worse than it had been in previous periods. On the contrary, it was better. The Greeks were not very badly treated, in Greece. They lived a fairly comfortable life. But the very relaxing of the severity of oppression hastened the rebellion.

The interest which attaches to the Greek Revolution is in no wise temporary. It was a remarkable struggle, and there was a wonderful variety in the characters of the persons who were prominent in it. There may be mentioned the Phanariotes, Ypsilanti and Mavrocordatos; the Corfiote, Capodistrias, who resigned the position of Minister of Foreign Affairs at St. Petersburg to accept the presidency of the Greek State, and to die by assassination while attempting to organize a government. Next we may name Ali Pasha, the infamous tyrant of Yanina, and Colettes, Ali's physician, subsequently, for a brief time, at the head of the provisional government. Another graduate from Ali Pasha's school was Karaiskakis, transformed from a wild, treacherous brigand to a great national leader. The two commanding figures of the Peloponnesus were Kolokotronis and Mavromichalis. Marco Botzaris was the hero of Missolonghi. From the islands, we mention one name only, but that of the noblest character whom modern Greece has produced — Admiral Miaulis. Lord Byron may fitly close the list, for his sacrifices and, finally, his death at Missolonghi had immense influence in strengthening the philhellenic sentiment in Europe which finally compelled the recognition of the Greek kingdom.

The struggle also abounded in incidents of dramatic interest. We will not dwell upon the hideous massacres of Tripolitza, where Greeks slaughtered 2,000 captives, or of Scio, where Turks butchered 27,000 Christians. Besides such horrors, there were the novel campaigns with fire-ships, under the intrepid Canaris, by which the Greeks fairly scared the Turks out of the Archipelago. Repeatedly, too, in the course of the war, Greeks, when hope of defence was gone, fired a pistol into the powder magazine and overwhelmed besiegers and besieged in the explosion. To this war belongs, too, the siege of Missolonghi, which will always be cited as an example of a heroism fully Spartan. Mr. Phillips points out that there was little to choose, in respect to barbarity, between the Turks and the Greeks. Signal instances of bravery on the part of Greeks, or of dogged endurance on the part of Turks, abound. Rarely was ability in handling troops shown on either side. The Greeks seldom preoccupied a pass, and the Turks rarely followed up an advantage which they had gained. The ablest continuous land operation was Ibrahim Pasha's invasion and reconquest of the Morea, in 1824. The diplomacy of each of the four great Powers steadily opposed the aspirations of the Greeks. But, in France and in England, a strengthening popular opinion helped the Greeks, and finally it was Russia which, from selfish policy, took the step which led to the recognition of Greek independence. In his glance at recent history, Mr. Phillips is inclined to believe that Lord Salisbury's diplomacy had kindly designs for the Greeks, if they had been willing to accept the autonomy of Crete, instead of demanding the union of the island with Greece. Greece might well have been content with what would have come to her in the working out of Salisbury's larger plans.

It is impossible to lay down such a book as this without asking the question, whether Greece has still a future, or whether her significance, as an independent state, is ended. The present condition of Greece, however pitiable, is incomparably better than that of the country sixty years ago, when the monarchy was established. Then the land was almost a desert, the people were a half-million famished peasants, with only the slightest varnish of civilization. Now, in addition to an increase of population of at least three-fold, the Greeks have the organization and institutions of a civilized state, and, though their national career has been full of disappointment to those who have expected too much of them, their worst faults have always been the same: vanity, impatience, lack of thoroughness, and aversion to steady toil. If it were possible that the recent disaster could lead them to devote their attention to an honest and efficient management of their own affairs, Greece would still have her day of influence in the Orient.

The Romance of the Irish Stage; with Pictures of the Irish Capital in the Eighteenth Century. By J. Fitzgerald Molloy. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1897.

Mr. Molloy was not very happy in his selection of a title, for, in spite of occasional brilliant episodes, there is little that is romantic in the generally calamitous and often humiliating story that he has to tell, while the main part of his theatrical history is devoted necessarily to the fortunes of the old Smock Alley, Aungier Street, and Crow Street Theatres of Dublin. Nor has he been able to unearth any new material of importance in his researches in this restricted field. He furnishes a consecutive and, doubtless, accurate record of the disastrous rivalry which brought one manager after another to ruin, and of the extraordinary expedients which were employed to attract the public to the playhouses; yet tells practically nothing that has not been told over and over again in the various theatrical biographies, while, in general outline, his narrative corresponds very closely with the history of the English stage during the same period.

Beyond doubt Ireland contributed an extraordinary number of brilliant stars to the dramatic constellations of the eighteenth century. Few names have brighter lustre than those of Peg Woffington, Charles Macklin, Tom Sheridan, Henry Mossop, Spranger Barry, whose voice in tragic passages was described as "harmony in an uproar," Dorothy Jordan, Richard Daly, and the beautiful Miss Bellamy, all of whom won some of their greatest triumphs among their enthusiastic compatriots, and all of whom, of course, figure prominently in Mr. Fitzgerald's pages. He writes of them in a vivacious and agreeable manner, but does not present them in any new light, and makes no attempt to speculate upon their respective excellences. His work is anecdotal, not critical, and, notwithstanding its array of dates and financial statistics, can be commended only as a collection of entertaining gossip. Of sober reflection it is entirely destitute, but it is sprinkled plentifully with characteristic and humorous stories, most of them venerable, if all good of their kind, which afford a lively picture of the social conditions then prevailing.

By far the greater part of these two volumes is occupied with illustrations of the so-called gayety and luxury of the ante-Union period. Those were the days of high play and hard drinking in England as well as in Ireland, and Dublin lived well up to the fashion. Mr. Fitzgerald dilates upon the recklessness, extravagance, and improvidence of all classes of society without any apparent appreciation of the melancholy significance of it all. Certainly, life then was not without excitement, but it is just as tolerable, even if it be rather duller, to-day, when bestial drunkenness with mock religious accompaniments is no longer regarded as jocose, and duelling is recognized as a savage absurdity. Mr. Fitzgerald seems to imagine, although he does not say so specifically, that the excesses of which he speaks were peculiar to Ireland, but as a matter of fact, it is almost needless to say, they were epidemic throughout the British Isles. It is probably true, however, that the Dublin theatres suffered more than the English from the license of the time. Being dependent upon a smaller and more impulsive community and the viceregal patent, they were compelled to truckle to every variety of social, religious, and political prejudice, and existed only on terms of great artistic degradation, even when their performances were most brilliant; being, in the most bitter sense, the servants of the King as well as of the public. It was no uncommon thing for a manager to be forced to make a public apology under penalty of having his theatre pulled about his ears. There are few more disgraceful episodes in theatrical history than the treatment accorded to poor Tom Sheridan, in connection with his production of the luckless "Mahomet."

Of this incident, as of many others, Mr. Fitzgerald gives a full and interesting account. He is a little diffuse and inconsequent, but he is never tedious, and his book will beguile an idle hour very pleasantly. For purposes of study and reference, however, it is useless, having no index.

Nineteenth-Century Questions. By James Freeman Clarke. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1897.

Dr. Clarke selected the papers in this volume for publication shortly before his death, and in the main they justify his approbation. They are in three sets, and they increase in interest from the first, "Literary

Studies," to the last, "Historical and Biographical." The midway set is "Religious and Philosophical." Of the literary studies the most important is "Did Shakspere Write Bacon's Works?" It turns the tables in an effective manner, showing that the greater was likelier to include the less than the less to include the greater. The religious and philosophical articles are polemical, and already "Why I am not a Free-Religionist" would sound strangely in a Unitarian conference, though Dr. Clarke was accounted a radical among Unitarians forty years ago.

The historical and biographical papers are particularly interesting as touching things in which Dr. Clarke had a personal acquaintance and a deep and vital interest. Thus, he writes of Carlyle as one of the first of those who felt the stress of his early inspiration, and as one of those who were most grieved by his decline and fall. He does not, however, sufficiently indicate the extent to which the germs of Carlyle's later brutalities existed in his earlier and earliest work. He is singularly inappreciative of that humanity in Voltaire which was so lacking in Carlyle. To Harriet Martineau is measured praise and blame in about equal parts. A fearful catalogue is made of her assaults on various people in her 'Autobiography.' He thinks she was needlessly afraid of being mobbed, especially in Louisville, Ky., where "it was easier at that time to speak against slavery than in Boston." This testimony of Dr. Clarke is that of a resident of Louisville, where he had his first parish. He also brings his personal knowledge to bear upon some of Mrs. Chapman's additions to Miss Martineau's book, and he "points with pride" to the "Protest against American Slavery," no mealy-mouthed affair, which he wrote and 173 Unitarian ministers signed when there were not more than 250 all told. But far the most interesting and valuable paper is his review of Wilson's 'Rise and Fall of the Slave Power,' which is less a review than a short history from his own point of view, and we could hardly have a better. The account of the early abolition meetings is at once critical and sympathetic. It is "important if true" that "Mr. Garrison always maintained that his converts were most likely to be made among those whose consciences had been educated by the Church and the Bible." Dr. Clarke's psychology of Southern bitterness is not that of Dr. Leonard W. Bacon, ascribing it to Nat. Turner's insurrection, nor that of Dr. Lyman Abbott, who fathers it on the abolitionists, but this, that the pro-slavery Southerner was subconsciously in the wrong; for nothing ever makes a man more bitter than to go counter to the deepest motions of his private heart.

The Conception of God. By Josiah Royce, Joseph Le Conte, G. H. Howison, and Sidney Edward Mezes. The Macmillan Co. 1897. 8vo, pp. xxxviii, 354.

On some day in 1895 Professor Royce delivered an address before the Philosophical Union at the University of California, which occupies fifty pages of this volume. This address was devoted to a restatement and simplification of the argument for the existence of a God given in Professor Royce's earlier book 'The Religious Aspect of Philosophy.' The argument substantially is, that the mere existence of experience shows that something exists, no matter how incoherent that experience may be. That experience, with whatever its existence involves, has a whole; and therefore there is an all-embracing being, which is all-knowing. Then, following out this line of reflection, the other attributes of Deity are regarded as deducible from omniscience. Of course, the other disputants, Professors Le Conte, Howison, and Mezes, were familiar with this argument in the earlier form in which its author had broached it. Following Professor Royce, Professor Mezes presented certain objections, which, as printed here, occupy a dozen pages. He substantially admits Prof. Royce's metaphysics, but is unable to see that the existence of a good God is thereby proved. Prof. Le Conte followed, and, in remarks of about the same length, urged, in very simple eloquence, the existence of a soul of the world, as harmonizing with our knowledge of nature and with the theory of evolution. The debate was closed by an attack upon the argument by Professor Howison, of equal length with the address that set it forth, from the standpoint of a Berkeleyan idealism. Prof. Howison, however, does not explicitly state his own theory. It appears that there were subsequent private discussions among the disputants, which had the excellent result of inducing Prof. Royce to write a supplementary essay that fills considerably more than half the volume, which is thus two-thirds of his writing. An introduction of thirty-eight pages, by Professor Howison, resumes the course of the disputation, and informs us that it resulted, in accordance with the time-honored custom of debate, whether philosophical or political, in all parties retaining their original opinions. The Supplementary Essay treats chiefly of the principle of individuation, and this, even more than the other parts of the book, is of decided value as a line of reasoning concerning logical and logico-metaphysical matters.

For few men will the book have any practical religious importance. In the eyes of the majority of modern logicians, religious metaphysics for the most part falls into two logical sins, which are far worse than fallacies. In the first place, it violates that logical rule which may be said to supersede all others with an imperial sway; namely, owing to the power of genuine scientific reasoning to correct itself—that is, to correct its own previous conclusions by the admission of additional evidence, to correct its very premises, as it constantly does in the most exact sciences, and even to correct its own fallacies, of which there are many historical examples—and owing to the fact that this scientific procedure is nothing but the self-development of man's original impulse of curiosity or interest, it may be said that the only one thing absolutely indispensable to the discovery of truth is the perfect sincerity and earnestness of the endeavor to get one's errors corrected and be set right. But the religious philosophers are not striving to get set right, but to defend a foregone conclusion, and, as history shows, by their mutual conflicts they attain only the imposing persuasions for which they strive, and not the truth for which they do not strive. It has been as often remarked that the religious metaphysicians usually commit another logical fault, that of totally misunderstanding the nature of necessary reasoning. Metaphysics has always been an ape of geometry. But nowadays geometers no longer regard the postulates of geometry as axioms, but merely as hypotheses. All that necessary reasoning can do is to keep an initial hypothesis consistent with itself; it cannot prove any matter of fact. But the religious metaphysicians seek thus either absolutely to hoist themselves by their boot-straps, or at least to very much increase the height of their jump. Starting with no premise except such as every man knows, they seek to make this take the place of the special religious experience upon which Christianity professes to be founded. Since Hegelianism was exploded, the world will not believe that philosophy (that is, so much of science as can be inferred from the common experience of all men) can do the work of the special sciences, each of which is founded on some department of experience, to be undergone only upon the fulfilment of laborious conditions.

The question to which Royce's Supplementary Essay is mainly devoted has an intimate connection with this frequently urged objection to metaphysics. The world of possibilities, in which necessary reasoning holds a solitary sway, is a world of generals. You can no more suppose an individual horse than you can wish for an individual horse. You can suppose a pseudo-individual—for example, a vague individual—just as you can wish for one horse and no more. Yet even this you can do only by the aid of a real experience. The world of existences to which truth relates, and in which necessary reasoning is out of place, is a world of individuals. The question for metaphysics is, therefore, how deep into the nature of things does the distinction between the general and the individual go. Prof. Royce comments upon what Aquinas and Duns Scotus have to say upon this subject, which was the leading topic of logico-metaphysical discussion from the middle of the thirteenth to the middle of the fourteenth century, say during the period of the decorated Gothic architecture. Duns Scotus, one of the ablest logicians that ever lived, was the principal doctor of that period to hold virtually the proposition that metaphysics has nothing decisive to say concerning religious questions, which must be left to religious experience or special information, or concerning special science, which must be left to the appropriate department of experience. "Non potest probari Deum esse vivum." See this and some dozens of similar propositions in his 'Tractatus de Creditis.' But if pure reasoning is thus impotent as to existence, the concrete world cannot be a mere solidification of the world of ideas. In harmony, therefore, with that view of demonstrative reasoning, he held that the principle of individuation was a certain "positing mode of being" (*positiva entitas*). This was not very explicit, but it was important as showing that the individuality was something utterly different from anything else. Throughout the writings of Scotus, not merely in the famous discussion concerning the third distinction of the second book of the 'Sentences,' but wherever the question of individuality is approached (as in the 'Questiones Subtilissimæ') we see its perculiarity insisted upon; yet Prof. Royce has read Scotus through such spectacles that he adduces him as an authority in favor of his own views. But Royce's speculations burningly approach the truth, and become most interesting when he connects individuation

with will. This is an important step for one who has always been an absolute idealist in the Hegelian sense; for the moment that the phenomenon of will, in its strictly individual character, is given its due place in philosophy, though a sort of absolute psychism may survive, a seed of death would seem to be implanted in the Hegelian system. Here is the keynote to this highly important contribution to logico-metaphysical thought:

"We have seen that the completion of the unity of Absolute Consciousness demands the presence of a factor not separate from thought and experience, yet not definable in terms either of bare thought or of the data of immediate experience, in so far as they are merely felt or are present as the merely sensuous fulfilment of thought. This new factor we have defined as will. We have seen that it does not form merely one of the contents of experience to which thought refers, but determines the world which fulfils thought to be this world rather than any of the other of the abstractly possible, but not genuinely possible worlds."

The last words indicate that Prof. Royce is still unwilling to admit an element of blind force in the universe. Nor does he make much of the intrinsically dualistic character of will.

Memorials of William C. Bond, Director of the Harvard College Observatory, and of his son, George P. Bond. By Edward S. Holden. San Francisco: Murdoch; New York: Lemcke & Buechner. 12mo, pp. 291.

Prof. Holden, with the aid of members of the Bond family, by whom most of the material was supplied, has here brought out a little book which will prove interesting to the general reader and important in the history of American science. American astronomy may be said to have come into an independent existence sixty years ago, and Bond was one of its pioneers. Like most born astronomers, he began trying what he could do in astronomical work at an early age. His first instruments were fashioned by himself, and were, of course, of the rudest description. Later, when he owned a small house, a huge granite block to support his transit instrument rose through the centre of the parlor, the ceiling of which was intersected by a meridian opening. In 1838 his well-established reputation led to his being engaged by the Navy Department to make observations for use in connection with the Wilkes exploring expedition to the Southern hemisphere. In the year following he accepted an invitation from President Quincy to connect himself with Harvard College, the only inducement offered being a residence and improved opportunities for his scientific work. The erection of the Harvard Observatory three years later afforded him for the first time facilities of the best class, of which he availed himself to initiate the long series of observations and researches which have raised the establishment to its present rank.

A curious historic circumstance connected with the early history of the Washington Observatory is obscurely alluded to in a footnote by G. P. Bond on page 23. That some project for placing a civilian astronomer in charge of this institution had been urged when it was founded, first came out through a remark in a letter of Maury to a friend, which was not published till after his death:

"You know I did not want the place, and only decided to keep it when I heard it had been promised to a civilian, under the plea that no one in the navy was fit for it. I then went to Mason . . . and told him he must stand by me. He did so, and though I had never seen an instrument of the kind before, and had no one with me who had, I was determined to ask no advice or instruction from the savants, but to let it be out and out a navy work."

It would seem from the note in question that the civilian here alluded to was Bond.

George P. Bond, the son and successor of William, had many of the characteristics of his father, and was more fortunate in having an early mathematical training. He was an industrious though not brilliant observer, and his two or three papers on mathematical astronomy are of high merit—one of them, indeed, may be called classic, as it contained the first development of one of the methods of "special perturbations" still in extensive use. This method was shortly afterwards independently worked out by Encke of Berlin, who, however, publicly acknowledged Bond's priority as soon as his attention was called to Bond's paper. A letter of Encke to Bond apologizing for his ignorance of the latter's work is found on p. 153.

The two men, father and son, were intimately associated with two capital improvements in practical astronomy. One of these is the system of registering the moment of an observation by electricity on a revolving cylinder; the other the application of photography to astronomy. But, although Bond seems to have been almost a pioneer in astronomical photography, the credit of first applying it to the practical purposes of celestial measurement on a large scale must still rest with Rutherfurd. The modest and retiring disposition of the two men was not conducive to public notoriety during their lives; and their work was characterized by patience, persistence, and good judgment rather than by brilliancy.

The Italic Dialects. By R. S. Conway. In two volumes. Cambridge, England: University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1897.

The study of the Italic dialects—meaning by Italic the ancient dialects of Italy, sisters of the Latin—has made remarkable progress within the last five years, and this is due in large degree to the teaching and inspiration of Prof. Brugmann of Leipzig, to whom Prof. Conway has dedicated his stately volumes. For many years Brugmann has made the interpretation of the Umbrian remains a feature of his *Sprachwissenschaftliche Gesellschaft,* and in 1891, when it fell to him to assign the subject for the first prize of the philosophical faculty, a statistical and comparative treatment of the Oscan vowel system was requested. This brought out two treatises, both of which were published in 1892 and contained a number of new discoveries. At about the same time a complete grammar of the Oscan-Umbrian dialects was announced by a Swiss scholar, Von Planta. Von Planta was also a member of Brugmann's Gesellschaft some six years before, and had been encouraged to continue his study of the Italic dialects. But he gave no sign of further activity, and at the time when the subject for the prize essay was assigned, Prof. Brugmann was not aware that he had been quietly but persistently at work along the same line. Still, only good resulted from this apparent glut of products in a field which had long been neglected. Some of the most important new results were vouched for by their discovery by all three authors, and each work had its own special merits.

But another desideratum, a new collection of the material, had not yet been supplied, and it was also in 1892 that the first announcement was made of 'The Italic Dialects,' by R. S. Conway, who had also been a participant in Brugmann's Gesellschaft for a short period. For the Umbrian, to be sure, the material was still practically restricted to the celebrated Iguvinian tables discovered at Gubbio in the fifteenth century, and the text of these is perfectly clear and well reproduced in the photographs published in connection with Bréal's edition. For the other dialects the various publications of the Russian Zvetaieff were in use. But where the reading was doubtful, as was not infrequently the case, the facsimiles of Zvetaieff were felt to be unsatisfactory guides to the establishment of the text. Moreover, a considerable number of new Oscan inscriptions had come to light and been edited in scattered articles.

In Prof. Conway's work which now lies before us we have a complete collection of all the material, inscriptional or otherwise, upon which our knowledge of the Italic dialects rests. The text of nearly all the inscriptions is based upon autopsy, made in the light of previous readings and conjectures. It may be mentioned here that the second volume of Von Planta's grammar, which appeared at the beginning of the year, is supplemented by a new collection of the inscriptions. These texts are also based upon autopsy, in some cases double, the author having made two trips to Italy for the purpose. But Von Planta's collection has not made Conway's book any the less welcome. Aside from the superior advantage of two pairs of eyes and two heads over one, the two collections are different in scope. That of Von Planta is a compact series of texts furnished as a supplement to a very comprehensive and complete grammar of the dialects. With Conway, the presentation of the material is the main object, this being supplemented by a brief outline of the grammar. His work is epigraphical rather than grammatical. The customary epigraphical data, such as size, provenance, form of alphabet, etc., are given with the greatest fulness, combined with other pertinent archæological observations; witness the elaborate discussion of the somewhat mysterious *iovilae* dedications from Old Capua, or the minute measurements of the *mensa ponderaria* of Pompeii. Clearly no pains have been spared to make the external evidence absolutely complete, and in this lies one of the chief merits of the book. The new collation of the inscriptions has naturally produced a number of minor changes in the texts, but it cannot be said that there are many startling results. Scarcely any new words have been brought to light and few old friends have disappeared, though Von Planta has decided that the oft-quoted *úiniversím* of a Capuan inscription must be given up. A discovery made by both Conway and Von Planta in regard to a short inscription running around the neck of a small column (Conway No. 176) has yielded a neat result.

In addition to the inscriptions, including coin legends, our author has given us the

dialect glosses, and also lists of the geographical and personal names belonging to the different parts of ancient Italy, supplemented by such modern names of places as might possibly be of ancient origin. All this material is carefully assorted. Glosses which can be assigned with certainty are distinguished from those of more doubtful provenance. The lists of personal names are classified according to frequency, and other distinctions are made apparent by various typographical devices. Collections of Italic glosses have been made before, but in the classified name-lists we have a body of material now first made accessible. Its value, indeed, is only subsidiary, but scholars may well be thankful to the author for the stupendous labor which has made it available for what it is worth.

The arrangement of the book is geographical. Brief introductions to the various sections furnish concise historical data pertaining to the several tribes or to the individual towns. The author rightly feels that the records of the different tribes are not to be regarded merely as so much linguistic material for comparative philologists, much as these have done for the better understanding of them, but as important (for some periods and some regions almost the only) monuments of tribal history and civilization. How many who read in their Livy of Oscan-speaking spies sent into the Samnite camp realize that the language of the people that gave Rome her hardest battle for supremacy in Italy is not entirely unknown to us?

The classification of the dialects is unusual in two points, one being only a matter of nomenclature, the other involving a more serious question. The inscriptions of the Paeligni, Marrucini, and Vestini are classed as North Oscan instead of Sabellian, the ordinary designation. It is certainly well to emphasize the close relationship of these dialects, especially the Paelignian, of which we know most, with the Oscan. Strictly speaking, the Samnites are Sabellians, and their language, the Oscan, a Sabellian dialect or set of dialects. But the course of history has won an independent position for both people and language, and it is questionable if it is not better to adhere to the classical use of Oscan. The other departure from orthodoxy consists in ranging the dialects of the Marsi, Aequi, and Sabini under the Latin-Faliscan, or, to adopt the author's more convenient title, the Latinian group. Professor Conway has on another occasion intimated his belief that these dialects did not belong to the Oscan-Umbrian group, and one is disappointed not to find a fuller discussion of the matter here. It is true that the scanty material we have shows no marked Oscan-Umbrian characteristics; but, in view of the fact that these dialects were among the very first to fall under Latin influence, this evidence is hardly adequate. It will certainly appear to many that the traditional connection of these tribes with the Sabellian group should be allowed some weight until more and older material is at hand to establish the true character of the dialects.

Part ii., printed in a separate volume, contains a brief outline of the grammar of the dialects, followed by full indices of the local and gentile names and a glossary of the dialects. If one might be permitted to wish for more where so much has been given, it would be in the direction of another appendix similar to that in Robert's 'Greek Epigraphy,' with commentaries on some of the longer inscriptions. To be sure, the glossary indicates the author's interpretation of individual words and occasionally of phrases, but any one who has struggled with the divergent views on many difficult passages would gladly learn what conclusion the author himself has reached, even where he would simply confirm one's own *non liquet*.

The mechanical execution of the book is everything that could be desired, and all scholars should subscribe to the thanks rendered in the preface to the Syndics of the Cambridge University Press for their liberality. 'The Italic Dialects' is not only an indispensable piece of apparatus to the linguistic student, but of the highest value to every historian and classicist whose interest in ancient Italy is not confined to Rome. As stated above, the collection of material which Professor Conway offers us is incomplete. Let us hope that it will not long remain so. It does not seem likely that the soil of Umbria will yield much, but Oscan inscriptions are turning up nearly every year, either from the excavations at Pompeii or Capua, or as the result of some accidental find in Samnium. Systematic excavations, if made possible, would unquestionably meet with considerable success, and their importance can be realized only when we remember that Oscan is the Gothic of the Italic dialects. An Oscan inscription of fair extent may do more for the solution of problems of historical Latin grammar than years of work in the study.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Audubon, Maria R. Audubon and His Journals. 2 vols. Scribners. $7.50.
Babyhood. Vol. XIII. December, 1896—November, 1897. Babyhood Publishing Co.
Balfour, Andrew. By Stroke of Sword. New York: Truslove & Comba. $1.25.
Barton, W. E. The Truth about the Trouble at Roundstone. Boston: Pilgrim Press. 50c.
Biddle, A. J. D. Shantytown Sketches. The Second Froggy Fairy Book. Philadelphia: Drexel Biddle.
De Leon, T. C. A Bachelor's Box. F. T. Neely.
Gould, E. S. High Masonry Dams. D. Van Nostrand Co. 50c.
Holyoake, G. J. The Jubilee History of the Leeds Industrial Coöperative Society. Leeds, Eng.: Central Coöperative Offices.
Humphrey, Mrs. Manners for Women. M. F. Mansfield. 50c.
Keeler, Mary A. Just a Summer Affair. F. T. Neely.
Lucas, E. V. A Book of Verses for Children. Henry Holt & Co. $2.
McCrady, Edward. The History of South Carolina under the Proprietary Government, 1670-1719. Macmillan. $3.50.
Miller, Fred. The Training of a Craftsman. New York: Truslove & Comba. $2.
Music for the Soul: Daily Readings for a Year from the Writings of the Rev. Alexander Maclaren. Armstrong. $1.50.
Nietzsche, Freidrich. A Genealogy of Morals. Macmillan.
Parmentier, A. Album Historique. Tome II. La Fin du Moyen Age. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Rands, W. B. Lilliput Lectures. New York: M. F. Mansfield. $1.25.
Schulz, Alfred. Geschichts-Atlas. Gotha: Justus Perthes; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Shufeldt, Dr. R. W. Chapters on the Natural History of the United States. New York: Studer Bros.
The King's Daughter and the King's Son: A Fairy Tale of To-day. Fowler & Wells Co. 75c.
The Library of Congress. Providence, R. I.: Dart & Bigelow. $1.
Thayer, Emma H. Petronilla the Sister. F. T. Neely.
Vincent, Prof. G. E. The Social Mind and Education. Macmillan. $1.20.

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